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### **Investigating the Influence of Organizational Justice on Organizational Commitment, Work Motivation, and Job Satisfaction: An Example of Retail Employees**

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## **Abstract**

The aim of this thesis was threefold. First, this thesis examined the effects of distributive justice on retail employees' affective commitment, extrinsic motivation, and the extrinsic dimensions of job satisfaction, namely pay satisfaction and promotion satisfaction. Second, the influence of procedural justice on retail employees' affective commitment, intrinsic motivation, and one of the intrinsic dimensions of job satisfaction, namely satisfaction with supervision was investigated. Third, the moderating role of outcome favorability in the relationship between procedural justice and intrinsic motivation was assessed. In this regard, hierarchical regression analyses were used to test the hypotheses and to investigate the data collected from 184 employees who worked in a department store located in Vienna. Results provided support for all the research's hypotheses.

The study found that distributive justice had a significant positive effect on retail employees' affective commitment. Moreover, it had a positive impact on employees' extrinsic motivation. Also, it was shown that distributive justice had a significant positive effect on both pay satisfaction and satisfaction with promotion opportunities.

The study also found that procedural justice had a strong positive effect on retail employees' affective commitment. In addition, procedural justice was shown to be an important predictor of employees' personal interest in their work. Lastly, this variable had a strong positive effect on retail employees' satisfaction with their supervisors.

Finally, the interaction effect of procedural justice and outcome favorability on employees' intrinsic motivation was investigated using both hierarchical regression analysis and simple slopes analysis. The findings suggested that outcome favorability moderates the effect of procedural justice on retail employees' intrinsic motivation. More specifically, it was shown that when outcomes were not favorable to the employees, employees' perceptions of procedural fairness had a significant positive effect on employees' intrinsic motivation. In contrast, when outcomes were favorable to the employees, employees' perceptions of procedural fairness were irrelevant to the employees' personal interest in their jobs.

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## 1. Introduction

Most adults spend about half of their waking lives at work (Kremer, Sheehy, Reilly, Trew, & Muldoon, 2003). They join organizations with specific abilities and certain desires, goals and motives like income and job security, better prospects in the future, and organizations need people to reach organizational objectives. It is very common for people to accept jobs that meet their immediate needs (Shief, 2008). However, work is not always the place where people feel satisfied. Dissatisfaction triggers thoughts of leaving, evaluation of alternatives, intention to quit, and finally turnover (Mobley, 1982 in Jang, 2008). As absenteeism and turnover of competent and experienced employees influences a company's profitability and market competitiveness what can employers do to assist employees to have a more satisfying work experience? What does it take for employees to be truly satisfied with their jobs? We argue that an employer's critical consideration may be the issue of fairness.

The present thesis is concerned with retail employees. Retail is important for the economy of most countries, mainly because of its large scale at all levels; local, national and even international. In Austrian context, retail is one of the dynamic sectors of the economy. Totally 39,000 retailers make around 54 Mrd. € turnover and the retail industry employs 8% of Austria's entire working population, namely 300,000 employees (Wolf, 2013). In retailing, employees have a direct impact on the customers, and the employee-customer relationship is an important consideration in a company's success (Tan & Waheed, 2011). However, store employees are often more or less ignored as a competitive factor in retailing (Finne & Sivonen, 2008). In fact, some studies show that retail employees are generally less satisfied with their jobs (Schultz & Schultz, 1998; Rhoads et al., 2002 in Chung, Rutherford, & Park, 2012).

Retail employees, specifically speaking, store-level employees, like any other service employees, are in a boundary-spanning position; on the one hand they play an important role in representing the store and enhancing the store's image (Chung et al., 2012), and on the other hand, they have to bridge the gap between the store and customers (Herrington & Lomax, 1999). From the customers' point of view, they also are responsible for service quality and internal communications concerning customers' needs (Bettencourt, Brown, &

MacKenzie, 2005). Needless to say that they often need to conform to conflicting demands from customers and supervisors, and ambiguous guidance from co-workers or management concerning different expectations (Babin & Boles, 1996; Chung et al., 2012).

Retail positions are characterized by long unsociable working hours, physical exertion, and routines (Broadbridge, 1999; Rhoads et al., 2002) which require accurate performance during intense work periods. Characterized by low status within the company and society (Bateson, 1995 in Herrington & Lomax, 1999) service industry jobs are generally high stress. Furthermore, working during peak sales and intense work periods necessitates retail employees nowadays to be multi-tasking. Retail jobs have also been low-paid with few benefits and heavy workloads. They are also characterized with little promotion and advancement opportunities. In addition, using 'flexible' workforce practices makes life for many retail employees difficult. In fact, companies are not only keeping a lid on hourly wages, but also rationing hours while requiring employees to be flexible and available to work at all hours of the day or night, on weekends and even during holidays. In fact, retail employees have "no predictability to their lives" (Appelbaum, n.d. in Sherter, 2013). In addition, using shop-floor traffic metrics and sales commission for salespeople help retailers to decide when, or if, to schedule their employees. This will assist retailers in limiting employee-hours' amounts to limiting payroll costs. Further, aggressive workforce scheduling strategies (e.g., just-in-time personnel planning) and performance-based compensation approaches (e.g., merit pay and bonus) make retail employees and salespeople compete with each other on the working hours and sales commission instead of competing with the rival stores. All of these characteristics and demands on retail employees may go hand in hand to negatively influence retail employees' work related attitudes and behavior such as job satisfaction and work motivation.

Research (Katzell & Thompson, 1990; Summers & Hendrix, 1991; Berry & Houston, 1993 in Coy, 2011; Pool, 1997; Joshi & Sharma, 1997; Kreitner, Kinicki, & Buelens, 2002; Wright & Kim, 2004; Lauby, 2005; Roos, 2005; Wegge et al., 2006 in Sharma, Bajpai, & Holani, 2011; Moynihan & Pandey, 2007 in Ahmed & Islam, 2011; Ayub & Rafif, 2011; Saleem, Mahmood, & Mahmood, 2010; Ahmed & Islam, 2011; Maharjan, 2012; Lut, 2012) suggests that there is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and work motivation. In addition to this, work motivation is proven to enhance employees' willingness to stay with the organization which in turn leads to their strengthened organizational commitment (Schein, 1996 in Lumley, Coetzee, & Tladinyane, 2011; Arndt et al., 2006 in Ming, Zivlak, &

Ljubičić, 2012; Kim, Leong, & Lee, 2005). Hence, if employees get committed to the retailer, they will develop tenure with the store, they get to know both the products and the store better which leads to increase in their level of competence. This, together with job satisfaction, will lead employees to have fun at work, have a true passion for products and services they sell, enjoy servicing customers and expend more time, energy, and value-adding discretionary work efforts which not only positively affects the retailer's performance, but it also will ultimately be translated into customer loyalty and satisfaction which give rise to the retailer's sales growth.

Thus, in order for a retailer to be successful and survive the market, it must be able to enhance employees' desirable work outcomes by identifying those factors that influence employees' commitment, motivation, and satisfaction. In this regard, a very important consideration of a sales organization may be organizational fairness. Indeed, the issue of fairness in organizations is an imperative concept for employees because it affects their attitudes and behavior (Mowday, 1987 in Usmani & Jamal, 2013; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000). In this regard, in order to keep retail employees satisfied, motivated, committed, and loyal to the store, the company needs to be fair. The issue of the perceived fairness applies to various organizational aspects. In each aspect, employees judge whether they are treated fairly or not. They are primarily concerned whether they receive their "just share" in exchange for their contributions toward the organization (Cropanzano, Bowen, & Gilliland, 2007).

Rewards and financial outcomes are used as instruments to guide behavior and performance in an attempt to attract and retain good employees and keep them satisfied and motivated. In between, managers are challenged to allocate an organization's scarce resources such as pay and promotions in an equitable way. As Forest and Love (2008) note, a source of motivation for employees is the existence of equitable distribution of outcomes. A perceived inequity leads to feelings of injustice which work against employees' work motivation. This drives employees to restore the perceived inequity for instance by expending lower levels of work effort. In contrary, when they observe that rewards are linked to their inputs in work, they feel satisfaction regarding working environment and co-workers which engenders the favorable attitudes of employees towards workplace and enhances their morale. Apart from that, employees are also concerned with the fairness of decision-making procedures because it assures them achieving more desirable outcomes (Lind & Tyler, 1988). This gets more important to them, especially when their relative outcomes are low. Thus, if the distribution of outcomes and the decision-making procedures in an organization are perceived as fair, then

employees will be more satisfied with their outcomes, more willing to accept the resolution of that procedure, and more likely to form positive attitudes towards the organization such as job satisfaction (Tyler & Lind, 1992; Bingham, 1997).

To make it short, fostering of justice in sales force is crucial in managerial considerations (Kashyap et al., 2007 in DeConinck & Johnson, 2009). Greenberg (1990) suggests in order to enhance motivation and commitment, managers should at least “look fair” from their subordinates’ point of view. A company does not have to be the best-paying, but it has to be fair in many aspects. Unless employees perceive fair procedures will be used to distribute outcomes in their workplace and that they will be treated fair by managers, they will not be motivated to adequately contribute their inputs to the organization.

### **Purpose of the study**

This thesis is mainly concerned with studying and investigating the main effects of organizational justice (i.e., distributive and procedural justice) on retail employees’ organizational commitment, work motivation (i.e., intrinsic and extrinsic work motivation), and selected facets of job satisfaction (i.e., pay, promotion, and supervision). In this context, this thesis will focus on the apparel business sector of the retail industry. Accommodating 3,500 companies with 38,000 workforces with a sales volume of 4.8 Mrd. €, this sector is one of the biggest sectors of the retail industry in Austria with an 11% share of employment and a share of 9% of industry sales (Wolf, 2013). In this regard, this study will use an example of a retailer operating in this sector, and survey those retail employees who work on the store’s shop floor.

In this regard, both laboratory experiments and field research have been conducted. Numerous researchers have examined the influence of organizational justice on job satisfaction (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Dailey & Kirk, 1992; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Sarsfield-Baldwin & Tang, 1996; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001; Spector & Cohen-Charash, 2001; Tremblay & Roussel, 2001; Tyler & Blader, 2000; Bakhshi, Kumar, & Rani, 2009; Al-Zu’bi, 2010; Fatimah et al., 2011; Khan & Habib, 2011; Usmani & Jamal, 2013), and organizational commitment (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Greenberg, 1990; Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991 in Nicholson, 2009; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Sarsfield-Baldwin & Tang, 1996; Colquitt et al., 2001; Spector & Cohen-Charash, 2001; Gohar et al., 2010 in Bakhshi et al., 2009; Khan & Habib, 2011) in diversified professions. But, to the author’s knowledge, empirical research with respect to these relationships in retail settings is somewhat limited. In addition, the research on the effects of organizational justice on work

motivation seems to be sparse (see Dubinsky & Levy, 1989; Tyagi, 1990; Zapata-Phelan, Colquitt, Scott, & Livingston, 2009).

Indeed, employees' organizational commitment, work motivation and job satisfaction are important topics in retailing and organizational psychology literature, but the studies examining the influence of distributive and procedural justice on retail employees' work motivation are very rare. Moreover, research on examining the linkages between these two types of justice and organizational-level (i.e., organizational commitment) and personal-level (i.e., job satisfaction) outcomes of employees in retailing context are somewhat limited. Also, as far as could be ascertained, investigating the effects of distributive and procedural justice on the retail employees' organizational variables mentioned above has not been reported in the same study in Austria as yet.

## 2. Literature Review

### 2.1. Organizational Justice

Justice is a complex phenomenon which may have different meanings to different people and different interpretations in cultures, religions, and civilizations. A member of any of these groups considers something “just” if it is “fair”. Because of that, literature (Rawls, 1971 in Kercher, 2004) suggests that both notions may be used interchangeably. Justice refers to the individuals’ subjective evaluation of the rightness of treatment they receive; that is, what one thinks to be fair is based on one’s perceptions of fairness rather than an objective reality (Bazerman, 1993 in Beugré, 1998). This implies that justice judgments are relative, and not absolute, to different people. In other words, what may be perceived as fair by X may be considered unfair by Y. According to Sheppard, Lewicki, and Minton (1992 in Beugré, 1998; 2007), relativeness of justice judgments are influenced by the individuals’ social motivation and philosophy, and their own group membership. In order for the justice judgments to be effective, individuals should judge a situation by either its rightness or wrongness independent of their personal benefits. Moreover, individuals or group members have to accept rules and decisions regardless of their self-interest (Tyler, 2000).

The term organizational justice was first coined by Greenberg (1987), referring to the employees’ perceptions of, and reactions to, fairness within an organization. It is concerned with the manner in which employees or a group is treated and how they perceive such treatments as fair. Low perceptions of organizational justice trigger employees’ counterproductive work behaviors such as wasting time and resources, theft, sabotage, and verbal and physical abuse (George & Jones, 2012). The perceptual nature of justice calls for a minimum objective standard of justice, such as dignity and respect because being treated in such way may be perceived as fair by most employees (Beugré, 1998).

Employees are concerned with justice in their workplace for three reasons: *First*, achievement concerns; it means justice positively influences employees’ attitudes which, in turn, positively improves their performance (Deutsch, 1985). This view conceptualizes justice as a means to an end. That is, people tend to choose between fair and unfair behaviors based on the situation being beneficial or not beneficial to them (Reis, 1984 in Beugré, 1998). *Second*, group-

membership concerns because fairness increases employees' sense of membership in, and identification with their group, department, or organization. And *third*, employees are concerned with respect, dignity and humanness in the workplace as being treated in such manner enhances their subjective well-being (Sheppard et al., 1992 in Beugré, 1998). Cropanzano et al. (2007) sum up these considerations as long-rane benefits, social considerations, and ethical considerations.

Organizational justice is conceptualized as a combination of different dimensions. In this regard, the present thesis is concerned with the two main illustrations of organizational justice, namely distributive justice, and procedural justice which will be discussed in the succeeding section.

### **2.1.1. Distributive Justice**

Distributive justice refers to the employees' perceptions of fairness of outcome distribution or allocation of all types of resources (Tyler & Blader, 2000). In a retailing context, sometimes things are distributed just, as when the most qualified salespeople get promoted to department managers. Other times they are may not, as when advancement goes to a trainee who is advantaged due to having some 'ties' to upper management. Or, when a group of employees is not offered purchase-by-personnel discounts, while others enjoy such opportunity. A further instance may be when some employees are not provided with health insurance, whereas other employees enjoy it.

In this regard, distributive justice theories are concerned with the reality that not all employees are treated in the same way in an organization (Cropanzano et al., 2007). Indeed, "the way people are treated in organizations exerts a powerful effect on their reactions that is independent of the objective features of their work environments" (Aquino et al., 1991, p. 1222 in Beugré, 1998). According to Spector and Cohen-Charash (2001), this impacts their well-being<sup>1</sup> as it affects their cognition (e.g., cognitively distort inputs and outcomes of oneself or of the other: see Adams, 1965, & Walster, Walster, & Berscheid, 1978), their affects and emotions (e.g., experiencing anger, happiness, pride, or guilt: see Weiss, Suckow, & Cropanzano, 1999), and their behavior (e.g., performance or withdrawal: see Spector et al., 2001) regarding a particular outcome. Having in mind the three examples mentioned above, the following part tries to shed light on the principles underlying distributive justice.

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<sup>1</sup> Employees' well-being comprises all physiological, psychological, economic, and social aspects of their lives (Deutsch, 1985).



The most influential approach to distributive justice is the **equity theory** (Adams, 1965) which has its roots in balance theories. Adams (1965) who was under the influence of Festinger's cognitive dissonance theory, which proposed that the degree of the perceived discrepancy between the employees' belief and their behavior determines their motivation to reduce the discrepancy (and therefore, the greater the discrepancy, the greater the motivation to reduce this discrepancy), proposed that employees are motivated by their needs to be treated equitably in their workplace. The feelings of equity and fairness are the results of the employees' subjective balance between their inputs in the work and the outcomes they received. Based on social comparisons, employees believe that rewards and punishments (i.e., outcomes) should be distributed according to their contributions (i.e., inputs) (Leventhal, 1980). In fact, employees focus on the fairness of the distribution of outcomes and how they can avoid or escape from a perceived unfairness. In doing so, employees weigh inputs and outcomes according to their relevance and importance to them. Then, they compare their own outcome-input ratio to those of the relevant others. If they perceive the ratio to be in a state of equilibrium with those of the referent person/group, they perceive their situation as fair, hence, justice prevails. If they perceive the ratio as unequal, state of inequity exists. When employees feel under-rewarded, they experience equity tension that creates anger. When they see themselves as over-rewarded, this tension creates guilt. As feelings of unfairness or perceived inequity are uncomfortable feelings, they provide motivation for the employees to do something to correct it. In this regard, they may try to correct or reduce the negative tension by means of alternating one (or more) elements of the outcome-input ratio; cognitively distorting perceptions of one's own outcome-input or that of others; choosing another referent; or leaving the organization (Adams, 1965).

In retailing context, employees' inputs may take a variety of forms such as working hard, effort, experience, education, flexibility, tolerance, time, support of co-workers, commitment, honesty, trust, skill, and ability. Typical outcomes in this context may include rewards in either tangible (e.g., salary, merit pay, and bonus), or intangible (job security, recognition, praise, esteem, responsibility, advancement and growth, respect, etc.) forms. In terms of equity theory, when the salespeople perceive that their contributions to the department's turnover are recognized equitably by the supervisor or sales manager in comparison to other employees in other departments, they find themselves in an equitable exchange relationship. Otherwise, an imbalance in the relationship leads to feelings of unfairness which employees try to reduce or eliminate.

Equity theory, which is categorized by Greenberg (1987) as a *reactive content theory*, is one-dimensional because it merely focuses on the outcomes being distributed proportional to employees' inputs or contributions. In this sense, employees' perceptions of justice are influenced by equity rule; that is, those who perform better should get more outcomes (Leventhal, 1980). A problem with the theory is its self-serving bias; that is, employees tend to exaggerate the value of their own contributions (inputs) and to minimize the values of inputs (contributions) of others (Tyler et al., 1997; Tyler, 2000).

Besides equity principle, researchers (Deutsch, 1975; Leventhal, 1980; Deutsch, 1985) suggest multidimensional approaches to justice judgments. These approaches suggest two further components or rules which may also influence employees' perceptions of distributive fairness: An *equality rule* which postulates that all the employees should receive similar outcomes regardless of their needs or contribution; and a *need rule* which suggests that employees with greater need should receive higher outcomes. An illustration of the multidimensional approach is the Leventhal (1976 in Lee, 2000; Leventhal, 1980) Justice Judgment Model. According to the Justice Judgment Model, which is categorized by Greenberg (1987) as a *proactive content theory*, employees judge their "deservingness" by selecting and applying different distribution rules in different times, and their evaluations of allocation processes made by the allocator (and thereby, their evaluations of justice) may vary in different situations because employees proactively apply different justice rules.

Based on the goals they pursue in a certain social interaction, people may choose among different justice principles: (a) if they are pursuing economic productivity and competition, they may choose the equity rule; (b) if fostering enjoyable and harmonious social relationships, or solidarity between group members is the individuals' goal, they may apply the equality rule; and (c) if they are concerned with personal development and personal welfare, they may pursue need as the principle of social justice (Deutsch, 1975; Tyler, Boeckmann, Smith, & Huo, 1997). According to Walster et al. (1978), equity rule dominates competitive-oriented societies and capitalistic systems in which people follow their self-interest and try to maximize their own profits. This rule corresponds to the *homo economicus* view of human beings (Skitka, Winquist, & Hutchinson, 2003).

It seems that equity rule may be well adopted by many sales organizations like those retailers that incentivize salespeople with merit pay or bonus. Indeed, equitable rewards increase productivity through allocating high rewards to well-performing employees and low rewards to low-performing ones (Deutsch, 1985; Barrett-Howard & Tyler, 1986 in Tyler et al., 1997).

In such case, the retail employees see productivity as the goal, and are driven by competition and profit maximization. Moreover, as salespeople see that their outcomes are linked to their performance, they tend to constantly compare their own performance (e.g., their sales volume) with those of the others. This leads to interpersonal competition with the aim of maximizing own outcomes. It not only triggers an inter-departmental competition, but it also leads to intra-departmental rivalries; as the departments start to compare their sales volume with each other, they may find themselves competing with each other across the store. Thus, one may expect to experience impersonal behavior, lower sympathy and collegial friendships across such organizations. In this regard, Deutsch (1985) suggests that being rewarded equally yields higher levels of group productivity in comparison to being rewarded individually in terms of employees' relative contribution to the department's targets.

On the other hand, an allocator may also distribute rewards based on principles that violate equity norms; An organization may choose among different justice rules, or use a combination of these principles as the basis for rewarding different groups of employees across the organization (Greenberg, 1987). In this sense, the principle of equality may seem to be the easiest approach in allocating resources, but there are cases in which resources cannot be divided equally between employees. More complex is allocation of resources based on needs. Indeed, the multidimensional nature of employees' needs suggests that those needs may be a function of time, and it should be a difficult task for an organization to identify all needs of its employees. The most complex task is however applying the equity rule (Törnblom & Vermunt, 2007).

### **2.1.2. Procedural Justice**

The concept of procedural justice is younger than distributive justice and has its roots in the works of Rawls (1971 in Törnblom & Vermunt, 2007) and Thibaut and Walker (1975 in Törnblom & Vermunt, 2007). In this regard, Rawls was concerned with how an allocator divides a pie and how a recipient chooses his or her share. In this sense, the allocator tries to choose a procedure for dividing the pie in which both parties get a fair and just share since dividing the pie unequally would motivate the recipient to choose the bigger part. The main tenet was to show that people evaluate the allocation process to get feelings of fairness. Therefore, procedures (i.e., rules applied by allocator) and distribution of outcomes interact with each other to create justice judgements (Törnblom & Vermunt, 2007). Thibaut and Walker's idea was that people would be more willing to accept an outcome if those outcomes

are fairly decided on. That is, if people perceive decision-making procedures as fair, they are more satisfied with their outcomes regardless of negative or positive valence of the outcomes (Tyler & Blader, 2000). In other words, the focus shifts from “What was distributed to whom?” to “Are there any procedures, processes, or systems in place for determining what was distributed to whom?” (Latham, 2007, p. 95).

The concept of procedural justice (a *reactive process theory*), introduced by Thibaut and Walker (1975 in Greenberg, 1987), focused primarily on the disputant’s reactions to legal procedures. They conceptualized procedural justice with two types of input into decisions: (1) *process control*, referring to how much people have control over the development and selection of information based on which the final decision will be made; and (2) *decision control*, that is, the degree to which every involved individual can directly determine the decision’s outcomes (Folger & Greenberg, 1985; Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996). They suggest that people tend to perceive a decision’s outcome as fairer, and hence, are more satisfied with it, if they are given a chance to have control over the decision-making process (i.e., to have a *say* or *voice*) than when they are offered no control over the decision-making process. In this sense, process control is instrumental to people because it guarantees attaining better outcomes (Lind & Tyler, 1988). However, Lind and Tyler (1988) cite some research (e.g., Lissak, 1983; Early, 1984; Kanfer et al., 1987) suggesting that process control and voice enhance procedural justice regardless of the decision outcome.

