

Indonesian and Australian Employee Responses to Interactional Injustice: The Roles of Negative Affect and Power Distance

Lydia Rahardjo and Julie Fitness
Macquarie University

The aims of this study were to explore employees' emotional and behavioral responses to perceived injustice at work, and to determine the extent to which their responses depended on the power distance (PD) between employees and supervisors at the individual, organizational, and national levels. Data were collected using an anonymous online survey of 81 Australians (a low PD society) and 107 Indonesians (a high PD society). The results showed that perceptions of interactional injustice: (a) were negatively related to constructive behavior, (b) were positively related to the destructive behaviors of exit and neglect through negative affect mediation, (c) interacted with PD in influencing exit behavior, such that participants who perceived high national and organizational PD were less likely to quit the organization even if they experienced a high level of negative affect in response to perceived interactional injustice. Together, the results highlighted the importance of negative affect and power distance perceptions in predicting employees' responses to perceived interactional injustice, especially quitting behavior. The results also suggest that cultural values should be taken into account when addressing problems related to organizational justice and supervisor-subordinate relationships.

Keywords: interactional injustice, negative affect, employees' responses, power distance

Tujuan penelitian ini adalah untuk mengeksplorasi respons emosi dan perilaku karyawan terhadap ketidakadilan di tempat kerja, dan untuk meneliti sejauh mana respons mereka dipengaruhi oleh *power distance* (PD) antara karyawan dan atasannya pada tingkat individual, organisasional, dan nasional. Data dikumpulkan menggunakan survei *online* anonim terhadap 81 warga Australia (masyarakat dengan tingkat PD rendah) dan 107 warga Indonesia (masyarakat dengan tingkat PD tinggi). Hasil penelitian menunjukkan bahwa persepsi karyawan mengenai ketidakadilan interaksional: (a) berkorelasi negatif dengan perilaku konstruktif, (b) berkorelasi positif dengan perilaku destruktif, yaitu "keluar dari pekerjaan" dan "melalaikan pekerjaan," melalui efek mediasi dari afeksi negatif, (c) berinteraksi dengan PD dalam memengaruhi perilaku "keluar dari pekerjaan," yaitu partisipasi dengan tingkat PD tinggi pada level nasional dan organisasional cenderung untuk tinggal di organisasi tersebut meskipun mereka merasakan emosi negatif sebagai akibat dari ketidakadilan interaksional yang dialami. Secara keseluruhan, hasil penelitian ini menggarisbawahi pentingnya afeksi negatif dan persepsi mengenai *power distance* dalam memprediksi respons-respons karyawan terhadap ketidakadilan interaksional, terutama perilaku "keluar dari pekerjaan." Penelitian ini juga menunjukkan bahwa nilai-nilai budaya sepatutnya dipertimbangkan dalam menangani masalah yang berkaitan dengan keadilan organisasional dan hubungan bawahan-atasan.

Kata kunci: ketidakadilan interaksional, afeksi negatif, respons karyawan, *power distance*

People who experience problems at work can respond in a number of ways. They can focus attention on their non-work interests (neglect); they can work to improve the situation, through voice (whether in an aggressive or considerate manner); they can quit

(exit); or they can stay and support the organization (loyalty/patience) (Berntson, Näswall, & Sverke, 2010; Farrell & Rusbult, 1992; Hagedoorn, Van Yperen, Van de Vliert, & Buunk, 1999; Rusbult, Farrell, Rogers, & Mainous, 1988; Withey & Cooper, 1989). The ways that employees respond to problematic events may have important implications for both the employees and the organization. For

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Lydia Rahardjo or Julie Fitness, Macquarie University. E-mail: lydia.rahardjo@students.mq.edu.au/julie.fitness@mq.edu.au

example, reporting a problem to a supervisor may be more beneficial than avoiding the problem, because it may reduce the employee's distress, while also signaling to the organization that some procedures are not working (Hagedoorn et al., 1999).

Previous studies (e.g., Aquino, Galperin, & Bennett, 2004; Liljegren, Nordlund, & Ekberg, 2008; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Turnley & Feldman, 1999; Wang, Mao, Wu, & Liu, 2012) have found that an employee's behavior is related to interactional injustice, or the degree to which an employee perceives truthfulness, honesty, and respectfulness in the supervisor's communication and treatment (Bies & Shapiro, 1987). Specifically, individuals who perceive that they are being treated in a disrespectful manner are more likely to engage in destructive behaviors (i.e. exit, neglect, and aggressive voice) than individuals who believe they are being treated respectfully. Furthermore, VanYperen, Hagedoorn, Zweers, and Postma (2000) found that this relationship is mediated by employees' experience of negative affect. Specifically, those who experience more negative emotions in response to perceptions of interactional injustice tend to engage in counterproductive behaviors, such as coming late to work, taking undeserved breaks, etc. (Miles, Borman, Spector, & Fox, 2002; Penney & Spector, 2005).

Another important factor that has been identified as influencing employees' reactions to problems is power distance (PD), i.e. the extent to which individuals feel equal or subordinate to their supervisors (Fock, Hui, Au, & Bond, 2013; Lee, Pillutla, & Law, 2000; Lian, Ferris, & Brown, 2012). High PD individuals expect their

supervisors to be more autocratic and decisive, while expecting loyalty and obedience from subordinates (Hofstede, 2001; Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005; Rinne, Steel, & Fairweather, 2012). Because employees with high PD perceive supervisors to be superior to themselves, they tend to avoid voicing their disagreements (Bochner & Hesketh, 1994; Ghosh, 2011; Khatri, 2009).

The overall aim of the current study was to explore in more depth the relationships among employee perceptions of interactional injustice, negative affect, power distance, and employee responses to instances of interactional injustice. The objective was to build on previous studies in the following ways: Firstly, most injustice research focuses on negative or destructive responses to perceptions of interactional injustice, whereas this research also examined potentially positive or constructive responses. Secondly, the current study explored power distance (PD) at three, discrete levels: national, organizational, and individual. This is an important feature because recent literature suggests that PD may vary, not only at the individual level, but also within nations, as well as within organizations (e.g., Farh, Hackett, & Liang, 2007). However, previous research has been dominated by investigations at the national level only (e.g. Eylon & Au, 1999; Fock et al., 2013; Lam, Schaubroeck, & Aryee, 2002).