Deutsch (1975) also suggested that feelings of injustice with respect to outcomes are derived from the employees’ perceptions of unfairness of values, rules, implementation, and of decision-making procedures which in turn affect their well-being. He further noted that there exists a two-way relationship between employees’ well-being and well-functioning of their groups.

Extending the notion of procedural justice to the non-legal contexts such as organizational settings were substantiated by Leventhal (1980), and Leventhal, Karuza, and Fry (1980 in Lee, 2000). Within organizations, it is quite normal that employees encounter formal decision-making procedures. In the retailing context, such procedures include, for instance, those processes based on which the salespeople’s performance is evaluated, the next month’s sales targets are set, the work contracts can be terminated, the working-hours are scheduled, or the promotion candidates are selected. In contrast to political or legal contexts, sales organizations such as retailers use idiosyncratic procedures to make decisions. For example, while retailer X may decide to extend its opening hours and directly pay out employees for

the extended work hours, retailer Y may decide to extend its opening hours with no direct payment but by offering employees compensatory time-off for those extra hours worked. Moreover, within the same organization, it is quite possible that procedures vary along dimensions relevant to procedural justice (Lind & Tyler, 1988). For instance, a retailer may allow the salespeople's little input in their performance appraisals, but no input in setting sales targets for the next season. It is also possible that procedures for making the same decision vary across different groups of employees. For instance, salespeople may have little voice in their performance evaluation, whereas department managers may have a considerable voice in it. However, when employees feel that their viewpoints were adequately taken into account before rendering the final decision with regard to a particular outcome, they are more likely to support and accept the decision outcomes even if they were not originally congruent with their original viewpoints and expectations.

Aside from the decision and the process control rules, the Leventhal (1980) model of procedural justice proposes that employees' perceptions of procedural justice are represented by six justice rules that define norms for the proper and a socially acceptable behavior of a decision-making authority (Tyler & Bies, 1990). Each of these rules, which are weighted differently in different situations, assist employees to evaluate how fair they perceive the procedures to be, rather than how fair the procedures actually are:

1. The ***consistency rule*** dictates that allocation procedures should be consistent across all employees, and over time. When applied to employees, the rule dictates that similar procedures should be applied to all recipients of a reward and advantage should not go to any favored employees. It may be the case when marginal salespersons are not allowed to exceed the monthly limit for earning merit bonus, and hence, they earn less money, while the full- or part-time salespeople have no limits in earning sales commission, and thus, they can earn more money. The former group may see themselves disadvantaged by the procedures based on which payoff decisions are made. When applied over time, the rule dictates that procedures should be kept stable at least over the short term. If, for instance, rewarding a task gets stopped shortly after its introduction, employees perceive organizational authorities to be inconsistent in decision-making.

2. The ***Bias-suppression*** rule dictates that personal self-interest, interpersonal 'ties' and personal preferences should be prevented at all points in allocation procedures. Decision-maker bias is quite likely to happen in work organizations (Tyler & Bies, 1990). Consider a

case in which salespeople apply for a training program. And, the competent employees' applications get rejected in favor of some employees who have some contacts with the department manager. The disadvantaged employees may see the decision maker biased if they perceive that he or she has a vested interest in the allocation, and thus, may not be neutral. Such perceptions influence their feelings of fairness with regard to procedural justice (Tyler & Bies, 1990).

3. *The accuracy rule* dictates that allocation procedures should be based adequately on good information and informed opinion as well as minimum error. Department managers are expected to rate the salespeople's performance with high accuracy as their ratings have implications for the salespeople's future outcomes such as lay-off, promotion, pay raise, etc. An unbiased supervisor who keeps records of employees' performance with high precision and minimum error can therefore evaluate salesperson's performance with high accuracy. There should also exist some mechanisms that prevent opportunistic behaviors. Such behaviors are also likely to happen in retail organizations in which the salespeople's performance is evaluated and their payoff includes sales percentage. The company's emphasis on turnover may drive the salespeople to 'steal' each other's customers in order to receive the sales commission, and ultimately be evaluated better than others. According to Cornelius (1985 in Lind & Tyler, 1988) procedures with higher accuracy are considered as more fair than low accuracy procedures.

4. *The correctability rule* deals with the existence of opportunities to change unfair decisions. For instance, if a retail organization decides to cut work-hours of some employees, the employees who perceive that this decision has negative impact on their well-being should be allowed to challenge or appeal the decision made by the managers. Besides that, lack of channels for communicating the appeal, or barriers to lodging the complaint may also lead to the decreased level of the perceived procedural fairness.

5. *The representativeness rule* emphasizes that allocation procedures should represent the concerns of all employees and subgroups. However, importance of subgroups and employees is subjective as each employee may consider him-/herself as the most important individual. In this regard, a sales organization, like a retailer, may try to enhance the perceived procedural fairness by setting up a works council which should consist of agents with

different socioeconomic backgrounds who represent the interest of important employee groups. This rule is in fact concerned with voice and participation in decision-making (Kruglanski & Stroebe, 2012). According to Leventhal (1980), employees perceive allocation procedures as fairer when there is a genuine participatory decision-making and frequent consultation with managers. In contrary, if they perceive that voice procedures are falsely attempts to seduce them into accepting a self-serving allocation by the allocator, they will get frustrated (Cohen, 1985 in Lind & Tyler, 1988).

6. *The ethicality rule* dictates that allocative procedures must be compatible with the fundamental moral and ethical values or standards accepted by the employees. When outcome allocator treat employees with dignity and respect and behave in a courteous and polite manner, employees' perceptions of justice will be enhanced. This rule corresponds to the interpersonal aspects of procedures which indeed have important implications in judgements about procedural fairness (Tyler & Bies, 1990).

Complementary to the above-mentioned rules is the rule of providing an *account* (Tyler & Bies, 1990). That is, decision makers should provide clear and adequate explanations or account for the rendered decision. It is especially important when the decisions lead to unfavorable outcomes for employees.

### **2.1.3. Outcome Favorability, and its Interaction with Procedural Justice**

Outcome favorability refers to whether employees receive positive rather than negative results from their exchange relationships (Skitka et al., 2003). For example, a highly competent salesperson who receives a pay raise that is double the amount (e.g., 30%) has received a favorable outcome in comparison to his or her counterpart with the same level of competency who just receives a pay raise that is half the amount (e.g., 15%). Although one may argue that such outcome distribution may not be fair, but it however is more beneficial to the salesperson who receives 30% pay raise. In this sense, social exchange theory has shown that people are more interested to interact with others when they perceive that outcomes associated with the interaction are more favorable (i.e., the result of the interaction is either tangibly or intangibly beneficial) rather than less favorable (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 2005).

Although outcome favorability and the perceived procedural fairness are distinct in nature, but their impact on employees' work attitudes and behaviors cannot be studied in isolation from

one another (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996). When individuals judge a decision in social interactions, their calculative motive drives them to focus on the degree to which the rendered decision is beneficial to them. That is, they evaluate the decision in terms of outcome favorability. The greater the gap between their benefits and costs resulted from the decision, the more likely they evaluate the decision's outcome more favorably and perceive decision-making procedure as fairer (Choi, 2003).

The interactive relationship between outcome favorability and procedural justice may be explained by the instrumental view of procedural justice, which is used in the Thibaut and Walker, and the Leventhal theories of procedural justice (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996). As mentioned earlier, the Thibaut and Walker's model of procedural justice was concerned with the people's desire to have a say in the rendered decision because they believe that decision control will give them favorable outcomes in the end (Brett, 1986 in Choi, 2003). That is, they are motivated to gain control over the process of decision-making because it is instrumental in assuring the achievement of favorable outcomes (Lind & Tyler, 1988).

In this regard, Lind and Tyler (1988) proposed the informed self-interest model which suggested that the perceived procedural fairness affects employees' expectation about the favorability of future outcomes. This model suggests that employees are concerned with both short-term and long-term outcomes of an exchange relationship. In fact, they are inclined to forgo short-term outcomes if they are optimistic about the favorability of the future outcomes of the exchange relationship and if they can estimate the variability of future outcomes with a degree of certainty. In doing so, employees look at the current procedures to make sense about their future interaction with the organization. For example, the instrumentality of process control (e.g., voice) allows employees to enhance perceptions of fairness because it allows them to enhance feelings of procedural justice, which may result in more favorable outcomes in the future (Folger & Greenberg, 1983 in Lee, 2000). This, in turn, influences their concerns with the distributive fairness of immediate outcomes. Moreover, since the organizational procedures and decision-making processes are considered by employees to be stable and consistent over time (Leventhal, 1980), they can provide critical information regarding the favorability of future outcomes. Therefore, if employees perceive the procedures as fair, they may also expect future favorable outcomes (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996). Consider a case in which retail employees are given a voice (e.g., by means of a survey) to express their viewpoints regarding improvements in working conditions. If the employees perceive that their opinions may influence the organization's decision outcomes and that the survey is not a



fabricated attempt to serve the organization's own interests, they are more optimistic that they may be also given such opportunity in future to influence organizational decisions which will lead to outcomes that are more favorable and desirable to them.

In sum, people are sense-making beings who regulate their behavior in order to reach both psychological and material goals by trying to make sense of their environments (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996). If they experience unfair procedures or unfavorable outcomes, they try to make sense of these events by asking why these negative and unexpected events have taken place. In this regard, they engage in information gathering and information evaluation processes to interpret unfair procedures or unfavorable outcomes.

Experiencing unfair procedures triggers employees' evaluation and assessment of favorability of outcomes. That is, as unfair procedures increase employees' sensitiveness to the outcome information, the favorability of their present outcomes provides information about the possibility of obtaining future favorable outcomes both in short- and long-term. For example, if the decision-making procedures which are used to either accept or reject applicants for a training program are seen as biased by the applicants, then the applicants are uncertain about the favorability of future outcomes (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996).

Similarly, in case of unfavorable outcomes, employees may question the decision-making procedures leading to those unfavorable outcomes. For instance, if the salespersons' application for an advancement program is rejected, they may seek information regarding the criteria or procedures based upon which the applicants are assessed. This implies that procedural fairness has a high informational value in employees' self-regulation since it influences their reactions to the decision (Brockener & Wiesenfeld, 1996).

## 2.2. Organizational Commitment

Although the research on organizational commitment is extensive, there exists neither a comprehensive definition for the term, nor a general model of commitment that incorporates different and divergent point of views. At a very general level, organizational commitment can be defined as “the extent to which employees are dedicated to their employing organizations and are willing to work on their behalf, and the likelihood that they will maintain membership” (Jex & Britt, 2008, p. 153). A more specific definition of the term depends on the approach we pursue towards commitment. Although this thesis is concerned with the attitudinal view of organizational commitment, that is, affective commitment, a short overview of other approaches will be provided as well.

According to Schultz (1994), the two popular approaches to organizational commitment are commitment-related *attitudes* and commitment-related *behaviors*. Suliman and Iles (2000) suggest that there are four main approaches for conceptualizing and exploring organizational commitment, namely *one-dimensional* approaches, including attitudinal, behavioral, and normative approaches and *multidimensional* approaches.

**Behavioral approach** originates from the early works of Becker (1960). Becker (1960 in Klein, Becker, & Meyer, 2009) introduced the exchange-based or *side-bet theory* by arguing that commitment comes into being when employees, by making side-bets, link extraneous interests with a consistent line of activity. The theory explains commitment in terms of the outcome of individual-organizational transactions. That is, employees become committed because they have totally, or somewhat, hidden accumulated investments or “side-bets” into a particular organization that are valued by them, which would be lost if they were to leave the organization. Hence, the threat of losing these investments, along with a perceived lack of alternatives to replace or make up for the loss of them, act as a stabilizing mechanism that directs employees’ behavior which ultimately commit them to the organization (Becker, 1960 in Scholl, 1981; in Brown, 1996; in Coetzee, 2005; in Cohen, 2007; in Mguqulwa, 2008). In this context, the longer the employees remain with an organization, the more they ‘want to’ stay as the development of the costs associated with leaving over a period of time makes it more difficult for them to disengage from their consistent line of activity. Therefore, they

become locked into the organization (Becker, 1960 in Cohen, 2007; Salancik; 1977 in Amernic & Aranya, 1983). In words of Salancik (1977), “To act is to commit one’s self” (in Brown, 1996, p. 231).

***Attitudinal approach*** was initiated by Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974 in Suliman & Iles, 2000). They defined commitment as a psychological state characterized by the employees’: (1) strong belief in, identification with, and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; (2) willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization and high involvement in its work activities; and (3) strong desire to maintain membership in the organization (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1982). In this approach, the focus shifts from the tangible side-bets to the employees’ psychological states that bond or attach them to their workplace (O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986). These psychological states reflect employees’ relationship with the organization and can be described as a decidedly positive, high-intensity orientation towards the organization which is originated from some combination of work experiences (i.e., state of obligation developed as a by-product of past actions), perceptions of the organization (i.e., positive obligation to an organization), and personal characteristics which leads employees towards a particular course of action (Mowday et al., 1982; Meyer & Allen, 1990; Brown, 1996; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). The more favorable the employees’ attitudes towards their organization, the greater is the employees’ acceptance of the organizational goals and the willingness to yield extra efforts on behalf of their organization (Lumley, Coetzee, Tladinyane & Ferreira, 2011) independent of the organization’s instrumental value (Buchanan, 1974 in Meyer & Allen, 1990).

In ***normative approach***, employees are not concerned with the personal benefits, selfish, temporary and immediate interests, but rather with the belief that they have a moral obligation and duty to show loyalty towards the organization for which they work. Within this approach, Wiener (1982, p. 471) defined organizational commitment as the “totality of internalized normative pressures to act in a way, which meets organizational goals and interest”. In this sense, organizational commitment can be regarded as a process in which organizational goals and anticipations, and the employees’ values and aims become increasingly integrated or congruent in such a way that the employee-organization value congruency acts as a major force to make the employees obliged toward the organization. The better the perceived fit between employee-organization value congruency, the higher is the level of their commitment (Wiener, 1982).

The *multidimensional approaches* assume that organizational commitment is more sophisticated than just emotional attachment to the organization, perceived costs associated with leaving the organization, or moral obligation of continuing with the organization and it does not develop simply through these single dimensions, but through the interaction of all these three components (Suliman & Iles, 2000). Kelman (1958) is considered as the first contributor to the multidimensional approach by proposing that there are different motivational processes underlying single attitudes. He further suggested that the underlying process, in which employees engage when they adopt induced behavior may be different, even though the resulting overt behavior may appear the same (Kelman, 1958 in Suliman & Iles, 2000). Also, Reichers (1985) argued that the employees' commitment to their workplace cannot be sufficiently explained by the commitment to the organization alone, but also distinct and particular entities or coalitions such as individuals (e.g. supervisors, coworkers) or groups (e.g. team/department) within organization to whom or to which employees are attached should be also taken into account (Reichers, 1985 in Veurink & Fischer, 2011). Meyer and Allen (1990) suggested that the psychological force of organizational commitment is experienced as a mindset that can take three different forms which reflect distinguishable components of the underlying commitment construct. Thus, they conceptualized the multidimensional nature of commitment by integrating the existing uni-dimensional approaches through operationalizing the mindsets as normative, continuance and affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1990).

The most well-known multidimensional conceptualizations of organizational commitment are those by Etzioni (1961), O'Reilly and Chatman (1986), and Meyer and Allen (1990). Etzioni (1961) classified commitment into three forms; moral involvement, calculative involvement, and alienative involvement. While *moral involvement* is characterized by a positive orientation of high intensity based on employees' internalization of goals, values and standards and acceptance of, and identification with the authority figures, *calculative involvement* is concerned with a negative, or a positive, orientation of low intensity toward the organization that develops due to employees' receiving inducements from the organization that match their contributions. Lastly, *alienative involvement* is defined as a negative organizational attachment of low intensity of intentions to meet organizational goals coupled with intentions to retain organizational membership (Etzioni, 1961 in Zangaro, 2001; in Mguqulwa, 2008).

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) adopted Kelman's (1958) conceptualization and argued that organizational commitment represents an attitude towards an organization which can be developed by means of various mechanisms. They further proposed that the psychological bond between employees and their organization can be predicted by three independent factors which they termed compliance, identification and internalization (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986; in Meyer & Allen, 1997; in Laka-Mathebula, 2004; in Coetzee, 2005). *Compliance* occurs when employees adopt specific behaviors and attitudes not due to shared beliefs, but simply because of gaining specific extrinsic rewards. *Identification* occurs when employees accept the influence of others to establish or maintain a satisfying self-defining relationship with their organization or with their team. *Internalization* takes place when employees accept the influence and develop a sense of belonging as a result of the perceived congruency between their own values and the induced attitudes and behavior (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986 in Meyer & Allen, 1997).

### **Meyer and Allen Three-Component Model of Organizational Commitment**

Meyer and Allen (1984 in Cohen, 2007) developed a bi-dimensional model of organizational commitment consisting of attitudinal and behavioral dimensions representing two psychological states which characterized employees' relationship with the organization. Within the attitudinal framework, they defined the dimension of affective commitment. And, within the behavioral framework, they introduced the dimension of continuance commitment as a better representation of the Becker's (1960) side-bet approach (Meyer & Allen, 1984; in Johnson, 2005; in Cohen, 2007). Based on Wiener's (1982) normative view of commitment which was rested upon instrumental motivation and social-normative beliefs, Meyer and Allen (1990) incorporated a third dimension into the model which was called normative commitment. They proposed that the "net sum of a person's commitment to the organization, therefore, reflects each of these separable psychological states" (Meyer & Allen, 1990, p. 4).

*Continuance commitment* is defined as the commitment based on the costs associated with leaving one's current organization (Meyer & Allen, 1990). The term "continuance commitment" was originally used by Kanter (1968 in Brown, 1996) to characterize employees' dedication to the survival, or continuance of an organization caused by requiring members to make investments and sacrifices in such a way that it becomes difficult for them to leave. For instance, those salespeople that experience continuance commitment stay with

the company because they recognize the costs associated with leaving; that is, losing the valued rewards or pension benefits, forfeiting established friendships with their co-workers, or a feeling of having wasted their time, effort or other investments made in the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1990; Edwards & Shipp, 2007). Indeed, employees get bounded by their actions and beliefs that sustain their activities and their own involvement in the organization. As the costs associated with leaving the organization for alternative opportunities are higher than benefits associated with staying with it, employees maintain the organizational membership. Therefore, they remain with the company because they ‘need to’ do so (Meyer & Allen, 1990). Continuance commitment is also instrumental in nature. That is, employees attach themselves to the organization and offer performance and loyalty in exchange of rewards and benefits without identifying with the organization’s goals and values (Manetje, 2009).

*Normative commitment* refers to an unwritten sense of moral duty or obligation that binds employees to a certain course of action, thus, making them obliged to remain with their organization. Normative commitment is considered as a stable attitude that is rooted in one's experiences prior to, and following organizational entry (Wiener, 1982). Prior to entry into an organization, individuals’ past experiences, personal characteristics, cultural values and beliefs, family, friends and educational experiences that were formed in their early socialization processes may influence the individuals’ internalization of norms and their inclination to commitment. After entering an organization, institutionalized experiences such as organizational ethics and values form and direct the employees’ behavior and make them continue working (Wiener, 1982; Meyer & Allen, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991 in Parent & Smith-Swan, 2013; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

Reciprocity mechanism is an important mechanism in the development of normative commitment (Angle & Lawson, 1993). Reciprocity suggests that normative commitment may develop based upon the perceived psychological contracts between employees and their organization (Rousseau, 1989). That is, employees, based on their personal norms and values, find themselves under a strong normative pressure to repay the benefits they received from their workplace. For instance, a retailer that provided some employees with training programs or advancement opportunities may lead employees to believe that they are expected to be loyal to the company (Meyer & Allen, 1990). This may cause some employees to feel indebted. Therefore, it is likely that the employees try to rectify the perceived imbalance, and

therefore, reciprocate or repay the benefits received in form of commitment. Thus, they will remain with the company because they feel they 'ought to' do so (Meyer & Allen, 1990).

*Affective commitment* is defined as an emotional attachment to the organization in such that the strongly committed employees identify with, are involved in, and enjoy membership in, the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1990). It involves positive feelings like affection, warmth, belongingness, loyalty, fondness, pleasure, and happiness; all those kinds of positive experiences that lead to the development of positive attitudes toward the organization and/or its authorities (Jaros, Jermier, Koehler, & Sincich, 1993). This affective attachment, which corresponds to Etzioni's moral involvement, is based on the desire to establish a rewarding relationship and refers to the highest possible commitment (Snyder & Copeland, 1989). It can be regarded as the outcome of a matching process between the employees' job-related and vocational needs on the one hand, and the organization's ability to fulfill these needs on the other hand (Scarpello & Ledvinka, 1987). In this regard, an organization's ability to meet employees' needs and expectations influences employees' identification and affective commitment. That is, the degree to which employees exert work efforts and exhibit affective responses depends on the organization's support and the rewards they receive from the organization (Eisenberger, Huntington, & Sowa, 1986 in Bull, 2005). Moreover, as employees perceive that they can relate to, and agree with the organizational principles and standards because they compare well with their own personal norms and values, they develop a sense of belonging and satisfaction (Cooper, 2003; Nelson & Quick, 2007). As a result, they remain with the organization because they 'want to' do so (Meyer & Allen 1990).

According to Nicholson (2009), affective commitment is the most studied form of organizational commitment. This dimension is believed to be the global and the most important component in terms of explaining human behavior in an organization (Dirani, 2007). As Meyer and Allen (1997) note, affective commitment is the most desirable form of organizational commitment and organizations typically try to foster this type of commitment among their employees. According to Suliman and Iles (2000), human resource management practices need to maintain or enhance affective commitment because it not only positively influences work performance, but it also facilitates personal flexibility and adaptability (which may be crucial to retail jobs). In between, employees tend to develop affective commitment if they are treated in a fair way (Meyer & Allen, 1991 in Jex & Britt, 2008). In addition, high levels of affective commitment have been shown to promote pro-organizational

behavior among employees, and therefore are valuable for the success of an organization in general (Bernhard, 2011). Thus, the present study is concerned with the organizational commitment specifically in its affective conceptualization.



### **2.2.1. Relationship between Distributive Justice and Affective Organizational Commitment**

Employees begin an economic exchange relationship with an organization when they enter an organization. They contribute to the organization by means of their energy, effort, time, education, etc. in exchange for gaining some economic benefits in form of extrinsic rewards. Attitudinal view of organizational commitment (e.g., Mowday et al., 1982; Meyer & Allen, 1990) suggests that organizational commitment often encompasses an exchange relationship and takes the general form of expectancy theory in which employees attach themselves to the organization in return for outcomes from it, and their behaviors are the result of these valued outcomes (March & Simon, 1958 in Singh et al., 2008; Staw, 1977 in Scholl, 1981). According to Blau (1964 in Colquitt, 2012), employees offer organizational commitment in exchange of rewards. When employees receive fair treatment and behaviors on the part of the organization (e.g., the fair allocation of rewards), a general expectation of a future return is triggered. These expectations build the employees' psychological contracts with the organization which represents their beliefs, hopes, and feelings regarding terms and conditions of a reciprocal exchange agreement between them and the organization (Rousseau, 1989). That is, when employees perceive that their contributions are reciprocated and rewarded fairly, they will see the organization as distributively fair. Therefore, they make sure that their relationship with the organization is not exploitative. Based on this, they, in turn, may exhibit supportive attitudes towards the organization (Colquitt, 2012).

Spector (2000) suggests that affective commitment surfaces and evolves from job conditions that are beneficial to the employee - favorable experiences on the job and met expectations. Indeed, considering the fact that employees' certain experiences in the workplace result in affective commitment (Beck & Wilson, 2000), and that experiencing fairness should usually be considered by most of the employees as positive and desirable experiences because they correspond to their moral values and norms, we may expect that fair distribution of outcomes signal employees that the person-organization values are in line with each other. This may influence the employees' degree of identification with the organization as a result of the value congruency between employee and the organization, and trigger their positive emotional responses towards the organization, and thus, lead to manifestation of affective organizational commitment.

In sum, employees may develop affective commitment as an emotional response based upon outcomes (Wallace, 1997 in Allen, 2007) such as pay and rewards. When they experience

fairness in terms of distribution of outcomes, they may develop a long-term relationship with the organization. It can be argued that distributive justice and affective organizational commitment may be directly related, and based on the justice norm the employees apply, and to the extent to which employees' outcomes satisfy their needs, meet their expectations and allow them to achieve their goals, they get affectively committed to the organization.

Both field research (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Sarsfield-Baldwin & Tang, 1996) and meta-analyses (Colquitt et al., 2001; Spector & Cohen-Charash, 2001) support that affective organizational commitment can be predicted by distributive justice. For instance, Spector and Cohen-Charash (2001) meta-analyzed 190 studies and examined the relationship between distributive and procedural justice with individual- as well as organizational-level outcomes. The results showed that affective commitment is significantly and positively related to distributive justice. Similarly, McFarlin and Sweeney (1992) surveyed 1100 bank employees and examined these relationships using the Cook and Wall (1980) Organizational Commitment Instrument (OCI). In fact, the underlying components of OCI, namely identification, involvement, and loyalty (Barge & Schlueter, 1988), show that the measure is affective in nature. The researchers discovered that the variability in (affective) organizational commitment can be significantly explained by distributive justice.

Sarsfield-Baldwin and Tang (1996) surveyed 200 medical center employees and measured distributive justice at time 1 and organizational-level outcomes (e.g., organizational commitment) at time 2 using the Mowday et al. (1974) OCQ as the measure which measures primarily the affective component of organizational commitment (Jex & Britt, 2008). Their research verified that (affective) organizational commitment can be predicted by distributive justice. Therefore, it can be argued that the more the organization is able to satisfy employees' needs through fair allocation of rewards, the higher is the possibility that the employees develop positive attitudes towards the organization and reciprocate the perceived distributive fairness in form of affective organizational commitment.

### **2.2.2. Relationship between Procedural Justice and Affective Organizational Commitment**

Aside from the economic benefits, employees also expect to gain socioemotional benefits from their exchange relationship with an organization which satisfy their esteem needs; they provide them with a sense of identification with, and belonging to, their department or their organization (Nadistic, 2006). According to Cropanzano and Rupp (2003), social exchange relationships are related to employees' emotional attachment and long-term commitments without the necessity of an immediate payback. In this context, the Leventhal (1980) conceptualization of procedural justice proposed some interpersonal aspects of procedural justice that bring with themselves socioemotional benefits for employees: Employees who are treated with politeness, respect and dignity, and have the opportunity to have a voice are proud of being a member in the organization and report greater feelings of being respected by others in the organization (Tyler, 1999 in Nadistic, 2006).

The relationship between procedural justice and affective organizational commitment can be explained by the Group-Value Model (Lind & Tyler, 1988). The Group-Value Model, which is based on the social identity models of employees, suggests that employees are concerned with procedural justice because it helps them to assess their social relationship to the group and its authorities (Lind & Tyler, 1988). It proposes that employees are motivated to establish and maintain long-term group and organizational memberships because group identification and group membership is psychologically rewarding. That is, when the organizational procedures are perceived as fair, employees' needs for self-esteem and self-identity are likely to be fulfilled. In this sense, employees evaluate the fairness of procedures based on the *trustworthiness* of organizational authorities, their *neutrality*, and the information originating from the procedure about their *status* in the group (Sunshine & Heuer, 2002). As mentioned earlier, organizational procedures are considered to be relatively stable over time (Leventhal, 1980). Therefore, employees will continue their membership in the organization because doing so guarantees their needs for self-esteem and self-identity to be satisfied in the future. As they ensure that their relationship with the group (or with organization in broader terms) is self-enhancing, they get affectively committed to the organization (Brockner & Siegel, 1996; Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996).

Niehoff, Enz, and Grover (1990) suggest that management culture is strongly related to employees' organizational commitment. For instance, a management culture that encourages employees' participation in decision-making positively influences affective commitment

because it provides employees with a sense of being important and competent (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Thus, procedural justice may be related to fair values and norms which enhance affective commitment by assisting organizational members to relate to each other and to their environment. As employees perceive that they can relate to the organizational principles and values because they compare well with their own personal norms and standards, they develop a sense of belonging and satisfaction; therefore they get affectively committed to the organization and will expend more task-related efforts (Beck & Wilson, 2000; Cooper, 2003; Nelson & Quick, 2007) to advance the interests of the group or the organization. They might help others with their jobs, help and encourage new-comers, engage in activities which are not observable and, as a result, will not be rewarded, but which help and promote the group's well-being (Tyler, 2000). Fair organizational decision-making processes are more likely to protect and/or promote employees' interests in the organization; such processes should enhance the degree of attachment to the organization (Konovsky, Folger, & Cropanzano, 1987 in Paoletti, Roberson, & Bagdadli, 2006). In addition, organizational characteristics, as one of the three antecedent groups associated with affective organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997) suggest that employees' perceptions of fair organizational policies and procedures are positively related to affective commitment.

Both research findings and meta-analysis support the existence of a positive relationship between procedural justice and (affective) organizational commitment. For instance, Folger and Konovsky (1989) showed that procedural justice makes a unique contribution to affective commitment. Similarly, McFarlin and Sweeney (1992) showed that procedural justice significantly explains variance in affective commitment. The researchers further argue that procedural justice is a stronger predictor of (affective) organizational commitment because procedural justice defines an organization's capacity to treat employees fairly. Therefore, if employees see the procedures as fair, they may still hold positive feelings and attitudes toward the organization even in the absence of satisfactory and desirable personal outcomes. Also, Sarsfield-Baldwin and Tang (1996) suggested that (affective) organizational commitment can be predicted by procedural justice. Similar to these findings, the Spector and Cohen-Charash (2001) meta-analysis provides support that procedural justice is significantly and positively correlated with affective commitment.

### 2.3. Work Motivation

The word motivation comes from the ancient Latin verb *'movere'*, which means “to move” (Brehm, 2004). The verb *'motivate'* means ‘to stimulate toward action’. This implies that motivation provides a rationale for expending some sort of effort. Finding a general definition for motivation seems to be difficult as different motivational theories as well as their different fields of applications has led to numerous definitions in different literatures. The difficulty to define motivation originates from the existence of many philosophical orientations toward the nature of human beings and about what can be known about people (Pinder, 1998), and from the fact that historically motivation has been used to explain “too much with too little” (Ferguson, 1976, p. 6 in Björklund, 2001).

Motivation is “a label for the determinants of the choice to initiate effort on a certain task, the choice to expend a certain amount of effort, and the choice to persist in expending effort over a period of time” (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976, p. 78 in Roos, 2005). In the words of Mitchell (1997), it is a basic psychological process which involves “arousal, direction, intensity, and persistence of voluntary actions that are goal directed” (p. 66 in Parks & Guay, 2009). In this sense, *arousal* refers to the motivational process of being interested in a given goal, while *direction* is the process of actually selecting a goal and choosing to pursue it. *Intensity* refers to the amount of effort that an individual puts forth in pursuit of the goal, and *persistence* indicates to an individual’s continued pursuit of the goal, even in the face of challenges (Parks & Guay, 2009).

Porter and Steers (1983 in Luthans, 1998) define motivation as an invisible force that energizes, directs, and sustains behavior and performance. This phenomenon is concerned with: (1) what energizes human behaviors. In other words, what initiates a behavior, behavioral pattern, or a change in behavior; (2) what directs or channels such behavior; that is, what determines which behaviors an individual chooses among the alternative actions, behaviors; and (3) how this behavior is maintained or sustained; in other words, what determines an individual’s level of persistence with respect to the behavioral patterns.

In an organizational setting, work motivation is the set of internal and external forces that initiate work-related behavior, and determine its form, direction, intensity and duration (Pinder, 1998). It is the willingness to exert high levels of effort toward organizational goals, conditioned by the effort’s ability to satisfy some individual need (Robbins, 1993 in Jang,

2008). According to DuToit (1990), there are three antecedent groups to work motivation that build the preconditions for the unobservable employees' behavioral intentions and explain the employees' observable behaviors on their jobs. Those are: (1) individual characteristics (e.g., employees' own interests, values and needs); (2) workplace characteristics (e.g., task variety and responsibility); and (3) organizational characteristics (e.g., policies, procedures). In this sense, the observable manifestation of work motivation can be explained through theories of work motivation (Pinder, 1998).

According to Watkins (2007), one of the main differences between the economists' and psychologists' perspectives is in their explanations of rational behavior; Whereas industrial assumptions stress that employees behave rationally, psychological theories call attention to the naturally non-rational ways in which employees behave. Economic viewpoint of motivation has its roots in Frederick Taylor's theory of "scientific management" which considers human beings as rational economic animals who are mainly concerned with maximizing their economic benefits. That is, people generally choose the most profitable alternative to take an action. They act rationally in choosing the position which would lead to their highest monetary gain (Watkins, 2007). In contrary, some people may forgo monetary benefits and consider, for instance, a low-paying job as satisfying if it provides them with personal enjoyment and satisfaction about what they do, or is sufficiently challenging. This difference between the economic considerations and the psychological benefits is often referred to as extrinsic and intrinsic motivation which will be discussed in the following section.

### **Intrinsic and Extrinsic Work Motivation**

Based on Vroom's (1964) VIE theory, Porter and Lawler (1968 in van den Berg, 2011) proposed a model of intrinsic and extrinsic work motivation in which they defined *intrinsic motivation* as the degree to which employees are motivated to perform well because of some subjective rewards or feelings that they expect to receive or experience as a result of performing well. In this regard, employees engage in tasks because they find the activity itself personally interesting (Gagné & Deci, 2005) which satisfies their Maslowian higher-order needs as it results in feelings of accomplishment and self-fulfillment (Amabile, Hill, Hennessey, & Tighe, 1994). Employees who are intrinsically motivated carry out tasks because of the challenge and the enjoyment associated with them. Intrinsically motivated

behavior is self-initiated. That is, external rewards and pressures do not affect employees' behavior. In other words, instrumental value or an expected apparent reward associated with it does not influence their actions (Deci, 1971 in Frey, 2012; Amabile et al., 1994; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Frey & Osterloh, 2002). Csikszentmihalyi (1990 in Karageorghis & Terry, 2011) conceptualizes the highest level of an intrinsically motivated behavior as flow; a psychological state during which an individual loses self-consciousness and becomes one with the activity as the result of the perfect alignment of the perceived demands of an activity and the perceived ability to meet the demands. In order for an individual to experience flow, the activity should be optimally challenging. In this regard, activities that are below one's optimal challenge cause boredom and those which greatly exceed one's abilities lead to anxiety (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

As the definition proposed by Porter and Lawler (1968) did not take into account the psychological processes underlying behaviors, Deci (1975 in van den Berg, 2011) enhanced the concept of intrinsic motivation by emphasizing the role of competence and self-determination. This conceptualization suggested that employees' intrinsic motivational tendencies can diminish, or enhance, under certain conditions (Deci & Ryan, 2000a). In this regard, *self-determination theory* (Deci & Ryan, 1985) asserts that not only the satisfaction of basic psychological needs nourishes intrinsic motivation, but also the employees' need to feel competent and autonomous enhances intrinsic motivation. In contrast, events that negatively affect employees' experience of autonomy and competence decrease intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Deci & Ryan, 2000a; Gagné & Deci, 2005).

*Cognitive evaluation theory* (Gagné & Deci, 2005), a version of the self-determination meta-theory, suggests that verbal rewards contribute significantly to employees' feelings of competence because positive feedbacks convey positive information which, in turn, supports or affirms the employees' sense of competence. The informational aspect of rewards is, however, salient, if employees experience autonomy (i.e., internal perceived locus of causality) regarding the task and/or its outcomes (Deci & Ryan, 2000a, b).

While verbal praise and feedback significantly enhance intrinsic motivation, every expected tangible reward made contingent on task performance undermines intrinsic motivation for the personally interesting activities (Deci, 1971 in Bateman & Crant, 2003; in van den Berg, 2011; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Deci & Ryan, 2000a, b). In a retail setting, suppose there are some salespeople that find their jobs personally interesting and get a sense of achievement and satisfaction from it. However, as the company introduces a bonus system in which the

performance is linked not to the employees' personal commitment to work, but to external control and monitor, self-determination and sense of autonomy diminishes in the favor of external control. Therefore, the salespersons become externally motivated and more interested in financial rewards and outcomes (Frey & Osterloh, 2002). This phenomenon is called *crowding-out* effect in which all types of external rewards, and commands, 'crowd out' intrinsic motivation. From other way around, according to *crowding-in* effect, external interventions that are perceived as supportive, or informative 'crowd in' intrinsic motivation (Frey & Osterloh, 2002; Frey, 2012).

The negative effect of tangible rewards on intrinsic motivation can also be explained through *self-perception theory* which proposes when employees observe their own behaviors, they attribute the causes of their behaviors (e.g., exerting selling efforts in order to receive bonus), develop attitudes (e.g., shift from internal to external locus of causality), and finally engage in future behaviors that are consistent with those attributions (e.g., decrease personal interest in the selling task). Moreover, competition pressure, threats, and directives have been found to negatively influence intrinsic motivation since they externally exert control on employees (Deci & Ryan, 2000b). In contrast, opportunities for self-direction and choice contribute positively towards intrinsic motivation as they provide employees with a greater sense of autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 2000b). However, recent research findings (Burgess et al., 2004 in Robbins & Judge, 2013) suggest that deadlines and specific work standards may increase intrinsic motivation if the employees still experience autonomy, and are in control of their behavior. To make it short, employees must perceive their behavior to be self-determined and not guided by tangible rewards or constraints, thus, allocating extrinsic rewards or incentives for behavior that had been previously intrinsically rewarding and interesting tends to decrease the overall level of motivation if the rewards are seen as controlling rather than supportive (Robbins & Judge, 2013).

***Extrinsic motivation***, on the other hand, holds when employees engage in work activities not because of the pleasure associated with it, and not because the task is personally interesting, but due to attaining a separable outcome, that is, to derive some kind of rewards that are external to the work itself (Deci & Ryan, 2000b; Vallerand, 2004). Extrinsically motivated employees do work activities when they anticipate some kind of tangible payoff - the rewards that are externally imposed, including salary, promotions, material possessions, bonus, merit pay, recognition, fringe benefits, and prestige. In effect, the activity becomes a



means to an end (Pelletier, Fortier, Vallerand, Tuson, Brière, & Blais, 1995; Covington, 2000) which serves satisfying employees' indirect and instrumental needs (Frey & Osterloh, 2002).

Based on the extent to which a behavior is perceived by an employee as autonomous or self-determined, external motivation takes four different forms. In this context, to the extent to which the employees' extrinsically motivated behavior is self-determined depends on the degree to which the employees internalize reasons for their behavior and on its assimilation to the self (Deci & Ryan, 2000b).

The least self-determined and autonomous type of extrinsic motivation is *external regulation*. It refers to the behavior that is controlled by external sources, such as material rewards or constraints imposed by others. Employees perform tasks to satisfy an external demand or obtain an externally imposed reward contingency. As employees feel that their actions are being controlled and manipulated by others, they perceive that their actions have an external locus of causality (deCharms, 1968 in Deci & Ryan, 1985; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Deci & Ryan, 2000b). For instance, those salespeople that counsel customers just due to earn sales bonus, or avoiding being negatively evaluated by their supervisors, are externally regulated.

Next to external regulation is *introjected regulation* in which employees start to replace the external source of motivation with internalized reasons behind their behaviors. In other words, the behavior is no more initiated and controlled by external sources, but by those internal ones. That is, employees impose pressure on themselves in order to avoid feelings of anxiety or guilt, or to maintain or enhance self-esteem. Although the regulation is internal to the employees, they still attribute external sources to the causes of their behavior; their behavior still involves coercion, and not their free choice. Therefore, employees' actions still entail low autonomy and self-determination (Pelletier et al., 1995; Deci & Ryan, 2000b; Vallerand, 2004). For instance, those salespeople that exert selling efforts not because of the bonus associated with it, but because not doing so makes them feel anxious about not performing well, are an example of introjected motivation.

In *identified regulation*, employees start to internalize the external motives and to identify with them and thus accept their regulation as part of the self as they come to value and judge the personal importance of their behavior. This form of extrinsic motivation involves feelings of freedom and volition because the behavior is more congruent with the employees' own personal goals and identities. Although the activity is still instrumental (to achieve personal goals for instance), identified regulation involves relatively autonomous and self-determined behaviors as they entail employees' choice and willingness (Pelletier et al., 1995; Deci &

Ryan, 2000b; Vallerand, 2004; Gagné & Deci, 2005). In this regard, those salespersons that invest money and time to visit extra courses in order to increase their selling abilities are an instance of this type of extrinsic motivation.

Finally, the most developmental form of extrinsic motivation, *integrated regulation*, occurs when identifications are reciprocally integrated and become harmonious with employees' other identities, interests and values – with their sense of self. At this point, the internalization process will be complete and the behavior will be an expression of who the employees are. This form of extrinsic motivation is characterized by the highest level of autonomy and self-determination. Integrated regulation involves no interesting activities, but rather volitional actions that are personally important and instrumentally valued by the person (Deci & Ryan, 2000b). The integrated salespeople might counsel customers not just because of the sales commission associated with it, but because of the enjoyment they receive from making their customers satisfied. As one may note, the example suggests instrumentality as it still refers to a separable outcome (that is, sales commission) although customer consultation is volitional and valued by the salespersons.

### **2.3.1. Relationship between Distributive Justice and Extrinsic Motivation**

According to social exchange theory, people enter into interactions with others with the aim of gaining economic resources. The theory underlines instrumentality as people, being both selfish and rational, are mainly interested in gaining short- and long-term profits when entering an exchange relationship. That is, they are motivated by the need of maximizing their own gains, and are driven by self-interest (Tyler et al., 1997). This indicates to the *homo economicus* view of human beings which is also the underlying assumption of distributive justice theories which are primarily concerned with the fairness of outcomes allocation.

Equity rule (Adams, 1965), as the major rule of distributive justice, dictates that employees' outcomes are proportional to their contributions. In fact, employees invest their inputs and in turn expect to receive valuable external outcomes which are proportional to their inputs. In this sense, the employees' desire for justice becomes a means to an end. Note, that this is in line with the notion of extrinsic motivation which suggests that the behavior (i.e., work activity) is seen by employees as a means to an end (Pelletier et al., 1995); as a means to gain some separable tangible outcomes. According to Tyler (2011), distributive justice is a type of justice which is most strongly shaped by instrumental concerns.

The possible relationship between distributive justice and extrinsic motivation might also be reasoned as follows: It can be argued that outcomes being allocated to employees by an organization imply that those outcomes are seen by employees as external. This suggests that employees may indeed have no (or little) control over the distribution of their outcomes. According to Deci and Ryan (1985), employees have control when their actions yield intended outcomes. Otherwise, they become "pawns" of those outcomes because it is the outcomes that determine their behavior (deCharms, 1968 in Deci & Ryan 1985). And, in terms of equity theory, it is the equity of the outcomes received, that is, the proportionality of one's outcomes to inputs, that motivates employees' behavior in their interactions with the organization.

In sum, we can say that employees make distributive judgments when they receive material outcomes in exchange for the work done. According to deCharms (1968 in Deci & Ryan, 1985), the basic desire to have control over one's outcomes is a factor that contributes towards all motivated behavior. Therefore, employees' concerns with the distribution of outcomes imply that they should perceive they have not much control over their distribution, and therefore, they should make more external attributions to the causes of their behavior. In

between, it is the instrumentality of distributive justice (Tyler, 2011) that assure them to receive better, or equitable, outcomes by offering employees some degree of control over their outcomes. Therefore, they will see their behavior to be more extrinsically motivated.

Based on this rationale, it can be assumed that distributive justice and extrinsic motivation may be positively related. Unfortunately, there is scarcity in research with regard to this relationship. But a few studies (e.g., Dubinsky & Levy, 1989 in Liao et al., 2008; Tyagi, 1990; in Ambrose & Kulik, 1999; in Liao et al., 2008) have studied the effect of perceived inequities and organizational fairness on work motivation. For instance, Tyagi's study on salespeople showed that the perceived inequity in pay and promotion has a negative impact on extrinsic motivation. This research has however made no distinction between distributive and procedural justice. Also, Dubinsky and Levy (1989) found that retail salespeople's perception of pay administration is positively related to work motivation.

### **2.3.2. Relationship between Procedural Justice and Intrinsic Motivation**

Tyler (2011) suggests that justice is among those social motivations that reflect employees' internal desires. In this regard, according to Thibaut and Walker (1975), procedural justice needs to offer opportunities for voice and choice<sup>2</sup> which, in turn, provide employees some degree of autonomy, and control over the actual outcomes, or over the decision-making process. According to Heider (1958 in Deci & Ryan, 1985), when employees experience themselves to be the locus of causality for their behaviors, they consider themselves to be intrinsically motivated. In addition, in order for intrinsic motivation to maintain or enhance, existence of supporting mechanisms are required one of which is the employees' basic psychological need for autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Deci & Ryan, 2000b). When opportunities for self-direction and choice are in place, not only intrinsic motivation will be supported, but also the more autonomous forms of extrinsic motivation will be promoted as well (Parker & Ohly, 2008). Indeed, perceived fairness of decision-making procedures provides employees with the information with regard to the extent to which an organizational authority (e.g., a supervisor) has the intention to support the autonomy of his or her subordinates (van den Bos & Lind, 2002; van den Bos et al., 1998 in van Prooijen, 2009).

Hence, it can be assumed that employees' perceptions of fair decision-making procedures through opportunities like process control and having a voice, may signal employees that procedures and decision-makers do not limit their autonomy. In this regard, based on laboratory and field studies, van Prooijen (2009) showed that variations in decision-making (i.e., voice vs. no voice) have a large effect on the procedural justice judgments of individuals with low levels of autonomy. He further concluded that voice exhibits a strong relationship with procedural justice, and with the need for autonomy which is a nutrient of intrinsic motivation. Brockner (2010) suggests if decision-making authorities make personnel decisions based on the fairness criteria proposed by Leventhal (1980), such as accuracy and consistency, employees are likely to perceive the decision-making procedures as fair and the decision outcomes as intrinsically supportive.