Interactional Injustice

Perceptions of organizational justice have been reported to account for many workplace attributes,

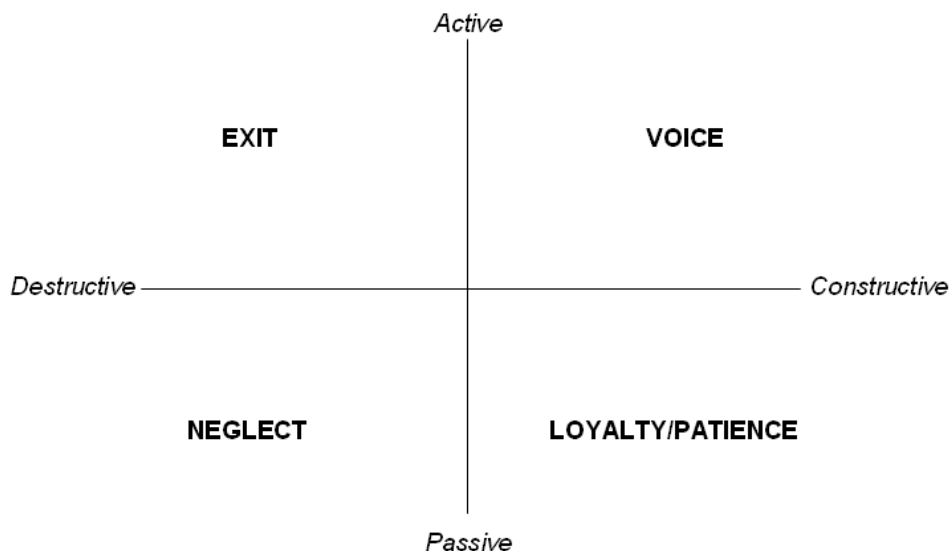


Figure 1. EVLN typology of individual's responses to dissatisfaction.

Adapted from "Impact of Exchange Variables on Exit, Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect: An Integrative Model of Responses to Declining Job Status Satisfaction," by Rusult, C. E., Farrell, D., Rogers, G., & Mainous, A. G., 1988, *Academy of Management Journal*, 31(3), p. 601.

such as occupational stress (Zohar, 1995), job satisfaction (Bakhshi, Kumar, & Rani, 2009), organisational commitment (Bakhshi, Kumar, & Rani, 2009), employees' attitudes toward management (Choi, 2011), organizational citizenship behavior (Karriker & Williams, 2009; Moorman, 1991), and counterproductive work behavior (Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara, 2010). Such perceptions relate to subjective judgments of fairness or unfairness within an organizational setting (Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel, & Rupp, 2001; Cropanzano, Stein, & Nadisic, 2011; Greenberg, 1990). Researchers have categorized organizational justice into three types: distributive (relating to fairness of the outcome), procedural (relating to fairness of the decision-making process), and interactional justice (relating to fairness of the quality of interpersonal treatment) (Ambrose & Harland, 1995; Ambrose, Seabright, & Schminke, 2002; Bies & Moag, 1986; Barling & Phillips, 1993; Lawrence, 2008).

Interactional justice is particularly important in maintaining a positive supervisor-subordinate relationship. Situations that are appraised as interpersonally unfair and threatening to an individual's sense of respect and dignity are likely to provoke negative feelings, such as anger, contempt, disgust, guilt, fear, and nervousness (Hoobler & Hu, 2013). Perceptions of interactional injustice have been argued to affect employees' depression, anxiety, and reactions to work-family conflict (Tepper, 2000). They have also been associated with employees'

negative reactions when dealing with problematic events at work.

Bernerth, Armenakis, Feild, and Walker (2007) examined the role of interactional injustice in employees' responses to organizational change. They found that employees behaved more cynically in relation to organizational change if they perceived they were being treated disrespectfully. Similarly, Greenberg (2006) found that interactional injustice negatively affected nurses' health in response to underpayment: specifically, insomnia was significantly lower among nurses whose supervisors were trained in interactional justice. These studies suggest that employees may respond in particular ways to work problems, depending on their evaluation of their supervisors' treatment of them.

Employees' Responses to Problematic Events

Rusbult, Zembrodt, and Gunn (1982) proposed four types of behavioral response to dissatisfaction and conflict: Exit, Voice, Loyalty/ Patience, and Neglect (EVLN). The EVLN model has been frequently applied in organizational settings (Berntson et al., 2010; Hagedoorn et al., 1999; Naus, van Iterson, & Roe, 2007; Turnley & Feldman, 1999; Withey & Cooper, 1989). Thus, for example, a troubled employee in an organization may look for another job (exit), suggest solutions (voice), trust the organization to do the right thing without his/ her interference (loyalty/ patience), or put less effort in doing his/ her

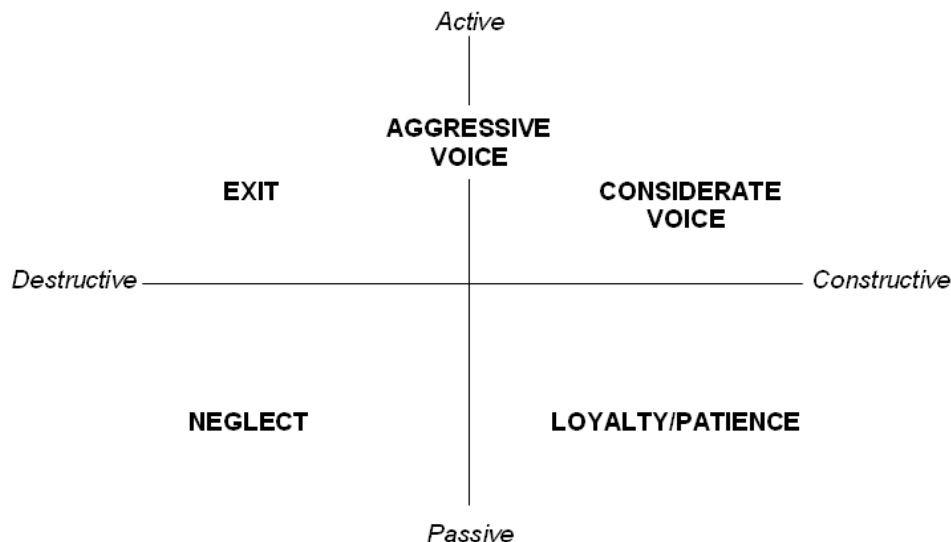


Figure 2. Modified EVLN typology of individual's responses to dissatisfaction.

Adapted from "Employees' Reactions to Problematic Events: A Circumplex Structure of Five Categories of Responses, and the Role of Job Satisfaction," by Hagedoorn, M., Van Yperen, N. W., Van de Vliert, E., & Buunk, B. P., 1999, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 20(3), p. 312.

tasks (neglect) (VanYperen et al., 2000).

EVLN responses were arranged into a two-dimensional model by Farrell (1983) and Rusbult and Zembrodt (1983). Constructive-destructive and active-passive labels were used to categorize each reaction type. Voice and loyalty (or patience) behaviors are viewed as constructive, because their purpose is to support satisfactory relationships. In contrast, exit and neglect are classified as destructive behaviors, because they typically function to damage or terminate relationships. In regards to the second dimension, exit and voice are categorized as active behaviors because they imply actions, while neglect and loyalty/patience are relatively passive.

The EVLN typology has obtained theoretical and empirical support in a number of studies (Rusbult et al., 1988; Turnley & Feldman, 1999; Withey & Cooper, 1989). However, Hagedoorn et al. (1999) argued that voice can take various forms that differ in their degree of constructiveness. For example, voice may entail efforts to develop a solution that helps to de-escalate a conflict; or it may reflect efforts to resolve a conflict without regard to others' interests and may escalate a conflict (Saunders, Sheppard, Knight, & Roth, 1992). Accordingly, Hagedoorn et al. (1999) suggested that voice should be divided into two forms: considerate and aggressive. Their statistical analyses supported this model, placing aggressive voice as neutral on the destructive-constructive dimension (Hagedoorn et al., 1999). Hsiung and Yang (2012) and Liljegren et al. (2008) found similar results, which strongly suggest that the five categories are empirically distinct.

Over the past three decades, the EVLN framework of individuals' behavioral responses has been used in various areas of research within organizational setting. Examples include studies of consumers' and managers' reactions to organizational decline (Kolarska & Aldrich, 1980), survivor responses to downsizing (Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998), the relationship between employees' responses and job satisfaction (Lee & Jablin, 1992; Rusbult et al., 1988), organizational justice (VanYperen et al., 2000), and health and burnout (Liljegren & Ekberg, 2008). The results of these years of research suggest that perceptions of interactional injustice are particularly important in predicting employees' reactions to problematic events at work. As such, this current study hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 1. Perceived interactional injustice will be negatively associated with constructive behaviors (Considerate Voice and Patience).

Hypothesis 2. Perceived interactional injustice will be positively associated with destructive behavior (Exit, Aggressive Voice, and Neglect).

The Mediating Role of Negative Affect

The link between interactional injustice and employees' destructive responses has been found to be mediated by negative affect, such that employees who experience high levels of negative emotion in response to perceptions of interactional injustice are more likely to behave destructively when facing problems at work (Jones, 2009; VanYperen et al., 2000). Negative affect (NA) represents the experience of negative emotions, such as nervousness, anger, and guilt (Russell & Barrett, 1999; Seo, Barrett, & Jin, 2008; Watson & Clark, 1984). Another dimension of affect is positive affect (PA), which represents the positive emotions, such as excitement and enthusiasm (Seo et al., 2008; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988; Watson & Tellegen, 1985; Watson, Wiese, Vaidya, & Tellegen, 1999). However, NA and PA are independent dimensions, which mean that NA is not the polar opposite of PA. An individual may experience low NA without necessarily experiencing PA at the same time (Watson & Clark, 1984).

The experience of NA may be triggered by employees' perceptions of interactional injustice (del Río-Lanza, Vázquez-Casielles, & Díaz-Martín, 2009; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). Fitness (2008) and Lawrence (2008) indicated that employees may respond to interpersonal unfairness with negative emotions, such as anger, outrage, disgust, sadness, fear, and shame. As a result, employees may try to get even with their supervisors, i.e. protesting and/or taking revenge by performing destructive actions (Hung, Chi, & Lu, 2009; Jones, 2009; Kelloway, Francis, Prosser, & Cameron, 2010). These reactions may take the form of absenteeism, resignation, theft, sabotage, and abusive behavior (Fitness, 2000; Fitness, 2008; Miles et al., 2002).

In light of the research indicating links between the perceptions of interactional injustice, the experience of negative emotions, and the likelihood of destructive behaviors (e.g., Fitness, 2000; Hung et al., 2009), it is hypothesized in this current study that:

Hypothesis 3. The relationship between perceived interactional injustice and destructive behavior (Exit, Aggressive Voice, and Neglect) will be mediated by negative affect.

The Moderating Role of Power Distance

Power distance (PD), which describes the degree to which inequality among people is considered to be normal, has been identified as one of the factors determining the quality of the supervisor-subordinate relationship (Lian et al., 2012). Whilst PD has been generally investigated in relation to national-level

beliefs and values (Hofstede, 1987; Kirkman, Lowe, & Gibson, 2006), recent research has acknowledged that it may vary significantly within one country (Farh et al., 2007; Kirkman et al., 2006). Australia has been listed as a country with relatively low PD, whilst Indonesia has been reported to be a high PD community (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). Hence, this study examined PD using Australian and Indonesian samples.