Although van Prooijen (2009) used voice/no voice as a procedural variation, and autonomy as one of the contributing conditions to intrinsic motivation, the results may be interpreted more broadly: Enhancing employees' perceptions of procedural fairness may positively contribute to the employees' personal interest in the activity. In this regard, Tyagi (1990 in Ambrose & Kulik, 1999) showed that supervisory behavior is related to intrinsic motivation. Although the study has made no distinction between types of justice, but it can be assumed that the

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<sup>2</sup> According to Colquitt, Greenberg, and Zapata-Phelan (2005), voice and choice have been used interchangeably in some research.

relationship might hold for procedural justice and intrinsic motivation as well because employees tend to see organizations in terms of their institutional authority figures that have discretionary control over decision-making procedures. In both laboratory experiment and field study, Zapata-Phelan, Colquitt, Scott, and Livingston (2009) examined the emotional consequences of procedural justice. Using the Colquitt (2001) procedural justice scale, and a four-item subscale of the Situational Motivation Scale (SIMS; Guay et al., 2000), the researchers surveyed 189 employees from different industries (excluding retail). Although the researchers used an affective approach in explaining the relationship, the results, however, suggested that intrinsic motivation is positively and significantly related to the procedural justice. They further showed that intrinsic motivation can be significantly predicted by procedural justice.

### **2.3.3. Interactive Effect of Procedural Justice and Outcome Favorability on Intrinsic Motivation**

In a laboratory experiment, Folger, Rosenfield, and Hays (1978) manipulated choice and pay and examined their interaction on intrinsic motivation. The results showed that under high choice conditions, high pay reduced individuals' intrinsic interest in the task more strongly than low pay. The study also suggested that under low choice conditions, high pay not only sustained individuals' intrinsic interest in the work, but it actually enhanced it. On the other hand, a combination of low choice and low pay resulted into a decrease in intrinsic motivation.

In this regard, Folger et al.'s findings can be interpreted as follows: The employees' input into a decision (e.g., choice) implies that they can make conscious decisions. That is, they have the opportunity to choose among those outcomes which are more favorable or desirable to them. In doing so, employees calculate the benefits/costs associated with engaging in an activity; therefore, the activity becomes instrumental to them. In effect, the more the employees' inputs in the decision-making procedure allow them to attain the favorable outcomes, the less likely it is that the employees make internal attributions to causes of their actions. Thus, the activity should become less personally interesting for them. To put it together, when procedural justice was relatively low, outcome favorability was positively related to intrinsic motivation. In contrary, when procedural justice was relatively high, there was a negative relationship between outcome favorability and intrinsic motivation (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996).

In sum, Folger et al. (1978) used the degree of choice as a procedural variation, outcome favorability as the pay level, and intrinsic motivation was operationalized based on the measured time and two behavioral scales. It is interesting to examine whether these laboratory interactions generalize to work settings. These researchers in fact investigated the mediating role of choice in the effect of pay on intrinsic motivation. However, we suspect that outcome favorability may act as a moderator in the relationship between procedural justice and intrinsic motivation. As it was discussed earlier, there may be a positive relationship between procedural justice and intrinsic motivation. Indeed, employees regulate their behavior in order to reach psychological goals by trying to make sense of their environments (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996). That is, as unfair procedures increase employees' sensitiveness to outcome information, the favorability of their present outcomes provides information about the possibility of obtaining future favorable outcomes. For example, according to Lepper (1973 in Ryan & Deci, 1985), receiving unexpected rewards enhances intrinsic motivation.

Moreover, in retail organizations, it is quite possible that employees receive such rewards as a result of a job done well (e.g., achieving a high turnover, positive feedbacks from the customers or supervisors). In addition, it is plausible to assume that such rewards may be seen as favorable by most of the employees. Therefore, it can be argued that a combination of high procedural justice and high outcome favorability may enhance intrinsic motivation more strongly than the combination of high procedural justice and low outcome favorability. For instance, Brockner and Wiesenfeld (2005) suggest that employees respond more positively to decisions, interactions and relationships in which the outcomes are more favorable and procedures are fair. However, for the sake of thesis, it will simply be postulated that outcome favorability moderates the effect of procedural justice on intrinsic motivation.



## 2.4. Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is undoubtedly one of the most important personal-level workplace outcomes and the most frequently studied attitude in the field of organizational research. Although it may seem easy to define job satisfaction, the nature of this phenomenon is more complex in reality. As Fehr and Russell (1984, p. 464 in Winter, 2005) assert "Everyone knows what satisfaction is, until asked to give a definition. Then it seems, nobody knows."

Based on "morale" and general feelings of employees towards their jobs, early studies conceptualized job satisfaction as an affect (Child, 1941 in Tekell, 2008). According to Vroom (1964, p.99 in Frazier, 2005), job satisfaction is the "affective orientations on the part of the individuals toward work roles they presently occupy." Also Locke (1976, p. 1300) defines job satisfaction in terms of affect: "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of employees' job or their job experiences". That is, employees experience job satisfaction as the result of feeling good about their jobs which often comes from doing the job well, or becoming more proficient in their jobs, or being recognized for good performance (Megginson et al., 1982 in Ayub & Rafif, 2011). In the affect-based view of job satisfaction, employees have a general impression of their jobs which is related to the job in its wholeness. For example, when we ask employees whether they like their job, an employee can give a general answer such as "I like my job"; that is, job has engendered a good mood and positive feelings.

The affective component of job satisfaction was ignored by some researchers and the focus shifted toward judgment-based and cognitive evaluations of jobs characteristics or features of jobs (Hulin & Judge, 2003 in Yeoh, 2007). Hence, job satisfaction was conceptualized as an attitude; as a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993 in Tekell, 2008). Cognitive satisfaction was based on employees' logical and rational evaluation of their jobs such as opportunities, conditions, and outcomes (Fields, 2002).

Other researchers (e.g., Blythe, 1997 in Shivangulula, 2009; Brief, 1998) conceptualized job satisfaction in form of attitudinal responses that can be presented simultaneously by both affective and cognitive components. The existence of a cognitive component in job satisfaction was however not something new. Indeed, Locke's (1976)

definition of job satisfaction has implicitly suggested a cognitive dimension to job satisfaction (Judge & Ilies, 2004). The cognitive component weighs an aspect of the job and makes a comparison to some alternative (Tekell, 2008). In the attitudinal view of job satisfaction, employees have a collection of attitudes toward their jobs that are in form of many internal favorable or unfavorable evaluations about their jobs against those issues that are of importance to them. These evaluations are manifested by outward (i.e., verbalized) and inward (i.e., felt) emotional responses (Judge, Hulin, & Dalal, 2012). While positive and favorable attitudes are equated with satisfaction, negative attitudes are leveled with dissatisfaction (Armstrong, 2006). Thus, the conceptualization of job satisfaction was enhanced to an internal state that is represented by employees' affective and/or cognitive evaluation of their experienced jobs which involves some degree of favor or disfavor (Brief, 1998). Similarly, Spector (1985, p. 695) defines job satisfaction as "a cluster of evaluative feelings about the job". Here, when we ask employees how much they like their jobs, an employee may answer "I like my job very much". Indeed, employees weight good and poor job aspects to come up with an overall evaluation of their jobs.

Job satisfaction can also be viewed as a result of the met expectations. Porter and Steers (1973 in Sutton & Griffin, 2004) define met expectations as the discrepancy between what employees encounter on their jobs in terms of positive or negative experiences and what they have expected to encounter. In other words, employees have different expectations with respect to things that are viewed by them as important (e.g., rewards). In this regard, they evaluate the differences between the amount of rewards they actually receive and the amount they believe they should receive (Luthan, 1998). Thus, job satisfaction is the extent to which the workplace meets the needs and values of the employees and the employees' response to the workplace (Aref & Aref, 2011). In this view, employees use either aspiration level, or the equitable level of reward as their point of reference. Based on the aspiration level, job satisfaction is defined as an affective reaction to a job that results from the employees' comparison of actual outcomes with those that are desired (Cranny et al., 1992 in Yeoh, 2007), whereas based on the equitable level of reward job satisfaction is defined as the extent to which rewards (i.e., outcomes) actually received meet or exceed the perceived equitable level of reward (Porter & Lawler, 1968 in Jiang, Klein, & Saunders, 2012).

Job satisfaction has also been conceptualized as a multidimensional construct. According to Hoppock (1935, p. 47 in Frazier, 2005), job satisfaction comprises "any combination of psychological, physiological, and environmental circumstances that causes a

person truthfully to say ‘I am satisfied with my job’”. Locke (1976) suggests that in order for researchers to understand employees’ job attitudes, they have to comprehend various aspects of jobs which are complex and inter-related in nature. In this regard, researchers (e.g., Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969; Churchill, Ford, & Walker, 1974; Hackman & Oldham, 1974; Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1977; Spector, 1985) describe job satisfaction as the employees’ attitudes and feelings toward, and cognitive evaluations of, multiple aspects of their jobs. Each aspect is called a facet. To the extent to which employees are satisfied with different job facets determines the general degree of job satisfaction. It is possible for employees to be satisfied with some aspects of the job while at the same time being dissatisfied with other facets. In addition, when evaluating job satisfaction, employees weigh facets differently since each facet may have different importance to different employees (Locke, 1976). For instance, while some salespersons may put greater emphasis on promotion opportunities, some others may feel that pay is more important for them. Consequently, those who put more weight on pay exhibit lower satisfaction with this facet if they do not receive pay within their expectations while at the same time they may be satisfied with their supervisor. Whereas considering job satisfaction as a global measure better reflects the employees’ general feelings or responses based on individual differences (Fields, 2002), facet measurement of job satisfaction deals with situational, often temporary feelings about a small piece of a job that helps to identify which specific aspects of a job require improvements (Kerber & Campbell, 1987).

### **Facets of Job Satisfaction**

Different researchers have identified different dimensions to job satisfaction. An examination of the most validated multidimensional measures (see MSQ: Weiss et al., 1967; JDI: Smith et al., 1969; INDSALES: Churchill et al., 1974; JSS: Spector, 1985), as well as those validated German scales (e.g., ABB: Neuberger & Allerbeck, 1978; MODI: Trost, Jöns & Bungard, 1999 all in Winter, 2005) of job satisfaction shows an agreement upon the five dimensions proposed by Smith et al. (1969). According to Smith et al., job satisfaction is determined as the employees’ responses or feelings to facets of *pay*, *promotion*, *co-workers*, *supervision*, and *the work itself*. Although Locke (1976) added few other facets (i.e., recognition, working conditions, company and management), but the five facets proposed within the JDI (Smith et al., 1969) represent the major and most important characteristics of any job towards which employees show affective reactions, and which trigger employees’ attitudinal responses.

According to Fields (2002), some studies average the facets together for an overall measure of job satisfaction. While pay and promotion can be viewed as extrinsic components of job satisfaction, the work itself, supervision, and co-workers can be regarded as intrinsic elements of job satisfaction (Judge, Parker, Colbert, Heller, & Ilies, 2001). Intrinsic factors contribute towards the employees' perceived sense of competence while extrinsic factors are related to the satisfaction derived from the external rewards (McCormick & Illgen, 1985 in van Wyk & Adonisi, 2008). This thesis is mainly concerned with the facets of pay, promotion opportunities, and supervision, however a brief summary of the two other facets will be provided as well.

*The work itself* - defined as the extent to which the job provides employees with stimulating tasks, opportunities for learning and personal growth, and the chance to be responsible and accountable for results (Robbins, 2003) - appears to be the most important facet of job satisfaction as it is strongly associated with overall job satisfaction (Rentsch & Steel, 1992 in Judge & Klinger, 2008; 2009). In this regard, job satisfaction is enhanced by the work that is mentally challenging and personally interesting (Locke, 1976; Landy, 1989 in Bull, 2005). Indeed, the increased complexity of a work makes it more interesting and leads to higher job satisfaction (Wall & Martin, 1987). While too much challenge leads to frustration and stress and too less challenge creates boredom, a moderately challenging work triggers satisfaction and pleasure (Bajpai & Srivastava, 2002). In addition, highly specialized and repetitive tasks lead to lower levels of job satisfaction than those jobs which offer variety (Shepard, 1973; Stinson & Johnson, 1977 both in Roos, 2005). Work should also provide employees with learning opportunities, a sense of accomplishment, and the chance of accepting responsibilities (Morgan, 1997 in Shivangulula, 2009). Moreover, work aspects such as flexibility, freedom, and discretion available in performing employees' jobs contribute significantly towards job satisfaction (Saiyadain, 2003).

In order to address such issues, organizations may alter work characteristics in order to provide a more interesting work environment for their employees. Indeed, redesigning jobs plays a key role in enhancing work motivation and job satisfaction which ultimately leads to lower absenteeism and turnover (Hackman & Oldham, 1975 in Snell & Bohlander, 2011). In this regard, Hackman and Oldham proposed the highly resonated Job characteristics Model (JCM) which proposed that five core work characteristics, namely *skill variety*, *task identity*, *task significance*, *task autonomy*, and *task feedback* lead to three psychological states, namely perceived meaningfulness of the work, felt responsibility for work outcomes, and knowledge

of the results of the performed work, that enhance employees' work motivation and job satisfaction. This, however, depends on the employees' need for growth and development as well as their skills and abilities (Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Oldham, 1996 all in Turner, Barling, & Zacharatos, 2002). Redesigning jobs may be implemented through a variety of techniques: *job enlargement* tries to eliminate boredom and tiredness with routine jobs through increasing job scope; it increases the number and variety of the tasks within a job by expanding it horizontally; *job enrichment* offers a greater variety of work content by expanding the work vertically. While increasing employees' autonomy and responsibility regarding scheduling, managing and controlling their performance, this approach tries to provide employees with personal growth and a meaningful work; *job rotation* addresses those jobs with limited scopes and tries to decrease monotony and boredom through rotating employees among several alternating jobs (Rao & Rao, 1999; Grobler & Wörnich, 2006; Snell & Bohlander, 2011).

**Pay**, or compensation, includes all forms of payoffs and rewards received by employees for the performance of their jobs (Snell & Bohlander, 2011). It refers to the amount of financial remuneration that is received and the degree to which this is viewed as equitable vis-à-vis that of others in the organization (Luthans, 2005 in Saif et al., 2012). It provides employees not only with the means to fulfill their Maslowian lower-order needs, but also its instrumentality facilitates the satisfaction of upper-level needs (Luthans, 1998). According to Locke et al. (1980 in Gerhart & Rynes, 2003), with respect to its instrumental value, money is the strongest incentive or motivational factor. It provides employees with social status, prestige and a sense of security. Bruggemann et al. (1975 in Winter 2005) argues that importance of pay for employees depends on the role that it plays for them. In this regard, the more the pay is conceived as a symbol of social status, or as an indicator of employees' own success in achievements, the greater is its influence on the employees' overall job satisfaction. According to dual-factor theory (Herzberg et al., 1959 in Judge & Robbins, 2013), pay can be classified as dissatisfier which prevents dissatisfaction but its increase may not necessarily be translated into higher satisfaction. In this regard, Hunt, Osborn, and Uhl-Bien (2010) note, as long as pay functions well within the context of the integrated model of motivation, employees are satisfied and motivated to work harder to achieve higher performance. But when it does not function well, the results may well be negative effects on employees' satisfaction and performance.

Compensation of salespeople may include a direct salary, incentives such as sales premium and merit pay, bonus, and additional cash payoffs for shift work and overtime. Compensation also acts as a “scorecard” for employees helping them assess their value to the organization (Robbins, 2001 in Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011). That is, employees care about the fairness of the organization in allocating pay and wages. In order to derive feelings of fairness, they tend to compare their pay, both internally and externally, with those of relevant others (Sweeney & McFarlin, 2005). However, as Lawler (1971 in Armstrong, 2012; 1990 in Gerhart & Rynes, 2003) notes, employees are never satisfied with their pay because they tend to make unfavorable external and internal comparisons. These comparisons make them to have a perpetual tendency towards pay dissatisfaction. Only if comparisons are favorable, or employees perceive their pay to be in the state of equilibrium in comparison with that of similar others, satisfaction with pay may result. Similarly, Spector (1996 in Booysen, 2008) puts forth that it is the fairness of pay that determines pay satisfaction rather than the actual level of pay itself.

We may expect the emergence of a negative relationship between pay and job satisfaction as well. For instance, whereas a meta-analysis on 86 studies by Judge, Piccolo and colleagues (2010) reported a modest positive relationship between overall job satisfaction and pay level, we may also argue that extrinsic rewards such as amount of pay are demotivating and dissatisfying as they crowd out intrinsic motivation (Frey & Osterloh, 2002). Moreover, in terms of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, once the lower-order needs are satisfied, they will no longer motivate and satisfy employees (Lauby, 2005). Dalal (2013) suggests pay may be of high importance to employees when: (1) pay is performance-based; (2) variation in pay across employees is large; (3) pay is below average; and (4) changes are made to the pay system.

*Co-workers*, following the dimensions of the work itself and pay, is the third most influential facet on overall job satisfaction (Borg & Allerbeck, 1977 in Winter, 2005). According to Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, satisfaction with co-workers serves the fulfillment of social needs (Daft, 2008). In this regard, an organization’s social context, the opportunities for interaction with peers and the so-called working climate have significant influence on employees’ attitudes and behaviour, and thus on their reactions to the workplace (Marks, 1994 in Bull, 2005; Winter, 2005). In terms of dual-factor theory (Herzberg et al., 1959 in Judge & Robbins, 2013), co-workers dimension can be classified as a hygiene factor which will not lead to job satisfaction by itself, but its lack can cause job dissatisfaction.

Interpersonal relationships at workplace provide an environment in which employees experience meaning and identity. In fact, “co-workers can make a job a blessing or a curse” (Hodson, 1997, p.426 in Kronberg, 2003) because they comprise both positive and negative interpersonal aspects at the workplace. These aspects include both affective and instrumental functions. Whereas positive affective dimension entails a sense of being accepted and cared for, positive instrumental dimension includes providing assistance in those aspects of the job that are related to the work (Hodson, 2001 in Chiaburu, 2009). Positive relationships are mainly based on positive talks, honest interactions, and respect. Forming such positive relationships at work may make the workplace and work more enjoyable. Indeed, employees who enjoy working with their co-workers will be more satisfied with their jobs (Aamodt, 2004 in Shivangulula, 2009). On the contrary, whereas negative affective dimension includes ostracism and rejection, negative instrumental aspect includes coworkers interfering with others’ work and creating roadblocks to completing a job effectively (Hodson, 2001 in Chiaburu, 2009). For instance, when true information is replaced with fabricated truth, it erodes trust, raises anger, and leads to job dissatisfaction (Aquino, n.d., in Shivangulula, 2009).

An organization’s social context plays an important role, especially for newcomers because it accompanies new employees through the socialization process after entering the organization (Kronberg, 2003). New employees form their attitudes and perceptions by observing and working with organizational insiders who dictate them the acceptable behavioral norms and values of the workgroup (Bommer, Miles, & Grover, 2003).

***Supervision*** is defined as “the ability of the superior to provide technical assistance and behavioral support” (Luthans, 1989, p. 185 in Shivangulula, 2009). A supervisor helps subordinates to accomplish the required task and seeks to promote satisfaction and high morale among the employees (Beach, 1998). The supervisor-employee relationship is a central element to the employees’ affiliation to the organization. Also, it has been argued that many employees’ attitudes and behaviors are largely a function of the way employees are managed and treated by their supervisors. For instance, production-oriented supervisors, who view their subordinates as people to get work done, cause low job satisfaction, and as a result high rates of grievance, turnover, and absenteeism (Agarwal, 1982).

It appears to be disagreement among researchers on the significance of supervision-subordinate relationship and job satisfaction. For instance, whereas Herzberg et al. (1959) argue that the role of supervision-employee relationship has been overrated as a variable

influencing job satisfaction, Vroom (1982) deems the relationship significant (in Waskiewicz, 1999). However, Muhammad and Akhter (2010) cite numerous studies (e.g., Fleishman et al.; 1955; Halpin, 1957; Seeman, 1957; Likert, 1961) which support that employees' high morale and job satisfaction depends on supervisors' employee-centeredness attitude and their considered behavior. Babin and Boles (1996) showed that the supervisors' supporting behavior increases job satisfaction, and decreases work stress, among retail employees. The important role of supervisor-subordinate relationship has also been supported by a very recent research report<sup>3</sup> on 600 American employees which shows that among 26 aspects of job satisfaction, relationship with supervisor has been rated as the fifth<sup>4</sup> most important dimension.

Generally, the most important aspects of the supervisor-subordinate relationship that affect job satisfaction can be summarized as following: (1) A fair treatment of subordinates, including honesty and explanation, respect, warmth, and interpersonally sensitive treatment. Indeed, transactional justice has shown to predict employees' trust in direct supervisor (Zhang et al., 2008; DeConinck, 2010 in Bligh & Kohles, 2013) which is, in turn, significantly correlated with employee's job satisfaction (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002); (2) Fostering employee performance through assigning them to interesting tasks or providing them with assistance (Locke, 1973 in Winter, 2005); (3) Supporting employees in achieving their goals and assisting them in reaching their full potential in performing tasks which may be realized by offering employees opportunities for advancement and promotion (Vroom, 1964 in Winter, 2005); (4) Involving employees in decision-making processes that affects them (Vroom, 1964 in Winter, 2005). In fact, supervisors who create participative decision-making climate affect employees' job satisfaction more substantially than those who offer participating only in particular decisions (Nadler, 1984 in Mhlanga, 2012). This aspect indicates the employees' concerns regarding to the procedural fairness of the organizational authorities; (5) Performance feedback through praise, recognition, and constructive criticism (Locke, 1973 in Winter, 2005); and (6) Supervisor's tension-free relationship with the subordinates (Locke, 1973 in Winter, 2005).

**Promotion** is an important facet of employees' career that affects other aspects of their work experience. In this regard, promotion is defined as the "elevation of an employee to a higher post within the same organization with increased responsibilities, authority over

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<sup>3</sup> Employee Job Satisfaction and Engagement (2012), Society for Human Resource Management

<sup>4</sup> The first four aspects were in order *opportunities to use skills and abilities, job security, compensation/pay, and employees-senior management communication.*



subordinates, remuneration and status” (van Rooyen, 2003, p. 35 in Shivangulula, 2009). According to Quarles (1994), existence of a career path which leads to a series of promotions and positions is an important extrinsic reward that can affect employees. An organization can motivate its highly productive employees to exert higher work efforts by offering them opportunities for advancement and promotions (Kosteas, 2011). However, promotions are an effective mechanism for encouraging greater work efforts if employees are interested to get promoted (Kosteas, 2011). In addition, the fact that promotion involves more responsibilities and more complex tasks may influence employees’ willingness to get promoted if they consider themselves unprepared for being promoted. In this regard, Blum (1959 in Muhammad & Akhtar, 2010) suggests that scope for promotion, and thereby its role in job satisfaction, is more important for skilled employees than unskilled ones. According to Locke (1976), employees’ satisfaction with promotion entails satisfaction with opportunities for advancement and the fairness of the promotion policies within an organization. In fact, employees are concerned with the fairness and unambiguity of promotion policies which are in line with their expectations (Robbins, 1989 in Booyesen, 2008). For instance, organizations may offer promotion opportunities based on either employees’ seniority or employees’ performance. In this sense, employees are most likely to experience job satisfaction if they perceive that promotion decisions are made in a fair way. Therefore, the promotion strategy which is utilized by an organization will influence the employees’ perceived fairness of advancement decisions.

#### **2.4.1. Relationship between Distributive Justice and Satisfaction with Pay, and Promotion**

According to Tyler et al. (1997), employees' satisfaction is linked to whether they perceive they receive a fair compensation. In this regard, extrinsic facets of job satisfaction, namely pay and promotion satisfaction, may be of high importance since they not only satisfy employees' basic Maslowian needs, but they also act as facilitators in satisfying their higher-order needs. Employees value work outcomes such as pay because its instrumentality provides them the means to achieve social status, a sense of self-worth, and satisfaction of material needs (Cropanzano & Ambrose, 2001); this results in higher levels of overall job satisfaction (Judge, Piccolo & colleagues, 2010). Moreover, promotion opportunities convey benefits in form of heightened status as well as significant change in employees' wages (Cropanzano & Ambrose, 2001).

According to Greenberg and Cropanzano (2001), distributive justice is related to employees' reactions to economic allocations and rewards such as pay and promotion opportunities. In this regard, distributive justice, especially in its equity conceptualization, is concerned with the fact that employees' dissatisfaction can be reduced if outcomes, such as pay and promotion opportunities, are allocated in ways that are perceived as fair by employees (Tyler et al., 1997). Thibaut and Kelly (1959 in Tyler et al., 1997) contend that an employee's satisfaction is determined by his or her level of obtained outcomes relative to a comparison level. In terms of equity, when employees perceive discrepancy in outcomes and inputs ratios in comparison with similar others, they will experience dissatisfaction with those outcomes. In contrary, when the outcomes actually received meet or exceed the perceived equitable level of outcomes, employees experience satisfaction (Porter & Lawler, 1968 in Jiang, Klein, & Saunders, 2012). It is to be expected, when an organization allocates pay and promotion opportunities on a fair basis, that is, based on job demands, employees' skill level, and pay standards, satisfaction emerges (Locke, 1976).

Based on the discussion above, it can be argued that distributive justice and satisfaction with pay and promotion are positively related. Folger and Konovsky (1989) showed that satisfaction with personal-level outcomes such as satisfaction with pay can be strongly predicted by perceptions of distributive justice. Spector and Cohen-Charash (2001) reported that pay satisfaction was significantly and positively related to both distributive and procedural justice, but the relationship between distributive justice and pay satisfaction was

stronger. According to McFarlin and Sweeney (1992), distributive justice is a better predictor of personal-level outcomes than procedural justice.

We may also expect that such results emerge in satisfaction with the promotion (Cropanzano & Ambrose, 2001). Sarsfield-Baldwin and Tang (1996) surveyed 200 hospital employees and measured distributive justice at time 1 and personal-level outcomes (i.e., satisfaction with pay and promotion) using JDI as the measure at time 2. The results showed that if employees have a favorable perception regarding distributive justice, then they tend to exhibit a high level of both pay and promotion satisfaction.

#### **2.4.2. Relationship between Procedural Justice and Satisfaction with Supervision**

The Leventhal (1980) principles of procedural justice indicate not only the interpersonal aspects of procedural justice, but also the proper enactment of the decision-making process (Tyler & Bies, 1990). In fact, employees are concerned with both the quality of interpersonal treatment they receive from the supervisors, and the way a supervisor conducts the formal decision maker process. These affect employees' evaluations of the supervisors (Lind & Tyler, 1988), and employees' reactions to them. Indeed, procedural justice is not only a cognitive evaluation, but also a human experience that has strong affective consequences (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler & Bies, 1990) one of which may be the evaluation of decision-makers, and satisfaction with them. For instance, research by Tyler and Folger (1980 in Tyler & Bies, 1990) discovered that the appropriateness of police interactions and behavior, and proper process conduct influence citizens' satisfaction with police performance.

Moreover, the fairness theory (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998; 2001) suggests that both procedures and interpersonal treatment provide employees with the information about the intentions of the decision- makers (e.g., supervisors, sales managers). The theory suggests when employees perceive that they are treated unfairly, they try to hold someone accountable for those actions that have influenced their material or psychological well-being. According to this theory, employees evaluate whether an event *would* have resulted in a more favorable outcome. If they believe that a more favorable outcome *could* have been achieved if the decision maker conducted the decision-making process differently, and that the decision maker *should* have behaved in a more appropriate way, then the decision maker is more likely to be blamed and perceived as responsible for those unfavorable outcomes (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998; 2001). For example, suppose a department manager who has to select few salespeople for advancement and suggest them to sales managers. Those competent salespeople that have not been selected for advancement may hold the supervisor accountable for not being selected if they, by comparing their current circumstance to some other referential situation, believe that: (1) they are harmed and disadvantaged by the supervisor' action; (2) supervisor had discretionary control over selecting the promotion candidates; and (3) supervisor has violated ethical norms, for instance, by not considering employees' competency and performance. The "would" counterfactual corresponds to the providing of an explanation for the decision. Indeed, supervisors are also responsible for providing explanations for employees, especially when decisions are associated with unfavorable outcomes (Tyler & Bies, 1990). Besides that, the "should" counterfactual corresponds to bias

suppression, ethicality, and propriety, and hence, to procedural justice as it is more related to morality (Colquitt, 2012). However, Folger and Cropanzano (1998) suggest that the fairness theory is not limited only to negative events and experiences in an organization, and it can be applied to those positive ones as well. Research (Sarsfield-Baldwin & Tang, 1996) showed that supervisors have some ‘control’ over the employees’ perceptions of procedural justice which in turn significantly impacts employees’ satisfaction. When employees evaluate an organization as an institution, they have the chance to blame and hold the parties (e.g., supervisors) accountable for the unfair “rules of the game” (Sweeney & McFarlin, 1992).

There exists evidence (Sweeney & McFarlin, 1992) that procedural justice and employees’ evaluation of the supervisor are positively and significantly correlated. The Sarsfield-Baldwin & Tang (1996) study examined the relationship between multiple dimensions of procedural justice (e.g., trust in supervisor, clarity) with satisfaction with supervision. The results provided evidence that procedural justice is related to supervision satisfaction. In fact, employees who show high confidence and trust in their supervisors and have clear expectations regarding their performance evaluation tended to have a high level of satisfaction with supervision (Sarsfield-Baldwin & Tang, 1996). Spector and Cohen-Charash (2001) included both laboratory experiments and field studies in their meta-analysis and examined the relationship between both distributive and procedural justice, and satisfaction with supervision. The results suggested that satisfaction with supervisor is significantly and positively related to procedural justice.

### 3. Research Methodology

#### *Research design*

This research is quantitative in nature. Quantitative research is based on the researcher's belief that there is an objective reality which is measurable. It is based on the positivist world view which postulates that world functions based on laws of cause and effect (Muijs, 2011). In this approach, based on precise measurement and by using structured and validated data collection tools, the researcher collects numerical data and analyzes it by using statistical-based techniques.

Unlike qualitative research methods that are suitable for developing theories based on exploratory approach, quantitative research follows confirmatory, or top-down, scientific method as it aims to test and to validate the already constructed theories (Johnson & Christensen, 2008; Muijs, 2011). In fact, quantitative research design is suitable for testing hypotheses that are constructed before the data is gathered (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). It allows the researcher to examine descriptions of the population, differences between groups, and to make quantitative predictions by investigating the relationships between variables (Rovai, Baker, & Ponton, 2014). In addition, using statistical software makes sophisticated data analyses to be less time-consuming.

The ultimate goal of quantitative research is to develop generalizations across different groups for the research findings, and to enable the researcher to better understand, explain, and predict a phenomenon. As a quantitative research method, survey (inquiry) was used for the purpose of the present study because the research objectives are known in advance and all aspects of the study are designed before the data is being collected.

Based on the discussions in chapter 2, following hypotheses were developed:

**(H<sub>1</sub>): Organizational justice and affective commitment are positively related.**

*(H<sub>1a</sub>): The higher the perceived distributive fairness, the higher is the employees' affective organizational commitment.*

*(H<sub>1b</sub>): The higher the perceived fairness of decision-making procedures, the higher is the employees' affective organizational commitment.*

**(H<sub>2</sub>): Organizational justice and work motivation are positively related.**

*(H<sub>2a</sub>): The more the employees perceive their outcomes as distributively fair, the more extrinsically motivated they are.*

*(H<sub>2b</sub>): The more the employees perceive organizational authorities as procedurally fair, the more internally motivated they are.*

*(H<sub>2c</sub>): Outcome favorability moderates the effect of procedural justice on intrinsic motivation.*

**(H<sub>3</sub>): Organizational justice and job satisfaction are positively related.**

*(H<sub>3a</sub>): Distributive justice is positively related to pay satisfaction, and satisfaction with promotion opportunities.*

*(H<sub>3b</sub>): Procedural justice is positively related to satisfaction with supervisor.*

***Data Sources***

As the primary source, the survey method served the purpose of this study. This method is the most common method in describing the naturally occurring relationships between different psychological phenomena (Dumont, 2008) and it is the most widely used data collection technique in organizational psychology (Scandura & Williams, 2000 in Jex & Britt, 2008). Its main goal is to identify and to explain the correlative relationships between various psychological dimensions within a sample of individuals who represent the total population of interest and within the environment where these dimensions take place (e.g., work place). In addition, based on the theoretical framework of the research and the previous empirical findings, the survey method allows for defining psychological constructs as independent and dependent variables in order to examine whether there exists a relationship between various variables (Dumont, 2008). However, unlike experiments which can unveil the causal relationships between various variables, survey method cannot be used to test the cause and effect relationships (Weseley & McEntarffer, 2010).

A great advantage of survey method is in the fact that it allows the collection of data from a large number of respondents at a low cost (Jex & Britt, 2008). In addition, the survey method is an efficient method because it allows measuring of many variables without substantially increasing time and cost (Grinnell Jr., & Unrau, 2011). Moreover, due to the large number of

respondents, the collected data possess a better description of the relative characteristics of the general population. It also excludes the observer's subjectivity as it provides all the participants with a structured answering format; therefore, the collected data have a higher precision (Sincero, 2012).

### ***Data Collection Technique***

Since the purpose of the study was clear and not complex, among different survey methods the unsupervised self-administered questionnaire was chosen to collect data from the respondents. The self-administered questionnaire provides respondents with a structured layout which makes the data analysis to be straightforward (Weiers, 1998 in Booyesen, 2008). Moreover, contents are limited in variation which allows for survey costs to be low (Cargan, 2007). This method can be used in a variety of settings, and is the most common method in the context of conducting employee surveys; it is characterized by comparatively low cost, a relatively small amount of time in the implementation and thereby the possibility to survey a large number of employees (Berekoven, Eckert, & Ellenrieder, 2001 in Winter, 2005). In comparison to supervised self-administered questionnaire technique, this method however lacks control over the respondents and provides no direct information about the answerability of the questions (Bourque & Fielder, 2003).

In this regard, printed questionnaires were distributed among the employees working on the shop-floor of a department store located in Vienna, Austria. The questionnaires were personally handed to the employees by the author. Each questionnaire included a cover letter that provided the participant with an introduction which included the purpose of the study, an explanation about the significance of the study, and the reason why the respondent should fill and return the questionnaire, and finally the name of the person conducting the survey. In addition, in order to induce the employees' participation, and thus, increasing the response rate, the employees were insured that their participation will be compensated (Babbie, 2013). For doing so, the author provided a gift card to be endowed through a drawing process after the data collection process.

Another major consideration was the ethical issues. That is, the respondents' anonymity and the protection of their identity. Each employee was informed in person, as well as in written form, that the participation is voluntary and respondents remain anonymous. They ensured



that their data will be preserved highly confidentially; therefore, no traces of their identity will surface in any way.

The required permissions for conducting the survey and gaining access to the organization's employees were confirmed by the HR department and granted by the store's board of directors. It should be mentioned however that the company was highly concerned with some ethical and legal issues like strict anonymity of the company and confidentiality of the collected data. Therefore, removing all identifying information from the thesis and the research report was guaranteed by the author.

The employee survey was conducted in the spring of 2014 in a four-week period. The questionnaires were distributed and the data were collected between 10 March and 12 April 2014. In order for the employees not to be disturbed during their work, the questionnaires were handed to them during their tea breaks. They had the opportunity of filling out the survey sheet either in their rest times or at home. The respondents were asked to put the filled questionnaire in the provided envelope and hand the sealed envelopes to the switchboard employee. These envelopes were later collected by the author. Employees were also informed that in order to take part in the lottery, writing down their names and signing a designated list upon submitting the survey sheets was necessary. This list, which was destroyed later on, was used to draw the gift card and inform the winner personally.

### ***Participants***

As mentioned earlier, the target population of this study was the store-level employees (i.e., salespeople and cash desk personnel) of a retail organization located in Vienna. Other organization's workforce such as warehousing and logistics, technical staff, house service, and decoration personnel were excluded from the population of the study. In this regard, 336 store-level employees were surveyed. In total, 184 respondents ( $n=184$ ) returned the questionnaire sheets; 166 were filled out completely and 18 included some missed data. The response rate was 54.8%. According to Babbie (2008), and Rubin and Babbie (2011) a response rate of at least 50% is adequate, and a response rate of at least 60% is good. Therefore, the response rate of the present study appeared to be a moderate response rate and seemed to be quite acceptable for analyzing the data and reporting the results.

## ***Measuring Instruments***

As mentioned earlier, a descriptive survey design (questionnaire) with closed questions was used as the main instrument for collecting data. In this regard, the survey instrument consisted of eight sections. The first seven sections referred to the scales regarding the dimensions under study. The eighth section was concerned with the respondents' demographic data. The original scales were all in English, and since the official spoken language across the organization under study was German, all the elements of the questionnaire (i.e., headings, items, and response options) had firstly to be translated into the organization's native language. In order to do that, a forward-backward-translation approach was employed; In the first step, the original English items were translated to German with the help of a German-speaking specialist in the field of organizational psychology. In the second step, German items were translated to the original language (English) with assistance of a bilingual person. The similar process was performed for translating the headings and the response options. A comparison between the original and target language revealed a high quality of the translation.

Another issue was the issue of response scales. Since using scales with different number of response alternatives (i.e., four, five, six, and seven response alternatives) and different response labels (e.g., strongly disagree vs. disagree very much vs. not at all, etc.) was not feasible, it was decided to convert all the response scales to a seven-point Likert scale with uniform response options. The rationale for choosing a seven-point Likert scale was that such scales increase the scales' sensitivity as the probability that the scale would detect a true change in the dimension being measured is higher. Indeed, adding more response options adds additional granularity. According to Cook, Heath, and Thompson (2001 in Pearse, 2011), increasing the number of response options of a scale, increases the score variance and the score reliability. Also, Symonds (1924 in Pearse, 2011) suggests that using seven-point Likert scale would achieve an optimal level of reliability. Moreover, fewer response options might have forced the respondents to choose the next best alternative which may introduce measurement error. Therefore, for the purpose of this study, response labels were defined uniformly and respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with each item based on a seven-point response scale. Thus, all the response scales were uniformly labeled as *strongly disagree (1)*, *moderately disagree (2)*, *slightly disagree (3)*, *neither agree/nor disagree (4)*, *slightly agree (5)*, *moderately agree*, and *(6) strongly*

*agree* (7). As mentioned earlier, the response labels were also translated into German. The final questionnaire consisted of forty closed items and a demography part. A copy of the German questionnaire can be found in Appendix A.

Based on the developed hypotheses and the theoretical framework of the current study, the following measures were implemented:

### ***1. Intrinsic and extrinsic work motivation***

The first part of the questionnaire (items 1-6) evaluated the employees' work motivation in its intrinsic and extrinsic conceptualization. In this regard, the **Motivation at Work Scale (MaWS; Gagné, Forest, Gilbert, Aubé, Morin, & Malorni, 2010)** was used to measure the respondents' motivation at work. The MaWS is developed based on the multidimensional conceptualization of work motivation and is grounded in the SDT (Ryan & Deci, 1985). It consists of four sub-dimensions, namely identified, introjected, extrinsic and intrinsic. However for the purpose of this thesis, only the intrinsic and extrinsic sub-dimensions were used. These two represented two of the dependent variables of the study. By surveying 1,644 employees, Gagné et al. (2010) examined the construct validity and the reliability of the MaWS in two languages, namely English and French. For the English version, they report a coefficient alpha ranged from 0.88 to 0.95 for the intrinsic motivation, and an alpha coefficient between 0.65 and 0.72 for the extrinsic motivation. For the French version, the scales seem to be more reliable; whereas the researchers report an alpha coefficient of 0.92-0.94 for the intrinsic motivation, this value is between 0.89-0.92 for the extrinsic motivation (Gagné et al., 2010).

In sum, MaWS seemed to be an appropriate scale for this thesis since: it was a more recently developed scale which allowed for testing it within the retail context of the current thesis; it contained few items along each dimension (3 items each) which permitted preserving some space on the questionnaire and avoiding the respondent's fatigue in answering questions; and finally its internal consistency was assessed in two languages which encouraged the author to examine the reliability of the translated German scale.

In our questionnaire, questions 1-3 were concerned with the employees' personal interest in the task at hand. A sample item of intrinsic motivation was "*Because I enjoy this work very much*". Questions 4-6 were formulated to address the employees'

external work motives by asking why an employee was involved in his or her current job. A sample item addressing an employee's extrinsic motivation was "*I do this job for the paycheck*". The original seven-point response scales were preserved, but the response options and the stems were modified to conform to an agreement-disagreement continuum.

## ***2. Pay Satisfaction, and Satisfaction with promotion opportunities***

The second part of the questionnaire (7-14) measured two extrinsic dimensions of job satisfaction, namely satisfaction with pay, and promotion opportunities which represent two further dependent variables of this thesis. For doing so, the pay satisfaction and the promotion satisfaction subscales from the **Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS; Spector, 1985)** were used. Spector (1985) reports the internal consistency of pay satisfaction and promotion satisfaction scales with 0.75 and 0.73 respectively.

Although the JSS, which measures job satisfaction in nine distinct dimensions, was developed based on the samples from community health centers, state psychiatric hospitals, state social service departments, and nursing homes (Spector, 1985), this affective-cognitive instrument was later applied to different types of jobs and various organizations including manufacturing, education, and retail and used in different cultures and countries. As Astrauskaitė, Vaitkevičius, and Perminas (2010) contend, it is one of the most frequently used job satisfaction instruments. Saane, Sluiter, Verbeek, and Frings-Dresen (2003 in Boopanon, 2008) conducted a comprehensive analysis of the psychometric properties of twenty nine job satisfaction scales. They reported that only seven out of the twenty nine job satisfaction scales met the psychometric quality criteria set by the researchers, between them, the JSS. However, the JDI and the revised version of the MSQ did not satisfy the quality criteria. The impressive psychometric properties of the JSS are also confirmed by Jex and Britt (2008). The above- mentioned points provided rationale to include the JSS in this thesis.

The JSS pay satisfaction, and promotion satisfaction subscales each consisted of four items which are formulated in both positive and negative directions; they asked the respondents the degree to which they were agree or disagree with each statement. In

this regard, items 7-10 represented the statements about the employees' satisfaction with their pay. A sample item regarding employees' satisfaction with pay was "*I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do*". Items 11-14 captured information about the extent to which the employees were satisfied or unsatisfied with their promotion opportunities. A sample statement regarding this scale was "*Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted*". The original response scale of the JSS had six response options which were modified to a seven-point Likert scale after the translation.

### ***3. Affective Organizational Commitment***

The third part of the survey instrument (items 15-22) assessed the employees' emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation by using the **Affective Commitment Scale (ACS; Meyer & Allen, 1990)**. This scale was one of the three organizational commitment subscales of the Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS; Meyer & Allen, 1990). However, for the purpose of this thesis only the affective dimension of the instrument was chosen to represent the next dependent variable of this study.

This study used all the eight original items from the ACS. It consisted of both positively and negatively worded items and asked the respondents the extent to which each statement reflected their feeling toward their organization. An example item of the affective organizational commitment scale was "*I don't feel like part of the family at my organization*". The original response scale of the ACS had already seven response options; therefore, no modification of the scale was necessary.

The Meyer and Allen's Organizational Commitment Scale is characterized by strong construct validity and high scale reliability. Based on reviewing the results of over 40 samples representing more than 16,000 employees from different organization, Meyer and Allen (1996) claimed that construct validity was strong enough to support the continued use of scales as it has undergone the most extensive empirical evaluation to date. They further conclude that "there appear to be considerable evidence regarding the construct validity of the three measures" (Meyer & Allen, 1996, p. 273 in Krishna, 2008). In terms of internal consistency, Meyer and Allen (1990) reported a Cronbach's alpha of 0.87 for the Affective Commitment Scale. However, those studies that only

used the ACS have even reported higher alpha values. For example, McGee and Ford's (1987 in Krishna, 2008) study on a sample of 900 employees reported a coefficient alpha of 0.88 for ACS. These provided rationale for the inclusion of the Meyer and Allen ACS in this thesis. As a German version of the ACS (Breitsohl, Jakobs, Ruhle & Grieswas, 2009) was available, it was decided to slightly modify it and to implement it in the survey.

#### ***4. Distributive Justice***

The fourth section of the questionnaire (items 23-27) assessed the extent to which rewards are allocated in an equitable way (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993). In this regard, the five-item distributive justice subscale from the **Niehoff and Moorman (1993) Organizational Justice Scale** was used to measure distributive justice. This measure represented one of the three independent variables of this study. The original OJS consisted of three subscales, namely distributive, procedural, and interactional justice. However, for the purpose of this thesis, only distributive and procedural dimensions were selected. Niehoff and Moorman (1993) examined the psychometric reliability of the OJS by using the confirmatory factor analysis. They report a coefficient alpha of 0.74 for the distributive dimension of the organizational justice scale. They also report reliabilities in excess of 0.90 for the separate dimensions.

The distributive justice subscale consisted of five positively worded items which evaluated the employees' perceptions of fairness of allocation of outcomes. The original response scale was a five-point Likert scale. Therefore, the response scale was modified to a seven-point one. An instance item of this scale was "*I think my job responsibilities are fair*".

#### ***5. Procedural Justice***

The fifth part of the questionnaire (items 28-33) evaluated the employees' perceived fairness of the procedures used to allocate outcomes. For doing so, the six-item procedural justice subscale from the **Niehoff and Moorman (1993) Organizational Justice Scale** was used to assess procedural justice. This measure represented the second independent variable of this study and consisted of one negatively-worded item

and five positively-worded items. Niehoff and Moorman (1993) report an internal consistency of  $\alpha=0.87$  for the procedural justice subscale of the OJS. They also report a reliability of 0.90 for this dimension alone.

The Niehoff and Moorman's (1993) procedural justice measure covers various aspects of procedural justice proposed by the researchers. These aspects are weighted differently in different situations; it assists employees to evaluate how fair they perceive the procedures to be. In this regard, item 28 addressed bias suppression rule (Leventhal, 1980); item 29 was concerned with the representativeness/voice (Thibaut & Walker, 1975; Leventhal, 1980). Item 30 assessed the accuracy criterion (Leventhal, 1980) and item 31 referred to providing an account for the decision (Tyler & Bies, 1990). Item 32 assessed the consistency criterion (Leventhal, 1980) and finally item 33 referred to the correctability rule (Leventhal, 1980). A sample item of this scale was "*My manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees*". The response scale was changed to a seven-point scale, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7), in order to conform to the rest of the survey instrument.