A study by Lam et al. (2002) highlighted the role of national-level PD in the relationship between organizational justice and absenteeism. They found that the relationship was more strongly positive for those lower (U.S. participants), rather than higher in PD (Hong Kong participants). Tyler, Lind, and Huo (2000) have argued that individuals from a low PD orientation society are more likely to expect informal and personalized relationships with their supervisors (Hofstede, 1980). As a result, low PD subordinates are more likely to actively respond in a negative manner to interpersonal violations, i.e. interactional injustice. Their research also indicated that high PD subordinates may perceive abusive and unfair interpersonal treatment from supervisors as more normative and accepted (Lian et al., 2012; Tyler et al., 2000).

At an organizational level, there is an indication that the way employees respond to their problems is influenced by their perception of power distance within that particular organization. When the organizational power distance is perceived to be high, i.e. leaders behave in a directive and authoritative manner, employees are more likely to be discontented (high negative affect) but do not necessarily display their dissatisfaction by confronting the supervisor (White & Lippitt, 1968). This early research showed that team members with an authoritative leader were more likely to be submissive and keep silent than to express their disagreement.

At an individual level, Kirkman, Chen, Farh, Chen, and Lowe (2009) showed that individual PD orientation influenced the connection between procedural justice and organizational citizenship behavior. The relationship was more positive when individual PD orientation was lower, rather than higher. The researchers suggest that low PD individuals are more likely to view fairness as an important aspect to be considered in determining their behavior. Javidan, Dorfman, De Luque, and House (2006) also noted that high PD employees tend to obey their leaders without question and to believe that bypassing them is insubordination. Therefore, they are

expected to be less likely to behave in ways that will offend their supervisors, i.e. engage in active-destructive behavior (exit and aggressive voice), even if they feel that they are being treated unfairly and/or experience a high level of negative emotions.

This current research assessed these three levels of PD in order to enable independent investigation of each level's effect on the relationship between interactional injustice, negative affect, and employee reactions. The PD measured in this study incorporates participants' cultural expectations of how employees should behave (national-level), their perceptions of the power distance culture within their organizations (organizational-level), and their own expectations of supervisor-subordinate relationships (individual-level). Individual-level PD was predicted to have the least moderating effect compared to national and organizational levels. Because individual behavior is motivated in large part by social factors, such as the desire for prestige, esteem, or acceptance, it was considered that individuals would be likely to display behaviors that they deemed were appropriate to the organization and/or in line with cultural expectations, even if these were not in accord with their own beliefs (Bernheim, 1994). Based on these arguments, it was hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 4. PD orientation (at national, organizational, and individual levels) will moderate the relationship between negative affect and active-destructive behavior (Exit and Aggressive Voice), such that the relationships will be weaker for individuals with high PD orientation.

Method

Participants and Procedure

Data were collected within a period of four months using a web-based survey (provided in two versions: English and Indonesian) that included six assessments. The participants were recruited from Indonesia and Australia: (a) with the help of a group of friends who advertised the study as broadly as possible among their family members, friends, and co-workers; (b) by advertising the study on the internet; and (c) by word of mouth. Participants consisted of full-time employees who worked for at least 35 hours per week and had been working in their current organization for a minimum of two months. On the website of the study, participants received information about the purpose of the study and were informed that their data would be treated as anonymous and confidential.

The sample consisted of 187 employees (56.7% Indonesians), 58% of whom were female. The mean age of participants was 33 years ($SD = 9.2$, range = 19-67). Fifteen percent had completed secondary education, 7.5% had a diploma, 53% had a bachelor's degree, 22.5% had a postgraduate degree, and 2% had a doctoral degree. The average hours worked was 43 hours per week ($SD = 6.4$, range = 35-70). Organizational tenure ranged from .2 to 40 years ($M = 5.9$, $SD = 6.7$).

Measures

Perception of interactional injustice. Niehoff and Moorman's (1993) nine-item scale was used in this study. The Cronbach's alpha was reported to be .97 (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993), and .70 when replicated in another study (Devonish & Greenidge, 2010). Participants were asked to indicate to which extent the situations applied within their workplace, such as "When decisions are made about my job, the general manager deals with me in a truthful manner" and "The general manager offers adequate justification for decisions made about my job." Responses were measured on a seven-point scale, from one (*strongly disagree*) to seven (*strongly agree*). The responses were reverse-coded, so that higher scores reflect higher levels of perceived interactional injustice.

Employees' responses. The five categories of responses to problematic events in the workplace were assessed with the modified EVLN typology (Hagedoorn et al., 1999). Participants were asked about their likelihood of performing the behavior in question in response to problematic events at work. The questionnaire consisted of five different scales: 11 items for Considerate Voice, five items for Patience, six items for Exit, seven items for Aggressive Voice, and five items for Neglect. The response choices range from one (*definitely not*) to seven (*definitely yes*) and the alpha coefficients from previous research were reported to range from .69 to .92 (Hagedoorn et al., 1999).

Negative affect. The Job-Related Affective Well-Being Scale (JAWS), which was developed by Van Katwyk, Fox, Spector, and Kelloway (2000) was used in this study. Items on the JAWS ask employees to indicate how often any part of the job has made them feel each of 30 emotional states. However, only negative affects (15 items) were used in this study. The Cronbach's alpha was reported to be .95 for the

overall JAWS and .80 for negative items subscale (Van Katwyk et al., 2000). The response choices range from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*).

Perception of power distance. Power distance (PD) was assessed with a six-item scale developed by Dorfman and Howell (1988, in Clugston, Howell, & Dorfman, 2000). Response choices range from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*), with high scores reflecting perceptions of higher acceptance of unequally distributed power. This scale was used to measure the national-, organizational-, and individual-level PD, with some modifications to reflect each of the contexts. The alpha coefficient in previous research has been shown to be .70 (Clugston et al., 2000) and .74 (Farh et al., 2007). An example item to measure national-level PD is "In Australia, managers are expected to make most decisions without consulting subordinates." At organizational-level, the item is adjusted to "In my current organization, managers make most decisions without consulting subordinates." At individual-level, the sample item is "I agree that managers should make most decisions without consulting subordinates."

The original items in the survey had been written in English. The Indonesian version was developed using a translation-back-translation procedure to ensure linguistic equivalence between those two versions.

Statistical Analyses

The data collected were analyzed using SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) program and the Sobel test calculation tool. Specifically, SPSS linear regression analysis was used to investigate the main effect between interactional injustice and employees' responses and the mediation role of negative affect on the relationship. These analyses were followed up with the Sobel test to calculate the indirect effect of the interactional injustice on destructive behaviors via negative affect (Preacher & Leonardelli, 2001). To examine the moderation effects of national, organizational, and individual levels of power distance on the relationship between interactional injustice, negative affect, and employees' active-destructive responses, SPSS moderated regression analyses were utilized. These techniques have been widely used in previous similar studies examining mediation and moderation effects (Fock et al., 2013; Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Preacher & Hayes, 2004; Saunders et al., 1992; VanYperen et al., 2000).

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. National PD	2.74	.85	(.84)									
2. Organizational PD	2.78	.88	.72**	(.86)								
3. Individual PD	2.28	.66	.41**	.33**	(.75)							
4. Interactional injustice	2.91	1.27	.34**	.54**	.03	(.95)						
5. Negative affect	2.14	.70	.32**	.37**	.09	.44**	(.92)					
6. Considerate Voice	5.06	1.37	-.18*	-.29**	-.08	-.41**	-.25**	(.94)				
7. Patience	3.91	1.38	.11	-.03	.06	-.11	-.09	.10	(.81)			
8. Exit	3.59	1.64	.35**	.34**	.17*	.32**	.47**	-.19**	.01	(.91)		
9. Aggressive Voice	2.61	.99	.16*	.18*	.12	.13	.16*	.09	.01	.23**	(.71)	
10. Neglect	2.01	1.16	.27**	.22**	.04	.22**	.43**	-.12	.01	.40**	.40**	(.86)

Note. Alpha reliabilities are provided in parentheses on the diagonal.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

Results

Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 shows the means, standard deviations, alpha reliabilities of, and correlations among the measures used. All variables were checked for normality and were normalized, if necessary, prior to analyses.

Hypothesis Testing

Hypotheses 1–4 identified a set of relationships that constituted a moderated mediation model, where hypotheses 1 and 2 examined the main effects, hypothesis 3 investigated the mediation model, and hypothesis 4 examined the moderation model.

Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2: The main effect model. A linear regression analysis was conducted to test the relationship between interactional injustice and employees’ responses, both constructive (Hypothesis 1) and destructive (Hypothesis 2). Interactional injustice was found to be negatively correlated with considerate voice ($\beta = -.407, p = .000$), but was not related to patience/loyalty ($\beta = -.113, p = .125$). Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was partially supported. The results also revealed significant main effects of perceptions of

interactional injustice on exit ($\beta = .322, p = .000$) and neglect ($\beta = .220, p = .002$), supporting Hypothesis 2. However, the relationship was not significant for aggressive voice ($\beta = .129, p = .078$). Thus, Hypothesis 2 was partially supported.

Hypothesis 3: The mediation model. Following the mediation model testing procedure proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986), there are four conditions to be met to establish mediation. Firstly, the independent variable (interactional injustice) must be shown to affect the dependent variables (exit, aggressive voice, and neglect). Secondly, the independent variable must affect the mediator (negative affect). Thirdly, the mediator must affect the dependent variables. Fourthly, the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable must be less significant (or non-significant) when the mediator is controlled compared to the first step. The results for the mediation model are provided in Table 2.

Table 2 shows that there is no relationship or mediation effect between interactional injustice, negative affect, and aggressive voice. On the other hand, negative affect partially mediated the effects of interactional injustice on exit and fully mediated the effects on neglect. The Sobel test of indirect effect showed a significant relationship between interactional injustice and exit via negative affect ($\beta =$

Table 2
Regression Results for Mediating Role of Negative Affect

Predictor	Step 1 (effect of IV on DV)	Step 2 (effect of IV on mediator)	Step 3 (effect of mediator on DV)	Step 4 (effect of IV on DV with controlled mediator)
	β	β	β	β
Interactional Injustice (IV)				
Negative Affect (mediator)		.441**		
Exit (DV)	.322**		.406**	.143*
Aggressive Voice (DV)	.129		.129	.072
Neglect (DV)	.220**		.415**	.037

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

4.328, $SE = .053$, $p = .000$). A similar result was found for the indirect effect between interactional injustice and neglect via negative affect ($\beta = 4.311$, $SE = .039$, $p = .000$). Thus, Hypothesis 3 was partially supported.

Hypothesis 4: The moderation model. The general linear model was used to analyze the moderation effect of national, organizational, and individual levels of power distance on negative affect and active-destructive responses to perceptions of interactional injustice.

The results presented in Table 3 indicate that the moderating effects of power distance on the relationship between negative affect and exit were significant for the national- and organizational-level, whilst individual-level power distance was a non-significant moderator. These interactions are presented in Figure 3. As expected, the relationship between perceptions of interactional injustice and exit was stronger for employees with low power distance orientation (national PD: $\beta = .433$, $p = .027$; organizational PD: $\beta = .488$, $p = .016$) than for employees with high PD (national PD: $\beta = .152$, ns ; organizational PD: $\beta = .378$, $p = .023$). Because aggressive voice was not linked to negative affect, hypothesis 4 was only partially supported.

Discussion

The current study demonstrated the relationship between interactional injustice and employees' constructive and destructive reactions. The results partially supported the hypotheses. Firstly, in terms of constructive responses, it was found that perceptions of interactional injustice were strongly negatively related to considerate voice but not to patience/loyalty. These results indicate that employees were more likely to discuss their problems when they perceive that their supervisor would likely to respond to their concerns in a respectful and truthful manner.