## ***6. Satisfaction with Supervisor***

The sixth part of the questionnaire (items 34-37), which referred to the last dependent variable of the present study, asked the respondents about the extent to which they were satisfied with their supervisors. For doing so, the 4-item supervision satisfaction subscale of the **Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS; Spector, 1985)** was implemented. Spector (1985) reported an internal consistency of 0.82 for the supervision satisfaction scale. The scale included two reverse-coded items. A sample item of this scale was "*My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates*".

## ***7. Outcome Favorability***

The seventh part of the questionnaire (items 38-40) assessed the respondent's outcome favorability by using a three-item scale developed by **Brockner, Siegel, Daly, Tyler, and Martin (1997)** in Sun, Chow, Chiu, & Pan, 2013). Sun et al. (2013) did not mention the reliability of the original scale in their study. Instead, they report an alpha

coefficient of 0.81 for their combined measure of outcome favorability which composed of the Brockner et al.'s three-item measure and two additional self-developed items.

In order to implement the measure, both statements and five-point response options had to be slightly modified. This was firstly due to the formulation of the statements that were in question form. Secondly, items employed different five-point response options, that is, very unfavorable to very favorable for the first item, very unfair to very fair for the second item, and very poor to very good for the third item. Therefore, it was decided to uniformly reformulate the statements and readjust the response options along a seven-point Likert scale. By doing so, both statements and response options corresponded to the format of the questionnaire and the respondent's confusion in answering the questions was prevented. As result, we had three neutral statements which asked the respondent the degree to which he or she agreed with each assertion along a seven-point Likert scale ranged from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). A sample item regarding outcome favorability was "*Generally, my supervisor's decisions are favorable to me*".

### ***8. Demographic Characteristics***

The last part of the survey instrument gathered the respondent's demographic data. Babbie (2008) suggests that demographic data should be generally placed at the end of the questionnaire because placing it somewhere else, for instance in the beginning of the questionnaire, gives the respondent a sense of routineness which might discourage the respondent to complete the questionnaire.

The purpose of obtaining this information was to guarantee a comprehensive understanding of the respondents and to gain extra information that could be used when analyzing the data from the nine scales. In addition, since the research environment was a retail setting in which the variables could not be manipulated, considering additional variables was necessary to ensure that they did not affect the direction and the strength of the hypothesized relationships. Indeed, control for these variables allowed for avoiding the potential confounding effects on the dependent variables (van Dyne & LePine, 1998 in Sun et al., 2013).



This section gathered the employees' demographic data in five areas. They included the employees' age (open-ended), gender (female/male), position (cashier/sales assistant), weekly working-hours (open-ended), and finally the level of education (compulsory school/ apprenticeship diploma/vocational school/school-leaving certificate/university).

### *Analysis*

In order to analyze the data collected for this thesis, the software program 'Statistical Package for the Social Sciences' (SPSS 21) was used. Reverse-coded items were recoded into the positively worded items. Prior to calculating the scales' mean scores, a decision criterion was set according to which only the subjects with at least 70% of survey completion were included in the analysis. As all the subjects corresponded to this inclusion rule, all the cases were considered for the analysis. After that, mean score of each scale was calculated.

Using the Cronbach's alpha method, a reliability analysis was conducted on each of the nine scales before performing any other statistical analyses in order to ensure the internal consistency of the measures. The intrinsic and extrinsic motivation scales had a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.92 and 0.81 respectively. The pay satisfaction scale had an internal consistency of  $\alpha=0.86$  while the promotion satisfaction scale had a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.97. This value was 0.96 for the affective commitment scale. Regarding the justice scales, the distributive justice scale exhibited a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.92 whereas the procedural justice scale showed an alpha coefficient of 0.97. The satisfaction with supervision scale had a reliability of 0.94, and finally, the outcome favorability scale had a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.89. According to Rubin and Babbie (2011), whereas the alpha values of 0.90 or higher suggest that the internal consistency of the scales are excellent, alphas with values between 0.80 and 0.89 are considered as good. Thus, all nine scales were found to be highly acceptable.

Following this, descriptive statistics were calculated on the data. Potential relationships and their directions were assessed using correlation analysis. Next, hierarchical multiple regressions were used to further assess the hypotheses.

## 4. Results

### *Descriptive Statistics*

After examination of the scales' reliability descriptive statistics of all the variables were assessed. With regard to the demographic variables, data showed a good range in terms of age. The employees' age ranged from 18 to 45 years old with an average of 27. Considering the gender, 54.9% of the respondents were females and 45.1% were males. Whereas only 26.6% of the employees were cashiers, 73.4% were sales assistants. In addition, a minimum of 10 hours and a maximum of 38.5 hours accounted for the employees' weekly working-hours. 14.7% of the employees worked based on the marginal work contracts, while 72.3% were part-time employees and the rest (12.0%) were working on a full-time basis. Finally, 9.2% of the participants had just visited compulsory school, 4.9% had an apprenticeship diploma, 19.6% were vocational school graduates, 45.7% had a school-leaving certificate, and 16.3% were university graduates. A comparison of these proportions suggested that the employer put emphasis on its employees' education. The information regarding the descriptive statistics is presented in Table 1. It should be mentioned since the age variable was collected based on the continuous data, these data is transformed into categories in order to make the comparisons easier. Similar to this, weekly working-hours is converted to categorical data in Table 1.

Table 2 provides information with regard to the mean score, standard deviation and range of scores for the nine questionnaire scales. An initial examination of this table suggested several findings: A comparison between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation suggested that retail employees are more strongly extrinsically motivated. This suggests that employees in retail organizations are more, and mainly, concerned with receiving material benefits rather than drawing some kind of personal satisfaction, or enjoyment from their jobs. In addition, this finding seems to be plausible as the organization under study offers a variety of material incentives in order to increase the employees' (sales) performance. The mean score of pay satisfaction suggested that employees were slightly satisfied with their wages. However, the score was considerably lower for the promotion satisfaction which implies that retail jobs have little promotion and advancement opportunities. Moreover, the mean score of the affective commitment was slightly high. Indeed, 43.95% of the employees thought that they

could be easily become as attached to another organization as they were to their current organization. This may indicate the low level of employees' loyalty in retail jobs.

Table1:  
*Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents (n=184)*

Respondent's Characteristics	Frequency	Percent
<b><i>Age</i></b>		
18-24	65	35.3
25-31	67	36.4
32-38	42	22.8
39-45	10	5.4
46 and above	0	0
Missing	-	-
total	184	100
<b><i>Gender</i></b>		
Female	101	54.9
Male	83	45.1
Missing	-	-
Total	184	100
<b><i>Position in the store</i></b>		
Cashier	49	26.6
Sales assistant	135	73.4
Missing	-	-
Total	184	100
<b><i>Working contract status</i></b>		
Marginal	27	14.7
Part-time	133	72.3
Full-time	22	12
Missing	2	1.1
Total	184	100
<b><i>Highest education level</i></b>		
Compulsory school	17	9.2
Apprenticeship diploma	9	4.9
Vocational school	36	19.6
School-leaving certificate	84	45.7
University	30	16.3
Missing	8	4.3
Total	184	100

Addressing distributive and procedural justice, the mean scores suggested that respondents' perceptions of distributive justice were relatively higher than of procedural justice. This suggested that employees perceived the organizational procedures underlying their performance appraisals, promotion decisions, pay raise decisions etc. neither fair nor unfair. Addressing the mean score of the satisfaction with the supervision, this value suggested that the employees were slightly satisfied with their supervisors. Finally the mean score of outcome favorability was relatively low, suggesting, that retail employees do not expect that their supervisors' decisions leads to outcomes that are beneficial for them.

Table 2:  
*Mean Score, Standard Deviation and Range of Scores of the nine Questionnaire Scales.*

Scale	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Intrinsic Motivation	184	1.00	5.33	3.17	1.10
Extrinsic Motivation	184	2.67	6.67	5.11	0.70
Pay Satisfaction	181	2.00	6.00	4.50	0.90
Promotion Satisfaction	179	1.00	6.00	3.10	1.34
Affective Commitment	184	1.75	6.75	4.14	1.10
Distributive Justice	184	2.00	7.00	4.64	0.91
Procedural Justice	181	1.00	6.83	4.00	1.50
Supervision Satisfaction	184	1.00	6.75	4.44	1.40
Outcome Favorability	181	1.00	6.33	3.93	1.10

### ***Correlations Matrix***

The relationship between the nine variables intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, pay satisfaction, promotion satisfaction, affective commitment, distributive and procedural justice, supervision satisfaction, and outcome favorability was investigated using the Pearson product-moment correlation. There was a weak positive correlation between distributive justice and affective commitment  $r(184) = 0.197, \rho < 0.01$  and a strong positive correlation between procedural justice and affective commitment  $r(181) = 0.690, \rho < 0.01$ . Moreover, there was a moderate positive relationship between distributive justice and extrinsic motivation  $r(184) = 0.270, \rho < 0.01$ , whereas the correlation between procedural justice and intrinsic motivation was strong and positive  $r(181) = 0.590, \rho < 0.01$ . In addition, there was a relatively strong correlation between outcome favorability and intrinsic motivation  $r(181) = 0.472, \rho < 0.01$ , and a very strong significant relationship between outcome favorability and procedural justice  $r(179) = 0.732, \rho < 0.01$ .

With regard to the relationship between distributive justice and pay satisfaction, the correlation between the two variables was significant and very strong  $r(181) = 0.631, \rho < 0.01$ . The association of distributive justice and satisfaction with promotion opportunities was relatively strong  $r(179) = 0.465, \rho < 0.01$ . Finally, the correlation between procedural justice and satisfaction with supervision was significant and very strong  $r(181) = 0.677, \rho < 0.01$ . As can be seen in Table 3, there were also other significant relationships between the measures.

The initial investigation of the correlation table provided partial support for the research's hypotheses. There were other significant correlations as well; however, due to lack of space, they were not discussed in this thesis. In order to further investigate the hypotheses, hierarchical regression analyses were conducted on each of the research's hypothesis. The results are presented in the following section.

Table 3:  
*Inter-Correlations Matrix for the nine Questionnaire Scales.*

Variable	$\alpha$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Intrinsic Motivation	0.92									
2. Extrinsic Motivation	0.81	-0.252**								
3. Pay Satisfaction	0.86	0.090	0.347**							
4. Promotion Satisfaction	0.97	0.374**	0.240**	0.475**						
5. Affective Commitment	0.96	0.460**	0.050	0.299**	0.453**					
6. Distributive Justice	0.92	0.156*	<b>0.270**</b>	<b>0.631**</b>	<b>0.465**</b>	<b>0.197**</b>				
7. Procedural Justice	0.97	<b>0.590**</b>	0.040	0.278**	0.427**	<b>0.690**</b>	0.370**			
8. Supervision Satisfaction	0.94	0.478**	0.007	0.254**	0.445**	0.566**	0.380**	<b>0.677**</b>		
9. Outcome Favorability	0.89	<b>0.472**</b>	0.014	0.267**	0.471**	0.599**	0.396**	<b>0.732**</b>	0.649**	

Note:  $\alpha$  represents Cronbach's alpha.

\*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). \*\*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations based on Pairwise deletion.

## ***Regression Analysis***

Hierarchical regression analyses were used in order to test the predictions formulated in the research's hypotheses. In all the conducted regressions, the first step controlled for the respondents' demographic characteristics for avoiding the potential confounding effects on the dependent variables (van Dyne & LePine, 1998 in Sun et al., 2013). Dealing with the missed values was based on the pairwise exclusion. Fig. 1 demonstrates a summary of the regression findings.

In order to test the hypothesis ( $H_{1a}$ ), the effect of distributive justice on affective commitment was tested after controlling for demographic variables. The demographic variables were entered in the first step, and subsequently, distributive justice was entered in the second step of the regression. The results from this regression analysis are presented in Table 4. The overall regression model (model 2) was significant  $F(6,169)=8.277, p<0.001, R^2=0.227, \Delta R^2=0.116$ , and distributive justice did make a statistically significant contribution to explaining affective commitment, indicating that distributive justice had a direct medium effect on affective commitment and accounted for 11.6% additional variance in affective commitment. As predicted, distributive justice had a significant positive effect on affective commitment ( $\beta=0.394, p<0.001$ ) which means that one unit increase in standard deviation of distributive justice was associated with 39.4% increase in standard deviation of affective commitment. In addition, 'age', had a significant positive effect on affective commitment ( $\beta=0.226, p<0.01$ ). It implies as the employees' age increases, it is more probable that they develop affective organizational commitment. Also, after entering distributive justice in the regression equation, 'weekly working-hours' had a significant positive effect on affective commitment ( $\beta=0.292, p<0.01$ ).

In sum, the hypothesis that ***the higher the perceived distributive fairness, the higher is the employees' affective organizational commitment*** was supported.

Table 4:

*Hierarchical Regression of Affective Commitment on Background Variables and Distributive Justice.*

Step	Predictor	<i>b</i>	SE <i>b</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>
1	(Constant)	2.3890	0.560		4.269
	Age	0.048	0.016	0.266**	3.005
	Gender	0.017	0.167	0.008	0.102
	Position in the store	0.390	0.184	0.016	0.212
	Weekly working-hours	0.015	0.013	0.108	1.206
	Highest education level	-0.013	0.079	-0.013	-0.166
	2	(Constant)	-0.306	0.748	
Age		0.041	0.015	0.226**	2.718
Gender		0.055	0.156	0.025	0.353
Position in the store		-0.080	0.173	-0.032	-0.463
Weekly working-hours		0.041	0.013	0.292**	3.185
Highest education level		0.051	0.075	0.053	0.689
Distributive Justice		0.474	0.094	<b>0.394***</b>	5.039

Note:  $R^2=0.111$  for Step 1 ( $\rho<0.01$ ),  $\Delta R^2=0.116$  for Step 2 ( $\rho<0.001$ ).

\*\*  $\rho<0.01$ , \*\*\*  $\rho<0.001$ .

To test the hypothesis ( $H_{1b}$ ), the respondents' background variables were all entered in the first step, procedural justice was entered in the second step, and affective commitment was entered as regression's dependent variable. The results from this regression analysis are presented in Table 5. The final regression model (model 2) was significant  $F(6,169)=34.255$ ,  $\rho<0.001$ ,  $R^2=0.549$ ,  $\Delta R^2=0.438$ , and procedural justice did make a statistically significant contribution to explaining affective commitment, indicating that procedural justice had a large effect on affective commitment and accounted for 43.8% additional variance in affective commitment. According to our prediction, procedural justice had a significant positive and somewhat strong effect on affective commitment ( $\beta=0.687$ ,  $\rho<0.001$ ), which means that one unit increase in standard deviation of distributive justice was associated with 68.7% increase in standard deviation of affective commitment. Similar to ( $H_{1a}$ ), 'weekly working-hours' also showed a main effect on affective commitment ( $\beta=0.171$ ,  $\rho<0.01$ ) after entering procedural justice in the second step of the regression.

In sum, the research hypothesis that *the higher the perceived fairness of decision-making procedures, the higher is the employees' affective organizational commitment* was also supported.



Table 5:  
*Hierarchical Regression of Affective Commitment on Background Variables and Procedural Justice.*

Step	Predictor	<i>b</i>	SE <i>b</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>
1	(Constant)	2.389	0.560		4.269
	Age	0.048	0.016	0.266**	3.005
	Gender	0.017	0.167	0.008	0.102
	Position in the store	0.39	0.184	0.016	0.212
	Weekly working-hours	0.015	0.013	0.108	1.206
	Highest education level	-0.013	0.079	-0.013	-0.166
2	(Constant)	0.615	0.423		1.454
	Age	0.015	0.012	0.085	1.312
	Gender	-0.060	0.119	-0.027	-0.501
	Position in the store	0.252	0.132	0.102	1.905
	Weekly working-hours	0.024	0.009	0.171**	2.653
	Highest education level	0.033	0.056	0.033	0.564
	Procedural Justice	0.514	0.040	<b>0.687***</b>	12.804

Note:  $R^2=0.111$  for Step 1 ( $\rho<0.01$ ),  $\Delta R^2=0.438$  for Step 2 ( $\rho<0.001$ ).

\*\*  $\rho<0.01$ , \*\*\*  $\rho<0.001$ .

In order to test the hypothesis ( $H_{2a}$ ), the effect of distributive justice on extrinsic motivation was examined after controlling for demographic variables. Similar to the previous regressions, demographic characteristics were entered into the first block, followed by distributive justice as the next predictor of the model. The results of this analysis can be seen in Table 6. The overall model seemed to fit the data well. The final model (model 2) was significant  $F(6,169)=5.147$ ,  $\rho<0.001$ ,  $R^2=0.155$ ,  $\Delta R^2=0.120$ , and distributive justice contributed significantly to explaining the variance in intrinsic motivation, indicating that distributive justice had a large effect on extrinsic motivation and accounted for 12% additional variance in extrinsic motivation.

As was expected, distributive justice had a significant positive effect of on extrinsic motivation ( $\beta=0.400$ ,  $\rho<0.001$ ). Based on its unstandardized slope (*b*) value, it implied that one unit increase in distributive justice led to .308 units increase in affective commitment. Also, the demographic variable 'weekly working-hours' exhibited a significant positive effect on extrinsic motivation ( $\beta=0.356$ ,  $\rho<0.001$ ) after inclusion of distributive justice in the regression equation.

In sum, the hypothesis, that *the more the employees perceive their outcomes as distributively fair, the more externally motivated they are*, was supported.

Table 6:  
*Hierarchical Regression of Extrinsic Motivation on Background Variables and Distributive Justice.*

Step	Predictor	<i>b</i>	SE <i>b</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>
1	(Constant)	4.922	0.373		13.206
	Age	-0.013	0.011	-0.111	-1.204
	Gender	0.054	0.111	0.038	0.484
	Position in the store	0.160	0.122	0.101	1.311
	Weekly working-hours	0.015	0.008	0.170	1.812
	Highest education level	-0.055	0.052	-0.088	-1.041
	2	(Constant)	3.174	0.500	
Age		-0.018	0.010	-0.151	-1.743
Gender		0.078	0.104	0.056	0.752
Position in the store		0.083	0.116	0.052	0.717
Weekly working-hours		0.032	0.009	0.356***	3.714
Highest education level		-0.013	0.050	-0.020	-0.255
Distributive Justice		0.308	0.063	<b>0.400***</b>	4.889

Note:  $R^2=0.035$  for Step1 ( $\rho=ns$ ),  $\Delta R^2=0.120$  for Step 2 ( $\rho<0.001$ ).  
\*\*\*  $\rho<0.001$ .

A similar hierarchical regression analysis was conducted in order to test ( $H_{2b}$ ) which examined the direct effect of procedural justice on intrinsic motivation while controlling for the background variables. After entering demographic items in block one, procedural justice was entered in block two as the next independent variable. Intrinsic motivation was entered as the dependent variable. The results of the analysis can be found in Table 7.

The final regression model was significant  $F(6,169)=15.883$ ,  $\rho<0.001$ ,  $R^2=0.361$ ,  $\Delta R^2=0.336$ , and procedural justice did make a statistically significant contribution to explaining intrinsic motivation. In other words, procedural justice had a direct effect on intrinsic motivation and accounted for 33.6% additional variance in intrinsic motivation. As it was hypothesized, procedural justice had a significant and strong positive effect on affective commitment ( $\beta=0.602$ ,  $\rho<0.001$ ). The unstandardized slope associated with procedural justice implied that one unit increase in procedural justice was associated with 0.453 unit increase in intrinsic motivation.

Therefore, the research hypothesis, that *the more the employees perceive organizational authorities as procedurally fair, the more internally motivated they are*, was supported.

Table 7:  
*Hierarchical Regression of Intrinsic Motivation on Background Variables and Procedural Justice.*

Step	Predictor	<i>b</i>	SE <i>b</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>
1	(Constant)	2.686	0.589		4.559
	Age	0.033	0.017	0.179	1.928
	Gender	0.057	0.176	0.026	0.323
	Position in the store	0.063	0.119	0.025	0.328
	Weekly working-hours	-0.017	0.013	-0.119	-1.265
	Highest education level	-0.060	0.083	-0.061	-0.722
2	(Constant)	1.124	0.506		2.220
	Age	0.004	0.014	0.020	0.261
	Gender	-0.011	0.143	-0.005	-0.076
	Position in the store	0.251	0.158	0.101	1.586
	Weekly working-hours	-0.009	0.011	-0.064	-0.840
	Highest education level	-0.020	0.067	-0.020	-0.291
	Procedural Justice	0.453	0.048	<b>0.602***</b>	9.426

Note:  $R^2=0.024$  for Step1 ( $\rho=ns$ ),  $\Delta R^2=0.336$  for Step 2 ( $\rho<0.001$ ).  
\*\*\*  $\rho<0.001$ .

For ( $H_{2c}$ ), the interaction effect of procedural justice and outcome favorability on intrinsic motivation was investigated. After controlling for demographic variables in the first step, and for main effects of procedural justice and outcome favorability in the second step, the interaction of these two variables was entered in the third step. In order to avoid problems of multicollinearity, both independent and moderator variables were mean-centered and divided by their standard deviation before the interaction term of procedural justice and outcome favorability was built (Aiken & West, 1991). Table 8 displays the results. First, model 2 was significant  $F(7,168)=13.665$ ,  $\rho<0.001$ ,  $R^2=0.363$ ,  $\Delta R^2=0.338$ , suggesting that both effects did make a statistically significant contribution to explaining intrinsic motivation. Second, model 3 was statistically significant  $F(8,167)=15.392$ ,  $\rho<0.001$ ,  $R^2=0.424$ ,  $\Delta R^2=0.062$ , and the interaction term accounted for significantly more variance than just procedural justice and outcome favorability by themselves ( $\beta=-0.278$ ,  $\rho<0.001$ ). The meaning of the interaction will

be clarified below. Aside from the main effect of procedural justice on intrinsic motivation in the third step (which was supported earlier), another main effect emerged which was due to entering the interaction term in the third model: there was a main effect of ‘position in the store’ in the third step ( $\beta=0.123$ ,  $\rho<0.05$ ), indicating that salespeople are more intrinsically motivated than cashiers.