Secondly, in line with the expectations, interactional injustice was linked to exit and neglect as destructive reactions to problems at work, mediated by negative affect. Individuals who perceived that their supervisors treated them unfairly were more likely to experience negative emotions and were more likely to quit and/or put less effort in doing their tasks. These findings support previous studies that have examined the relationship between interactional injustice and employees' negative reactions, e.g. intention to quit and counterproductive behavior (Ambrose et al., 2002; Kelloway et al., 2010; Tepper, 2000). This issue is particularly important in

Table 3
Regression Results for Moderating Role of Power Distance on the Relationship between Interactional Injustice and Active-Destructive Behavior

Predictor	Dependent variable			
	Exit		Aggressive Voice	
	β	SE	β	SE
Intercept	3.67**	.11	2.62**	.08
NA	1.05**	.16	.19	.11
NPD	.47**	.13	.15	.09
NA*NPD	-.44**	.17	-.05	.12
Intercept	3.66**	.11	2.63**	.08
NA	1.05**	.17	.20	.12
OPD	.36**	.13	.16	.09
NA*OPD	-.34*	.16	-.11	.11
Intercept	3.60**	.11	2.61**	.07
NA	1.10**	.15	.21*	.10
IPD	1.77*	.86	.85	.58
NA*IPD	-1.19	.10	.31	.68

Note. NA = negative affect; NPD = national power distance; OPD = organizational power distance; IPD = individual power distance
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

maintaining the supervisor-subordinate relationship, because subordinates tend to have long memories for unfair and demeaning treatment (Fitness, 2008). Their perception of interactional injustice may elicit feelings of distrust and hatred, even long after the event has apparently been resolved. These lingering emotions would be likely to impact the organization negatively, both directly through destructive behaviors and indirectly through the potentially dysfunctional relationship between the supervisor and subordinates.

Thirdly, the results found that employees who reported high levels of national PD were less likely to quit, even when they experienced high levels of negative emotion about their jobs. These findings support the hypotheses, such that employees who believe that their culture expects them to behave passively in response to interactional injustice were less likely to take direct action. Similarly, at an organizational level, employees were less likely to quit when they perceived their organization espoused high power distance values. These results highlight the importance of national- and organizational-level power distance in predicting employees' responses to perceived interactional injustice, i.e. whether or not they would react in an active-destructive manner. A strategy to enhance interactional justice would be more effective to reduce negative emotions and prevent exit behavior, when it is applied within a low PD organization in a low PD society/country, rather than in organizations and/or countries with a high PD.

At an individual level, PD was not significant in predicting any of the employees' reactions, i.e. aggressive and considerate voice, exit, neglect, and loyalty/patience. These results indicate that employees may react differently to problems, regardless of their expectations of the employee-supervisor relationship in terms of power relations. Other individual differences, e.g. personality factors and emotional intelligence, should be taken into consideration for future research (Lawrence, 2008).

The findings in this research are in line with those reported by Fitness (2000), who found that many employees who were angered by supervisors tend to avoid a confrontation because they feared the consequences of expressing their feelings to a more powerful offender. This in turn indicates that whilst turnover intention has been widely used as a measure of organizational performance (e.g. Calisir, Gumussoy, & Iskin, 2011; Tzeng, 2002), its interpretation needs to be treated with care. A low level of turnover (or turnover intention) does not necessarily reflect the organization's effectiveness and employees' well-being. Lawrence (2008) argued that employees may suppress their negative emotions, which may lead to emotion-induced toxicity, and eventually influence overall organization's performance.

Implications and Limitations

This current research has several implications. In particular, the results highlight the importance of improving interactional justice within the organization to minimize negative affect, promote considerate voice behavior, and prevent the likelihood of exit and

neglect behavior. However, the initiatives to improve interactional justice will benefit from more exploration before being implemented in a particular organization, as what is considered fair in one culture (at a national or organizational level) may not be deemed as fair in other cultures. For example, consistently applying policies and standards across workers may be considered fair in a low PD society, but would likely to be seen as unfair by those with high PD value, because they expect the policies to be more flexible depending on each individual's circumstances (McFarlin & Sweeney, 2001).

This study also suggests that organizational practitioners should be cautious about interpreting organizational performance, especially in regard to turnover (or turnover intention). As people with high level of national PD were likely to suppress their negative emotions, measurement of organizational effectiveness should take employees' well-being, e.g. occupational stress and job satisfaction, into account. This is not only important in countries with a high PD, but it also applies to organizations in which employees come from multicultural backgrounds. Individuals may take their national values and norms with them when they are working in a different country. Therefore, it is crucial that organizational practices and norms are able to accommodate these differences.

The limitations of this research should be considered. First, although the data were collected from different countries and across organizations, they are cross-sectional. Thus, the statements about causality cannot be made. While the results of this study suggest the effect of negative affect mediation, more complex experimental and/or longitudinal designs are needed to

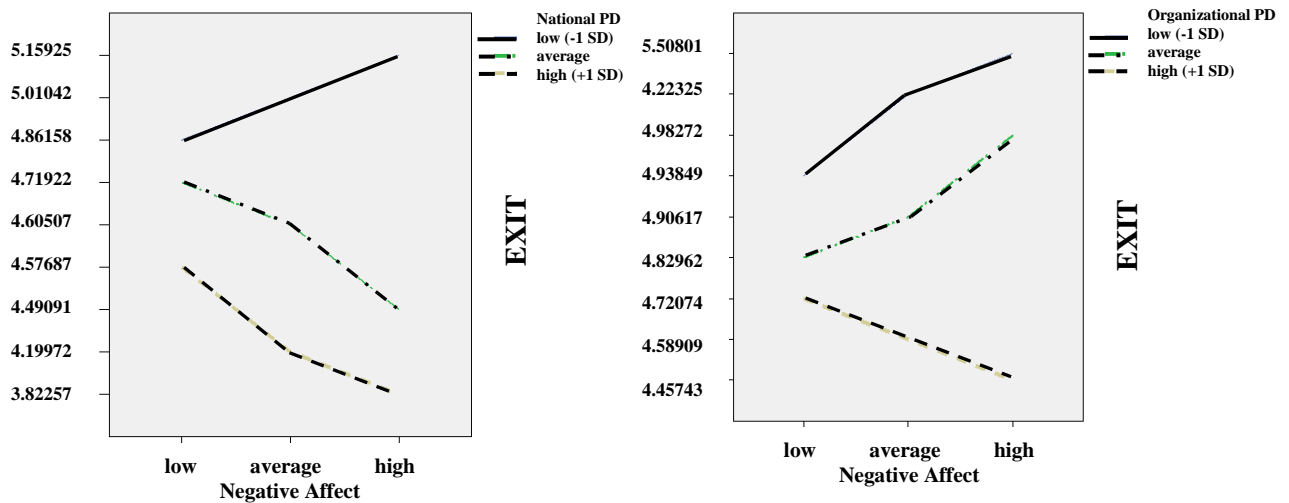


Figure 3. Interactions between negative affect and national- (top) and organizational-level (bottom) power distance predicting the likelihood of performing exit behavior. SD = standard deviation.

provide stronger conclusions of the actual causal paths.

Second, only the role of negative affect was investigated. Future research could examine the effect of positive affect dimension on employees' reactions to problems, such as happiness, calmness, contentment, and excitement (Van Katwyk et al., 2000). Because positive and negative affect are discrete concepts (Watson & Clark, 1984), it would be interesting to explore whether positive emotions would yield results contrasting with this study. Hartel (2008) suggested that organizational justice might play an important role in determining employees' positive emotional experience. As shown in this study where negative affect was associated with destructive behaviors, positive affect may have a contrasting role, i.e. encouraging constructive reactions and buffering the effect of interactional injustice in terms of destructive reactions.

Third, whilst this study accounted for three levels of power distance, controls for individual and other situational factors were not included. Future research could take individual differences, e.g. emotional stability and locus of control, and situational factors, e.g. reward systems and working conditions (Martinko, Gundlach, & Douglas, 2002), into consideration to allow for a more robust test of the hypothesized relationships. Finally, from a cross-cultural perspective, this study focuses on the effect of the power distance dimension. Future research may investigate other cultural dimensions, e.g. individualism-collectivism, which has also been suggested to have a significant effect in determining employees' reactions toward organizational practices (Ramamoorthy & Carroll, 1998). For example, employees with a high collectivism orientation may feel hesitant to respond destructively in case it disadvantages their team (McFarlin & Sweeney, 2001).

In conclusion, this research sheds new light on the role of interactional justice in creating a healthy supervisor-subordinate relationship, which in turn may improve overall organizational performance. It also highlights the importance of negative affect and power distance perceptions in predicting employees' responses. Organizations should take a holistic perspective when measuring their effectiveness in order to promote employees' well-being and performance simultaneously.

References

Ambrose, M. L., & Harland, L. K. (1995). Procedural justice and influence tactics: Fairness, frequency, and

effectiveness. In Cropanzano, R.S. & Kacmar, K.M. (Eds.), *Organizational politics, justice, and support: Managing the social climate of the workplace*, (pp. 97-130). Westport, Conn: Quorum Books.

- Ambrose, M. L., Seabright, M. A., & Schminke, M. (2002). Sabotage in the workplace: The role of organizational injustice. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 89(1), 947-965. doi: 10.1016/S0749-5978(02)00037-7
- Aquino, K., Galperin, B. L., & Bennett, R. J. (2004). Social status and aggressiveness as moderators of the relationship between interactional justice and workplace deviance. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 34(5), 1001-1029. doi: 10.1111/j.1559-1816.2004.tb02581.x
- Bakhshi, A., Kumar, K., & Rani, E. (2009). Organizational justice perceptions as predictor of job satisfaction and organization commitment. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 4(9), 145-154. Retrieved from www.ccsenet.org/journal.html
- Barling, J., & Phillips, M. (1993). Interactional, formal, and distributive justice in the workplace: An exploratory study. *The Journal of Psychology*, 127(6), 649-656. doi: 10.1080/00223980.1993.9914904
- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(6), 1173-1182. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.51.6.1173
- Bernerth, J. B., Armenakis, A. A., Feild, H. S., & Walker, H. J. (2007). Justice, cynicism, and commitment a study of important organizational change variables. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 43(3), 303-326. doi: 10.1177/0021886306296602
- Bernheim, B. D. (1994). A theory of conformity. *Journal of Political Economy*, 841-877. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/2138650>
- Berntson, E., Näswall, K., & Sverke, M. (2010). The moderating role of employability in the association between job insecurity and exit, voice, loyalty and neglect. *Economic and Industrial Democracy*, 31(2), 215-230. doi: 10.1177/0143831X09358374
- Bies, R. J., & Moag, J. F. (1986). Interactional justice: Communication criteria of fairness. In Lewicki, R.J., Sheppard, B.H., & Bazerman, M.H. (Eds.), *Research on Negotiations in Organizations* (pp. 43-55). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Bies, R. J., & Shapiro, D. L. (1987). Interactional fairness judgments: The influence of causal accounts. *Social Justice Research*, 1(2), 199-218. doi: 10.1007/BF01048016