Table 8:  
*Hierarchical Regression of Intrinsic Motivation on Background Variables, procedural Justice and Outcome Favorability, and their Interaction.*

Step	Predictor	<i>b</i>	SE <i>b</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>
1	(Constant)	-0.435	0.534		0.816
	Age	0.029	0.015	0.179	1.928
	Gender	0.051	0.159	0.026	0.323
	Position in the store	0.057	0.175	0.025	0.328
	Weekly working-hours	-0.015	0.012	-0.119	-1.265
	Highest education level	-0.054	0.075	-0.061	-0.722
2	(Constant)	-0.223	0.435		-0.513
	Age	0.003	0.013	0.020	0.265
	Gender	-0.014	0.130	-0.007	-0.110
	Position in the store	0.221	0.144	0.098	1.535
	Weekly working-hours	-0.008	0.010	-0.059	-0.771
	Highest education level	-0.014	0.061	-0.016	-0.232
	Procedural Justice	0.550	0.093	0.550***	5.916
	Outcome Favorability	0.070	0.092	0.070	0.766
3	(Constant)	-0.172	0.415		-0.416
	Age	0.005	0.012	0.028	0.380
	Gender	-0.062	0.124	-0.031	-0.503
	Position in the store	0.277	0.138	0.123*	2,009
	Weekly working-hours	-0.005	0.009	-0.040	-0.549
	Highest education level	-0.003	0.058	0.004	-0.060
	Procedural Justice	0.501	0.089	0.501***	5.606
	Outcome Favorability	-0.002	0.089	0.002	-0.018
	Procedural Justice × Outcome Favorability	-0.288	0.068	<b>-0.278***</b>	-4.228

Note:  $R^2=0.024$  for Step1 ( $\rho=ns$ ),  $\Delta R^2=0.338$  for Step 2 ( $\rho<0.001$ )

$R^2=0.363$  for Step2,  $\Delta R^2=0.062$  for Step 3 ( $\rho<0.001$ )

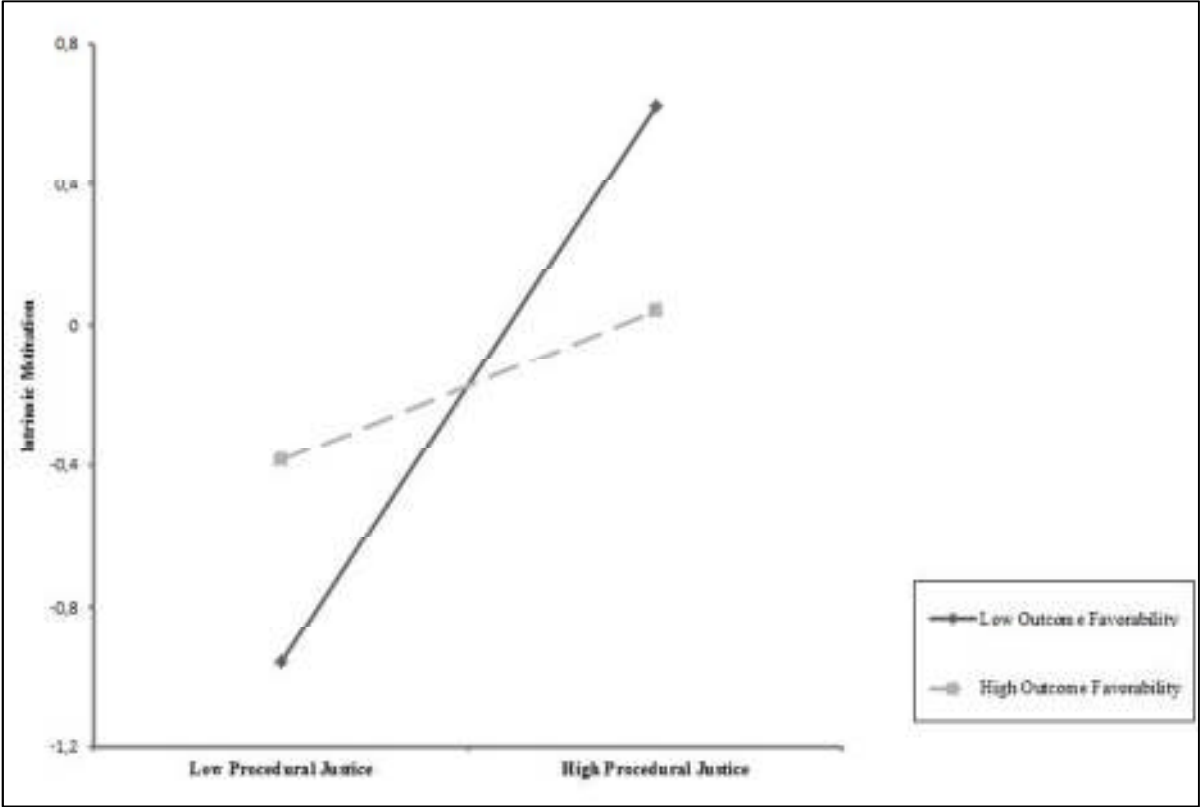
\*  $\rho<0.05$ , \*\*\*  $\rho<0.001$ .

Simple slope analyses were conducted to interpret the observed interaction effect (Aiken & West, 1991). This technique was used to test the regression effects of procedural justice on intrinsic motivation for high (+1 standard deviation) and low (-1 standard deviation) levels of outcome favorability, while controlling for demographic variables. For low levels of outcome favorability, the analysis yielded a significant positive effect of procedural justice on intrinsic motivation

( $\beta=0.789$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). Employees who had no favorable outcomes reported being more intrinsically motivated, when they perceived the organizational procedures as highly fair. In contrast, for high levels of outcome favorability, the effect of procedural justice ( $\beta=0.213$ ) on intrinsic motivation was not significant. This suggests that the perceived procedural fairness is irrelevant when employees are profiting from outcomes that are favorable to them (see Fig. 2).

Hence, the hypothesis, that *outcome favorability moderates the effect of procedural justice on intrinsic motivation* was supported.

Fig. 2. Simple slopes for low and high levels of outcome favorability: Effects of procedural justice on intrinsic motivation.



In order to test ( $H_{3a}$ ), two separate hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to examine the direct effect of distributive justice on pay satisfaction, and promotion satisfaction while controlling for demographic variables.

With regard to the relationship between distributive justice and pay satisfaction, demographic items were entered in block one and distributive justice was entered in block two. Following this, pay satisfaction was entered as the dependent variable. The results of the analysis can be found in Table 9.

The final regression model was significant  $F(6,168)=25.937, \rho<0.001, R^2=0.481, \Delta R^2=0.388$ , and distributive justice significantly explained the variation in pay satisfaction. In other words, distributive justice had a direct effect on pay satisfaction and accounted for 38.8% additional variance in pay satisfaction. As it was hypothesized, distributive justice had a significant and strong positive effect on pay satisfaction ( $\beta=0.720, \rho<0.001$ ). Also, ‘position in the store’ was a significant predictor of pay satisfaction ( $\beta=0.170, \rho<0.01$ ) in the final model. In addition, by including the distributive justice in the second step, ‘highest education level’ was also significant ( $\beta=0.125, \rho<0.05$ ).

Table 9:  
*Hierarchical Regression of Pay Satisfaction on Background Variables and Distributive Justice.*

Step	Predictor	<i>b</i>	SE <i>b</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>
1	(Constant)	3.734	0.467		7.998
	Age	0.021	0.013	0.1420	1.585
	Gender	-0.099	0.139	-0.055	-0.713
	Position in the store	0.527	0.153	0.258**	3.442
	Weekly working-hours	-0.026	0.011	-0.226*	-2.485
	Highest education level	0.003	0.066	0.004	0.047
2	(Constant)	-0.322	0.506		-0.635
	Age	0.010	0.010	0.069	1.009
	Gender	-0.042	0.106	-0.023	-0.396
	Position in the store	0.348	0.117	0.170**	2.965
	Weekly working-hours	0.013	0.009	0.109	1.446
	Highest education level	0.10	0.051	0.125*	1.981
	Distributive Justice	0.714	0.064	<b>0.720***</b>	11.205

Note:  $R^2=0.093$  for Step1 ( $\rho<0.01$ ),  $\Delta R^2=0.388$  for Step 2 ( $\rho<0.001$ ).

\*  $\rho<0.05$ , \*\*  $\rho<0.01$ , \*\*\*  $\rho<0.001$ .

Similarly, the effect of distributive justice on satisfaction with promotion opportunities was assessed by entering the demographic variables in the first block of the hierarchical regression, and distributive justice in the second block. Following this, promotion satisfaction was entered as the outcome variable. The results can be seen in Table 10.

The results of the analysis showed that the final model was significant  $F(6,167)=14.802$ ,  $\rho<0.001$ ,  $R^2=0.347$ ,  $\Delta R^2=0.191$ , and distributive justice significantly explained the variation in satisfaction with promotion opportunities. This model suggested that distributive justice had a direct positive effect on promotion satisfaction which accounted for 19.1% additional variance in this variable ( $\beta=0.505$ ,  $\rho<0.001$ ). In addition, the variable ‘position in the store’ had also a significant direct effect on this dependent variable ( $\beta=0.314$ ,  $\rho<0.001$ ), indicating that the salespeople were more satisfied with their promotion opportunities.

In sum, the hypothesis that *distributive justice is related to satisfaction with pay and promotion* was fully supported.

Table 10:  
*Hierarchical Regression of Promotion Satisfaction on Background Variables and Distributive Justice.*

Step	Predictor	<i>b</i>	SE <i>b</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>
1	(Constant)	1.223	0.671		1.823
	Age	0.018	0.019	0.079	0.914
	Gender	0.223	0.200	0.083	1.116
	Position in the store	1.140	0.220	0.376***	5.179
	Weekly working-hours	-0.029	0.015	-0.170	-1.931
	Highest education level	-0.059	0.094	-0.049	-0.621
2	(Constant)	-3.003	0.847		-3.546
	Age	0.006	0.017	0.028	0.365
	Gender	0.283	0.177	0.105	1.601
	Position in the store	0.954	0.196	0.314***	4.861
	Weekly working-hours	0.011	0.015	0.065	0.766
	Highest education level	0.043	0.085	0.036	0.504
	Distributive Justice	0.744	0.107	<b>0.505***</b>	6.983

Note:  $R^2=0.157$  for Step1,  $\Delta R^2=0.191$  for Step 2 ( $\rho<0.001$ ).  
\*\*\*  $\rho<0.001$ .

In order to test the last hypothesis ( $H_{3b}$ ), the effect of procedural justice on satisfaction with supervision was examined after controlling for demographic variables: the demographic variables were entered in the first step, and subsequently, procedural justice was entered in the second step of the regression. The results from this regression analysis are presented in Table 11. The overall regression model (model 2) was significant  $F(6,169)=25.369$ ,  $p<0.001$ ,  $R^2=0.474$ ,  $\Delta R^2=0.444$ , and procedural justice did make a statistically significant contribution to explaining employees' satisfaction with their supervisors. In other words, procedural justice had a direct effect on satisfaction with supervision and 44.4% additional variance in this dependent variable was uniquely explained by procedural justice. An inspection of betas revealed that procedural justice had a significant positive effect on satisfaction with supervisor ( $\beta=0.692$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) which means that one unit increase in standard deviation of procedural justice was associated with 69.2% increase in standard deviation of the supervision satisfaction.

Therefore, the last hypothesis that *procedural justice is related to satisfaction with supervision* was supported.

Table 11:  
*Hierarchical Regression of Supervision Satisfaction on Background Variables and Procedural Justice.*

Step	Predictor	<i>b</i>	SE <i>b</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>
1	(Constant)	5.141	0.737		6.972
	Age	0.018	0.021	0.080	0.864
	Gender	0.047	0.220	0.017	0.215
	Position in the store	-0.362	0.242	-0.116	-1.495
	Weekly working-hours	-0.013	0.017	-0.073	-0.778
	Highest education level	-0.096	0.104	-0.078	-0.922
2	(Constant)	2.889	0.576		5.011
	Age	-0.023	0.016	-0.102	-1.462
	Gender	-0.050	0.163	0.018	-0.310
	Position in the store	-0.091	0.180	-0.029	-0.506
	Weekly working-hours	-0.002	0.012	-0.010	-0.145
	Highest education level	-0.038	0.077	-0.031	-0.491
	Procedural Justice	0.653	0.055	<b>0.692***</b>	11.939

Note:  $R^2=0.030$  for Step1 ( $p=ns$ ),  $\Delta R^2=0.444$  for Step 2 ( $p<0.001$ ).

\*\*\*  $p<0.001$ .



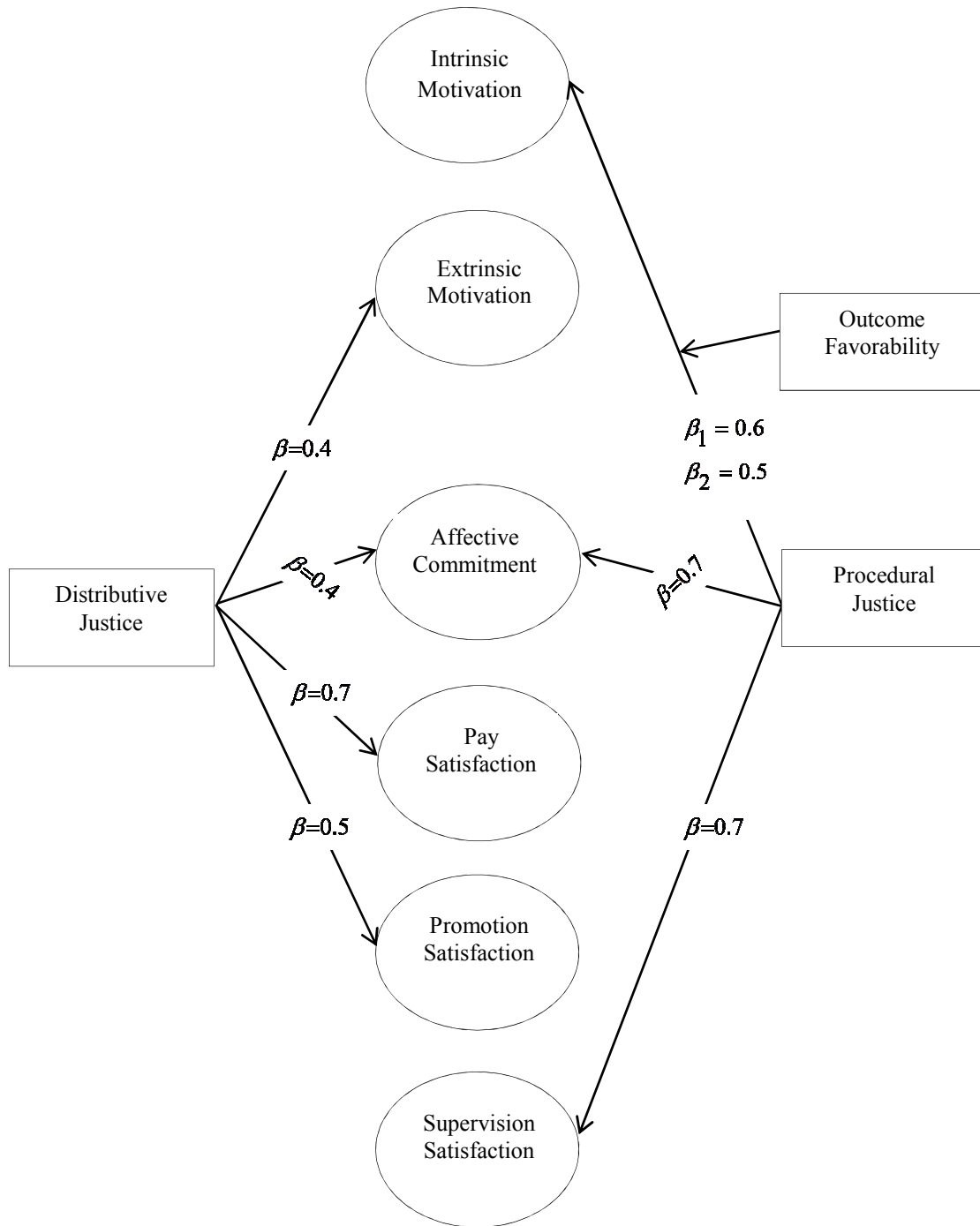


FIG 1. The direct effects of distributive justice and procedural justice on intrinsic and extrinsic work motivation, affective commitment, pay and promotion satisfaction, and satisfaction with supervision; Rectangles are the predictor variables; ovals are the outcome variables. All Betas significant at  $p < 0.001$ .  $\beta_1$  denotes the standardized regression coefficient for procedural justice without moderator variable.  $\beta_2$  denotes the simple slope of procedural justice when moderator variable is low. Note: Relationships were assessed independent of each other.

## 5. Discussion

The purpose of the present thesis was to investigate the effects of distributive and procedural justice on affective organizational commitment, intrinsic and extrinsic work motivation, and selected dimensions of job satisfaction, namely pay, promotion, and supervision satisfaction. In addition, the moderating effect of outcome favorability on the relationship between procedural justice and intrinsic motivation was also studied. This study investigated the relationship between these variables in a retail setting. The results of the regression analyses and correlation analyses did support all the hypotheses of this study and will be discussed one by one.

The hypothesis that *the higher the perceived distributive fairness, the higher is the employees' affective organizational commitment* was supported. In line with previous research findings (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Sarsfield-Baldwin & Tang, 1996; Colquitt et al., 2001; Spector & Cohen-Charash, 2001; Li & Cropanzano, 2009) the present study showed there is a positive relationship between distributive justice and affective commitment, and that the employees develop affective commitment as an emotional response based upon outcomes they receive (Wallace, 1997 in Allen, 2007). In terms of the equity theory, it can be argued when employees perceive a beneficial or equitable exchange between their contributions to the organization and the outcomes they receive they become committed to the organization (Cohen, 2007). Therefore, perceptions of fair distribution of outcomes may trigger employees' emotional responses and development of a long-term relationship with the organization that may be manifested in form of affective commitment.

The hypothesis that *the higher the perceived fairness of decision-making procedures, the higher is the employees' affective organizational commitment* was supported, and procedural justice had a strong effect on the employees' attitudes toward the organization as a whole (Lind & Tyler, 1988). The finding was consistent with the previous research (McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Sarsfield-Baldwin & Tang, 1996; Spector & Cohen-Charash, 2001; Meyer et al., 2002; Li & Cropanzano, 2009). In the context of this study, it suggested that when

employees perceive that their department managers/supervisors make personnel decisions on a fair basis, they get affectively committed to the store. This relationship may be explained by both the informed self-interest and the group-value model (Lind & Tyler, 1988): According to the informed self-interest model, when people enter an exchange relationship with an organization, they may forego short-term gains if they believe that organizational procedures will provide them with their desired share of benefits in the long run. Therefore, if employees perceive the decision-making procedures as fair, they are more optimistic about the favorability of future outcomes which makes them feel that they *want* to act on behalf of the organization; this promotes good feelings and loyalty towards the organization which will be translated into long-term organizational commitment (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996). Aside from that, the group-value model suggests that when the organizational procedures are perceived as fair, employees' needs for self-esteem and self-identity are fulfilled. Moreover, organizational procedures are considered to be relatively stable over time (Leventhal, 1980). Therefore, employees continue their membership in the organization because doing so provides them with a sense of belonging and guarantees their needs for self-esteem and self-identity to be satisfied in the future (Lind & Tyler, 1988). As they ensure that their relationship with the organization is self-enhancing, they get (affectively) committed to the organization (Brockner & Siegel, 1996; Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996).

A comparison between the regression results of ( $H_{1a}$ ) and ( $H_{1b}$ ) revealed that although distributive and procedural justice were both significant predictors of organization-level outcomes such as affective commitment, but affective commitment was more strongly related to procedural justice than to distributive justice. This finding was in line with the Spector and Cohen-Charash (2001) meta-analysis, and McFarlin and Sweeney (1992). The bottom line: both the perceived fairness of outcome allocations and the perceived fairness of procedures underlying those outcome allocations make employees feel valued and cared for by the organisation. These perceptions enhance their loyalty and emotional attachment to the organisation and the willingness to behave in the organization's best interest (Cropanzano et al., 2007).

In addition, analysis showed that affective commitment can be significantly predicted by employees' age. The finding was in line with previous research findings (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Conway & Briner, 2002; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). In particular, the research by Conway and Briner (2002) suggested that older retail employees are more affectively committed to their work place. According to Meyer and Allen (1984 in Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), older employees may develop affective commitment due to the fact that they have higher job satisfaction and have 'cognitively justified' their remaining in their organization. On the other hand, the younger cohorts do not develop a psychological attachment to their work place in a short period of time and might not be ready to commit to their organization for a longer run (Khan & Zafar, 2013).

The hypothesis that *the more the employees perceive their outcomes as distributively fair, the more extrinsically motivated they are* was supported. This finding may be argued as follows: First, if employees see themselves as working to get outcomes, then the activity itself will not be personally interesting. Second, when an organization allocates outcomes to its employees, it means that those outcomes are external to employees over which they may indeed have no or little control. This, according to deCharms (1968 in Deci & Ryan, 1985), means that it is the outcomes that determine employees' behavior. Third, since they have no control over outcomes, the only means that ensures them receiving better or more beneficial outcomes is the fairness of the outcome allocations. This is in line with the notion of extrinsic motivation which suggests that employees see the task as a means to gain separable outcomes that are outside themselves (Pelletier et al., 1995). In the language of equity rule, as the major rule of distributive justice, it can be argued that the retail employees are driven by self-interest, and concerned with their own profits when they enter interactions with an organization (Lind & Tyler, 1988). In this sense, instrumentality of distributive justice (Tyler, 2011) ensures them that they will receive their fair outcome in exchange of their contributions. Indeed, it is their economic considerations and its fairness that motivates their behavior which is in line with the conceptualization of extrinsic motivation. Therefore, the more the employees perceive that the organization can address their material needs by means of fair outcomes, the more they are concerned with gaining resources from their exchange relationship, and the more they perceive that their behavior is driven by fairness, or equity, of those external outcomes received.

The research hypothesis that *the more the employees perceive organizational authorities as procedurally fair, the more internally motivated they are* was also supported. In line with previous research findings (Zapata-Phelan et al., 2009), the research showed that the high perceptions of procedural justice significantly and positively affects intrinsic motivation. According to van Prooijen (2009), the perceived fairness of decision-making procedures provides employees with the information about the degree to which institutional authorities (e.g., supervisors) have the intention to support the autonomy of their employees. Therefore, when supervisors/managers with discretionary control over the decision-making procedures provide employees with a participative decision-making climate, and when employees perceive that these authorities make unbiased and consistent personnel decisions, then these signal them that procedures do not limit their autonomy (van Prooijen, 2009), because such procedures and autonomy-supportive behavior provide employees with opportunities for having some degree of control, or say, over their outcomes. These are the conditions that, according to Deci and Ryan (1985), and Deci and Ryan (2000a,b) positively contribute toward employees' intrinsic motivation. In an organization, such opportunities for voice and choice may also be offered by means of the works council which allows employees to influence the decisions, and their outcomes. Therefore, as the present study showed, high perceptions of fairness of decisions taken by the supervisors, or other decision-making authorities, will enhance employees' internal interest in the activity.

The research hypothesis that *outcome favorability moderates the effect of procedural justice on intrinsic motivation* was supported. The results of the simple slopes analysis showed that the gradient of procedural justice was significant when outcome favorability was low. In other words, under low outcome favorability condition, procedural justice and intrinsic motivation were positively related. That is, in low outcome favorability/low procedural justice condition intrinsic motivation was at its lowest level (Folger et al., 1978), whereas in low outcome favorability/high procedural justice condition intrinsic motivation was at its highest level. Therefore, those employees with low favorable outcomes but high perceptions of procedural fairness exhibit higher level of intrinsic motivation than those with low perceptions of procedural fairness. This is consistent with the notion of fair process effect (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996; Folger & Cropanzano, 1998) that suggests perceptions of fair procedures positively influences employees' attitudes and behaviors. The findings suggests that if outcomes are not favorable to the employees, they are

more concerned with the fairness of decision-making procedures as an energizing force directing and sustaining their behavior, hence, they feel more internally motivated. Indeed, when outcome favorability is low, then procedural justice has a high informative value for the employees' behavior and reactions (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996). When, decision-making procedures underlying those unfavorable outcomes are seen by employees as fair, then employees' internal interest in their jobs will be supported, or enhanced. And, as was shown, the combination of low outcome favorability and low perceived procedural fairness triggers employees' negative behavior and reactions (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996) like decrease in their personal interest in their jobs.

In contrast, the simple slope of procedural justice for the high levels of outcome favorability was not significant. In other words, enhancement the employees' perceptions of procedural justice had no effect on the employees' intrinsic motivation as long as they enjoy very favorable outcomes. According to Latham (2007), when employees experience favorable outcomes, then the importance of procedural justice on employees' attitudes and behavior decreases as the result. Although the interaction under high outcome favorability conditions was not significant, but the general pattern was consistent with the crowding-out effect (Frey & Osterloh, 2002) which states that all types of external rewards and outcomes negatively affect intrinsic motivation, and undermine employees' personal interest in the activity. Indeed, those retail employees who benefited from more favorable outcomes might be optimistic about experiencing such favorable outcomes also in the future. And, according to Deci (1971 in Bateman & Crant, 2003; in van den Berg, 2011; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Deci & Ryan, 2000a, b) expecting any tangible reward or outcome made contingent on the work activity undermines intrinsic motivation for the activities that were personally interesting.

The research hypothesis that *distributive justice is related to satisfaction with pay, and promotion* was supported. In this regard, the effect of distributive justice on each outcome variable was tested separately. With regard to the 'distributive justice-pay satisfaction' linkage, the present study suggested that pay satisfaction can be strongly and significantly predicted by distributive justice. The finding was consistent with previous research (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Sarsfield-Baldwin & Tang, 1996; Spector & Cohen-Charash, 2001). The retail organization under study offered employees a variety of tangible benefits such as sales commissions, extra bonus for good performance, Christmas and vacation money, health insurance, etc. Therefore, if employees

had a favorable perception regarding distributive justice and the outcomes received, they tended to also have a high level of satisfaction with their pays.

The analysis also suggested that pay satisfaction can be significantly predicted by the demographic variables 'weekly working-hours' and 'position in the store'. With regard to the former, the regression yielded a significant negative beta which suggested that those employees who worked more hours in the store were less satisfied with their pay. This finding was contrary to Giannikis and Mihail's (2011) findings who compared the satisfaction level of full-time and part-time retail employees and suggested that full-time employees showed higher satisfaction with their pay. In the context of the present study, this might be due to the fact, that full-time employees receive the same hourly wage and benefits as part-timers do. And when they compare their workload, invested time, energy and other inputs to those of the part-timers, they might feel that they are not adequately appreciated and their higher inputs are not equitably reciprocated by the company. Although it seems that retail full-timers earn more, but taking into account the monthly payroll deductions, such as insurance costs, income taxation, etc., leads to a huge decrease in the full-timer's monthly payable wage. This makes them to be less satisfied with their pay.

Addressing the 'position in the store-pay satisfaction' linkage, the present study suggested that salespeople are more satisfied with their pay compared to cashiers. In fact, in the company under study the salespeople's wage was a function of their fixed salary, sales commissions, extra bonus for good performance, etc. which might positively influence the salespeople's pay satisfaction. On the other hand, cashiers' monthly pay is limited just to their fixed salary, usually with a somewhat lower hourly wage rate. Therefore, based on equity theory and social comparisons (Adams, 1965), cashiers might express pay dissatisfaction as a result of comparing their pay with that of a referent group which is outside their own department, namely with that of the salespeople.

Moreover, information about the distributive justice showed to diminish the effect of 'weekly working-hours' on employees' pay satisfaction. It indicated that employees' perceptions of distributive justice make this variable irrelevant for their satisfaction with pay. Adams (1965) suggested that an employee can react positively even in the absence of favorable outcomes as long as one can balance one's own input-output ratio with that of a referent person.

Addressing the relationship between distributive justice and satisfaction with promotion opportunities, the present study suggested that distributive justice significantly and positively predicts promotion satisfaction. Consistent with Sarsfield-Baldwin and Tang (1996), the present study showed that when retail employees perceived that their chances for advancement and promotion are linked to their performance and contributions to the store, then they tended to be more satisfied with their promotion opportunities. Although the retailer under study offers some advancement opportunities, such as training and apprenticeship programs, degree courses, direct promotions within the organization, etc., however the low mean score (3.10) for promotion satisfaction suggests that employees do not see these opportunities to be allocated on a fair basis.

The demographic variable 'position in the store' had a significant positive effect on employees' satisfaction with promotion and advancement opportunities. It indicated that salespeople were in general more satisfied with their chances for promotion. It might be discussed that the structural differences between sales department and cash administration influenced this perceptions: Whereas salespeople benefitted from more advancement opportunities within the organization as a result of the hierarchical structure of the sales department that allowed for advancing, cashiers were somewhat disadvantaged as a consequence of the flat structure of the cash administration department in which there exists very little space for advancement. This suggests the existence of a career path in sales activities (e.g., sales assistant, supervisor's representative, supervisor, store manager, floor manager, administrative positions in the headquarters, etc.), whereas cashiering may be seen by the cashiers as a dead-end job with not that much perspective.

The last research hypothesis that *procedural justice is related to satisfaction with supervision* was supported. This finding was consistent with Sarsfield-Baldwin and Tang (1996), and Spector and Cohen-Charash (2001) who suggested that procedural justice has a significant positive effect on satisfaction with supervision. According to fairness theory (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998; 2001), procedures and interpersonal treatment provide employees with the information about the intentions of the decision-makers to support autonomy of their subordinates. In the context of the present thesis, it seemed that department supervisors and head chiefs, as the representatives of the organization and top-management, had a discretionary control over some decision-making procedures which had direct impact on the employees' well-being. This included employees' performance evaluations,



recommendations for promotions and pay raises, layoff, etc. Thus, as employees hold their direct supervisor accountable for their outcomes, supervisors' fairness in decision-making procedure directly influences employees' satisfaction with their supervisors. Therefore, if employees perceive that their supervisors make unbiased decisions based on accurate information (Leventhal, 1980); take their concerns into account (Thibaut & Walker, 1975; Leventhal, 1980); provide explanations for the decision (Tyler & Bies, 1990); apply job decisions consistently to all employees (Leventhal, 1980); and offer opportunities to change unfair decisions (Leventhal, 1980), then they will be more satisfied with their supervisors.

## 6. Conclusion

The present study highlighted a number of important practical and academic implications. From the academic point of view the study tried to address the shortages in the body of the existing literature with regard to the influence of distributive and procedural justice on retail employees' affective commitment, intrinsic and extrinsic work motivation, and satisfaction with pay, promotion and supervision in the Austrian context. From the practical point of view, the current study provides human resource practitioners and store managers with deeper insights into the concept of organizational justice and how they can either positively or negatively influence employees' motivation, and work-related attitudes and behavior. As a retailer's success and competitiveness heavily depends on the store employees' work efforts and performance, and since work effort and work performance have been proven to be related to organizational commitment, work motivation, and job satisfaction, we argued that one very important consideration of a retailer may be the issue of fairness. The study tried to provide a deeper understanding of how enhancing perceptions of fairness among store employees may contribute to a retailer's competitive advantage through positively affecting their work-related attitudes and behavior which, in turn, will lead them to be more productive, maintain work schedules, offer better services to customers, and exert higher selling efforts.

Affective commitment should be concerned by retailers as the most beneficial form of organizational commitment because it not only enhances employees' pro-organizational behavior and their work engagement (Bernhard, 2011), but it also increases work performance (Suliman & 2000). When retailers succeed in providing their employees with fair and equitable outcomes and ensure them that fair decision-making mechanisms are in place, then employees develop emotional bounds with their workplace, which will be translated into developing tenure with the store, and putting their effort, individually and collectively, for achieving the organization's goals. However, as the present study suggests, retail employees tend to develop emotional bounds with the employer more strongly if they see that supervisors and managers take personnel decisions on a fair basis.

In order to motivate retail employees and inspire them to expend higher work efforts, retail managers need to understand the dimensionality of motivation. While some retailers may encourage extrinsic motivation by linking financial (tangible) rewards such as pay raises,

merit bonus, and other monetary benefits to the employees' activities, some others may promote intrinsic motivation by letting employees have choices over what they do and work with, and help others, creating working conditions in which employees are happy and like their jobs. In this regard, the present study suggested that retail managers and human resource practitioners should enhance (1) perceptions of outcome fairness among their employees if they pursue extrinsic motivational techniques; and (2) perceptions of procedural fairness among employees if they use intrinsic rewards as motivators. When retailers provide employees with their just share of pay and rewards, then extrinsic motivation will be supported as well. On the other hand, if retailers allow for a certain degree of autonomy and freedom which enables employees to make or influence decisions about how their outcomes are allocated to them, and how personnel decisions are made, intrinsic motivation will be promoted. Our analysis also supported that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are negatively related. As extrinsic motivation is generally not sustainable and leads to diminishing returns (if the level of reward is not increased), this finding suggests that promoting intrinsic motivation may be more beneficial for retail organizations. Indeed, intrinsic motivation is beneficial for retail organizations because it encourages the employees' engagement in, and discretionary cooperation with, the department or the organization in which they work (Kruglanski & Stroebe, 2012).

The study also contributed to the theoretical shortages with regard to the justice-motivation linkages. As Colquitt and Greenberg (2003, p. 99 in Zapata-Phelan et al., 2009) ask "Why is it that job satisfaction and organizational commitment are popular dependent variables in justice research, but motivation is virtually ignored?" the present study tried to shed light on the interactive effect of procedural justice and outcome favorability on intrinsic motivation. We showed for instance that availability of favorable outcomes and perceptions of highly fair decision-making procedures do not work together to enhance the retail employees' intrinsic motivation. Aside from some academic implications of this finding, such as understanding the interaction effects of procedural justice and outcome favorability, the study also suggests if retail managers and supervisors succeed to enhance the perceptions of procedural justice among the workforce, then intrinsic motivation will be supported even in the absence of favorable outcomes. In contrary, offering retail employees favorable outcomes may not always work in favor of employees' internal interest in their jobs, but it actually leads to diminishing of their internal motivation. Hence, fair material incentives may not be always the best motivator for retail employees.

As retailing industry suffers lack of competent workforce in many countries, employees' job satisfaction is getting more and more important for many retailers. To keep their employees satisfied, retail organizations, like any other service organizations, have to create favorable working conditions which foster positive work-related attitudes such as job satisfaction. Our study suggested that distributive justice is among various determinants of job satisfaction: If retailers succeed to provide their employees with equitable outcomes, if they offer fair pays and fair chances for promotion and advancement, then employees will be more satisfied with those outcomes received, and consequently, they will develop more favorable attitudes toward the organization and the customers. In addition to this, employees' satisfaction with their supervisor will be increased if retailers create a fair climate in which employees are given a voice to express their viewpoints and allowed to take part in decision-making procedures which concerns them. For instance, if salespeople are given a chance to provide input in deciding the criteria used in their performance evaluation, then this will positively influence employees' reactions to their supervisors, and their satisfaction with them (Lind & Tyler, 1988). And since employees tend to evaluate organizations in terms of their decision-making authorities, retail employees' satisfaction with their supervisors will in turn be translated into a more positive evaluation of the organization as a whole and the organisation's policies, and the development of more positive attitudes toward their workplace.

This study attempted to present a trustworthy analysis of theories and data. Although the implications and conclusions tried to extend the body of the current literature on organizational justice, affective commitment, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and job satisfaction, it is needless to say that every conducted scientific research has limitations to reflect on. These limitations can be used as directives for future research on this topic.

The first consideration may be the response rate and the moderate number of participants. Based on the available resources, a total number of 336 questionnaires were distributed among the salespeople and cashiers in a department store who worked in two distinct work departments, namely sales and cashiering departments, and 184 questionnaires were collected. Although the response rate of this study was acceptable (54.8%), but its medium level indicates that a biased response rate may be a potential problem for the representativeness of the sample (Babbie, 2008; 2013). It is arguable if the opinions and the answers of those employees who have not responded were more representative of the retail

employees' population. For instance, the present study showed whereas part-timers were the majority in the sample (72.3%), full-time workforce were not adequately represented (14.7%). Although the distribution of employees' demographic backgrounds in the target population was not known to the author, it is arguable whether having more number of full-time employees in the sample could have influenced the current results. Indeed, respondents and nonrespondents might have different demographic characteristics, and the inability of the sample to adequately represent all the sub-groups may make the research findings less generalizable to the total population of retail employees. However, a possible explanation for low participation rate of full-timers may be their higher psychological and physical fatigueness, or having less time in comparison to part-timers which make full-timers being less concerned with surveys. As full-time employees spend more time in the store, supervisory and collegial considerations may be another explanation as full-timers may perceive that their participation in survey may be viewed by the supervisor or colleagues as unnecessary or too sensitive. In addition to this, the present research showed that the majority of the respondents (72%) were in the age group of 18-31 which suggested that older employees might have been not adequately covered by the sample. Moreover, while only 26.6% of positions were occupied by cashiers, 73.4% were taken by sales assistants. Considering the triple proportion of salespeople in the sample, this suggests that the sample may be a more cross-section representative of salespeople rather than the retail employees in general. On the other hand, due to the nature of these jobs, it is quite usual for retailers to employ more sales assistants than cashiers. Indeed, the proportions of these two job positions were 81.4% for salespeople and 18.6% for the cashiers in the target population. In sum, to minimize the nonresponse bias, and thus, to increase the external validity of the research findings, one may need to capture as much information as possible about retail employees by sufficiently representing their (additional) demographic characteristics, and to achieve a higher response rate.

The next issue is related to the problems with the surveys. Although survey research is very popular due to its versatility, efficiency and generalizability (Grinnell Jr., & Unrau, 2011), but their usage is not without problems. An important problem is the social desirability bias. That is, respondents try to create a positive image of themselves by answering the survey items not in a way that truly reflects their feelings and opinions, but in a way that they think they should respond (Goodwin, 2010). A potential solution is ensuring the respondents their complete anonymity. Although the author has tried to ensure the participants, both written and orally, about the confidentiality of their data and identities, but, to what extent the surveys are

answered truly by the respondents is still arguable. In addition, response effects may be a probable measurement problem. This refers to a situation, in which order of the questions or question categories, and exact wording of questions influence a respondent's answer (Groves, Fowler Jr., Couper, Lepkowski, Singer, & Tourangea, 2009). For this research, although it was tried to present a trustworthy German translation for the original scales which not only corresponds to the the original items, but also its wordings are understandable by most of the respondents, and despite the fact that it was attempted to take into account a feasible ordering for the question categories, but it is still arguable whether a more feasible order or more suitable wordings could have been used.

Another possible limitation may be the cross-sectional design of the present research. Unlike longitudinal research designs which allow collecting data in different points of time, in cross-sectional studies data are collected simultaneously and in a single point of time (Bryman, 2012). In this regard, it can be argued whether the employees might have answered the questions differently if they would have been surveyed in two different points of time. In fact, the present study collected employees' data based on their emotional reactions to the current work situation which can change over time. For instance, it can be discussed that the time frame of data collection for this research was generally a low-pressure and relaxant period for the most of the employees because March and April are usually considered more or less restful months by retail employees. This raises the question whether employees would have evaluated some dimensions in the survey differently if the study would have been conducted, for instance, in December which is a highly stressful month for retail employees. In sum, cross-sectional studies provide information about the relationship between variables, but, because the environmental variables cannot be controlled or influenced (that is, we do not know what has happened before, and what happens after the data collection), thus such research designs do not permit to derive causal conclusions (Rubin & Babbie, 2011; Bryman, 2012). Considering the fact, that the present study assessed the relationships between variables independent of each other, for the future research, one may need to specify a model and examine the complex relationships between these variables, and estimate the direct causal relationships between them using structural equation modelling techniques.

Finally, we have to mention the normality assumptions of multiple regression. With regard to the 'distributive justice-extrinsic motivation' model, the distribution of the standardized residuals (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2000 in Osborne & Waters, 2002) was not normally distributed. In fact, the distribution curve of error terms was both kurtotic and

skewed which indicates that the normality assumptions of this model might have been violated. Considering the fact, that the normality assumptions are investigated based on visual inspection of data plots, histograms and rule of thumb tests, one may take into account the bias associated with the results, and hence, be cautious when drawing conclusions about the relationship between distributive justice and extrinsic motivation.

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## Appendix A

Sehr geehrte Teilnehmerin, Sehr geehrter Teilnehmer!

Im Rahmen meiner Masterarbeit an der TU Wien, untersuche ich organisationales Commitment, Motivation, und Arbeitszufriedenheit an Ihrem Arbeitsplatz.

In diesem Zusammenhang wird eine Befragung durchgeführt. Ich möchte Sie freundlichst bitten, diesen Fragebogen auszufüllen. Das Ausfüllen dauert nur einige Minuten. Ihre Hilfe ist jedoch von entscheidender Bedeutung für den erfolgreichen Abschluss meines Studiums. Erteilte Informationen werden absolut anonym und vertraulich behandelt. Ich würde Ihre Hilfe sehr schätzen.

Ihre Mühen werden selbstverständlich belohnt!

Unter allen Zusendungen verlose ich einen

**SATURN Gutschein im Wert von 50 €**

Geben Sie bitte den ausgefüllten Fragebogen verschlossen in das vorgesehene Kuvert  
spätestens bis

12.04.2014

bei dem Sekretariat ab.

Für Ihre Teilnahme möchte ich mich im Voraus herzlich bei Ihnen bedanken!

Alireza Seyedna

		Das trifft...						
		Überhaupt nicht zu	mäßig nicht zu	Teilweise nicht zu	weder noch	Teilweise zu	Mäßig zu	Voll & ganz zu
<b>Inwieweit treffen die folgenden Aussagen als Motive Ihrer derzeitigen Tätigkeit zu?</b>								
Intrinsic Motiv.	Weil ich diese Arbeit sehr gerne mache.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Weil mir dieser Job Spaß macht.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Wegen der Glücksmomente, die diese Arbeit mir beschert.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Extrinsic Motiv.	Weil dieser Job mir einen gewissen Lebensstandard ermöglicht.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Weil diese Arbeit mir ermöglicht, viel Geld zu verdienen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Ich mache diese Arbeit nur wegen der Bezahlung.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>In welchem Ausmaß treffen die folgenden Aussagen bezüglich Ihres Gehalts bzw. Ihren Beförderungschancen zu?</b>								
Pay Satisfaction	Ich glaube, dass ich für diese Tätigkeit fair bezahlt werde.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Es gibt zu wenig und zu selten Gehaltserhöhungen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Wenn ich über mein Gehalt nachdenke, empfinde ich mich durch die Firma nicht genug geschätzt.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Ich bin mit meinen Chancen auf Gehaltserhöhung zufrieden.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Promotion Satisfaction	Es gibt wirklich zu wenig Aufstiegschancen in diesem Job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Diejenigen, die gute Arbeit leisten, haben faire Aussichten auf Beförderung.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Man macht hier so schnell Karriere wie überall anders.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Ich bin mit meinen Aufstiegschancen zufrieden.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>Denken Sie an Ihre Gefühle zu Ihrem jetzigen Arbeitgeber. Inwieweit treffen die folgenden Aussagen zu?</b>								
Affective Commitment	Ich wäre sehr froh, mein weiteres Arbeitsleben in diesem Unternehmen verbringen zu können.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Ich unterhalte mich gerne mit Leuten über meine Firma die nicht hier arbeiten.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Probleme dieser Firma beschäftigen mich häufig so, als ob sie meine eigenen wären.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Ich denke ich könnte mich leicht mit einer anderen Firma gleich stark verbunden fühlen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Ich empfinde mich nicht als „Teil der Familie“ meiner Firma.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Ich fühle mich emotional nicht sonderlich mit dieser Organisation verbunden.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Diese Firma hat eine große persönliche Bedeutung für mich.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Ich empfinde kein starkes Zugehörigkeitsgefühl zu dieser Firma.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

<b>Denken Sie über Ihre Arbeit im Allgemeinen nach.</b>								
<b>In welchem Ausmaß treffen die folgenden Aussagen zu?</b>								
Distributive Justice	Meine Arbeitszeiteinteilung ist fair.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Ich glaube meine Gehaltshöhe ist fair.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Ich betrachte meine Arbeitsbelastungen als fair.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Im Allgemeinen sind die Belohnungen, die ich hier bekomme ziemlich fair.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Ich glaube meine Verantwortlichkeiten sind fair.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Das trifft...						
		Überhaupt nicht zu	mäßig nicht zu	Teilweise nicht zu	weder noch	Teilweise zu	Mäßig zu	Voll & ganz zu
<b>Denken Sie über Ihre/n Vorgesetzte/n (d.h. Ihren Chef/Abteilungsleiter bzw. Ihre Chefin/Abteilungsleiterin) nach.</b>								
<b>Inwieweit treffen die folgenden Aussagen zu?</b>								
Procedural Justice	Mein/e Vorgesetzte/r trifft tendenziöse Entscheidungen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Bevor mein/e Vorgesetzte/r Entscheidungen trifft, stellt er/sie sicher, dass auf die Bedenken aller MitarbeiterInnen Rücksicht genommen wurde.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Bevor er/sie entscheidet, sammelt mein/e Vorgesetzte/r genaue und vollständige Informationen	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Mein/e Vorgesetzte/r erklärt seine/ihre Entscheidungen und bietet zusätzliche Informationen auf Nachfrage der MitarbeiterInnen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Alle Entscheidungen gelten einheitlich für alle betroffenen MitarbeiterInnen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Den MitarbeiterInnen ist erlaubt, die Entscheidungen des/der Vorgesetzten zu hinterfragen bzw. anzufechten..	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>Denken Sie über Ihre/n Vorgesetzte/n nach. Inwieweit treffen die folgenden Aussagen zu?</b>								
Satisfaction with Supervisor	Mein/e Vorgesetzte/r ist sehr kompetent in seiner/ihrer Arbeit.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Mein/e Vorgesetzte/r ist unfair zu mir.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Mein/e Vorgesetzte/r interessiert sich zu wenig für die Gefühle seiner/ihrer MitarbeiterInnen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Ich mag meine/n Vorgesetzte/n.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>Wenn Sie über die Entscheidungen Ihres/r Vorgesetzten nachdenken, inwieweit treffen die folgenden Aussagen zu?</b>								
Outcome Fav.	Im Allgemeinen sind die Entscheidungen meines/r Vorgesetzten günstig für mich.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Mein/e Vorgesetzte/r trifft faire Entscheidungen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Mein/e Vorgesetzte/r trifft sehr gute Entscheidungen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Ich bin \_\_\_\_\_ Jahre alt.

Ich bin  weiblich  männlich

Ich arbeite als  KassierIn  VerkäuferIn

Ich arbeite \_\_\_\_\_ Stunden in der Woche.

**Meine höchste abgeschlossene Schulbildung:**

Pflichtschule  Lehrabschluss  Fachschule  Matura  
 Universität/Fachhochschule