- Bochner, S., & Hesketh, B. (1994). Power distance, individualism/collectivism, and job-related attitudes in a culturally diverse work group. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 25*(2), 233-257. doi: 10.1177/0022022194252005
- Calisir, F., Gumussoy, C.A., Iskin, I. (2011). Factors affecting intention to quit among IT professionals in Turkey. *Personnel Review, 40*(4), 514 – 533. doi: 10.1108/00483481111133363
- Choi, S. (2011). Organizational justice and employee work attitudes: The federal case. *The American Review of Public Administration, 41*(2), 185-204. doi: 10.1177/0275074010373275
- Clugston, M., Howell, J. P., & Dorfman, P. W. (2000). Does cultural socialization predict multiple bases and foci of commitment? *Journal of Management, 26*(1), 5-30. doi: 10.1177/014920630002600106
- Cropanzano, R., Byrne, Z. S., Bobocel, D. R., & Rupp, D. E. (2001). Moral virtues, fairness heuristics, social entities, and other denizens of organizational justice. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 58*(2), 164-209. doi: 10.1006/jvbe.2001.1791
- Cropanzano, R., Stein, J.H., & Nadisic, T. (2011). *Social justice and the experience of emotion*. New York, NY: Taylor & Francis.
- Del Río-Lanza, A. B., Vázquez-Casielles, R., & Díaz-Martín, A. M. (2009). Satisfaction with service recovery: Perceived justice and emotional responses. *Journal of Business Research, 62*(8), 775-781. doi: 10.1016/j.jbusres.2008.09.015
- Devonish, D., & Greenidge, D. (2010). The effect of organizational justice on contextual performance, counterproductive work behaviors, and task performance: Investigating the moderating role of ability-based emotional intelligence. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 18*(1), 75-86. doi: 10.1111/j.1468-2389.2010.00490.x
- Eylon, D., & Au, K. Y. (1999). Exploring empowerment cross-cultural differences along the power distance dimension. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 23*(3), 373-385. doi: 10.1016/S0147-1767(99)00002-4
- Farh, J., Hackett, R. D., & Liang, J. (2007). Individual-level cultural values as moderators of perceived organizational support-employee outcome relationships in China: Comparing the effects of power distance and traditionality. *Academy of Management Journal, 50*(3), 715-729. doi:10.5465/AMJ.2007.25530866
- Farrell, D. (1983). Exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect as responses to job dissatisfaction: A multidimensional scaling study. *Academy of Management Journal, 26*(4), 596-607. doi: 10.2307/255909
- Farrell, D., & Rusbult, C. E. (1992). Exploring the exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect typology: The influence of job satisfaction, quality of alternatives, and investment size. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal, 5*(3), 201-218. doi: 10.1007/BF01385048
- Fitness, J. (2000). Anger in the workplace: An emotion script approach to anger episodes between workers and their superiors, co-workers and subordinates. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 21*(2), 147-162. doi: 10.1002/(SICI)1099-1379(200003)21:2<147::AID-JOB35>3.0.CO;2-T
- Fitness, J. (2008). Fear and loathing in the workplace. In Ashkanasy, N. M., & Cooper, C. L. (Eds.), *Research Companion to Emotion in Organizations* (pp. 61-72). Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.
- Fock, H., Hui, M.K., Au, K., & Bond, M.H. (2013). Moderation effects of power distance on the relationship between types of empowerment and employee satisfaction. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 44* (2), 281-298. doi: 10.1177/0022022112443415
- Fox, S., Spector, P. E., & Miles, D. (2001). Counterproductive work behavior (CWB) in response to job stressors and organizational justice: Some mediator and moderator tests for autonomy and emotions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 59*(3), 291-309. doi: 10.1006/jvbe.2001.1803
- Ghosh, A. (2011). Power distance in organizational contexts - A review of collectivist cultures. *Indian Journal of Industrial Relations, 47*(1), 89-101. Retrieved from web.ebscohost.com
- Greenberg, J. (1990). Employee theft as a reaction to underpayment inequity: The hidden cost of pay cuts. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 75*(5), 561. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.75.5.561
- Greenberg, J. (2006). Losing sleep over organizational justice: Attenuating insomniac reactions to underpayment inequity with supervisory training in interactional justice. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*(1), 58-69. doi : 10.1037/0021-9010.91.1.58
- Hagedoorn, M., Van Yperen, N. W., Van de Vliert, E., & Buunk, B. P. (1999). Employees' reactions to problematic events: A circumplex structure of five categories of responses, and the role of job satisfaction. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 20*(3), 309-321. doi: 10.1002/(SICI)1099-1379(199905)20:3<309::AID-JOB895>3.0.CO;2-P
- Hartel, C. E. J. (2008). How to build a healthy emotional culture and avoid a toxic culture. In Ashkanasy, N. M., & Cooper, C. L. (Eds.), *Research Companion to Emotion in Organizations* (pp. 575-588). Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.

- Hofstede, G. H. (1980). *Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related attitudes*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Hofstede, G. (1987). The applicability of McGregor's theories in South East Asia. *Journal of Management Development*, 6(3), 9-18. doi: 10.1108/eb051642
- Hofstede, G. H. (2001). *Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviors, institutions, and organizations across nations (2nd ed.)*. USA: Sage.
- Hofstede, G., & Hofstede, G. J. (2005). *Cultures and organizations software of the mind: Intercultural cooperation and its importance for survival (revised and expanded 2nd ed.)*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Hoobler, J. M., & Hu, J. (2013). A model of injustice, abusive supervision, and negative affect. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 24(1), 256-269. doi: 10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.11.005
- Hsiung, H. H., & Yang, K. P. (2012). Employee behavioral options in problematic working conditions: Response pattern analysis. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 23(9), 1888-1907. doi: 10.1080/09585192.2011.610340
- Hung, T. K., Chi, N. W., & Lu, W. L. (2009). Exploring the relationships between perceived coworker loafing and counterproductive work behaviors: The mediating role of a revenge motive. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 24(3), 257-270. doi: 10.1007/s10869-009-9104-6
- Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W., De Luque, M. S., & House, R. J. (2006). In the eye of the beholder: Cross cultural lessons in leadership from Project GLOBE. *The Academy of Management Perspectives*, 20(1), 67-90. doi: 10.5465/AMP.2006.19873410
- Jones, D. A. (2009). Getting even with one's supervisor and one's organization: Relationships among types of injustice, desires for revenge, and counterproductive work behaviors. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 30(4), 525-542. doi: 10.1002/job.563
- Karriker, J. H., & Williams, M. L. (2009). Organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior: A mediated multifoci model? *Journal of Management*, 35(1), 112-135. doi: 10.1177/0149206307309265
- Kelloway, E. K., Francis, L., Prosser, M., & Cameron, J. E. (2010). Counterproductive work behavior as protest. *Human Resource Management Review*, 20(1), 18-25. doi: 10.1016/j.hrmr.2009.03.014
- Khatri, N. (2009). Consequences of power distance orientation in organisations. *Vision (09722629)*, 13(1), 1-9. Retrieved from web.ebscohost.com
- Kirkman, B. L., Lowe, K. B., & Gibson, C. B. (2006). A quarter century of culture's consequences: A review of empirical research incorporating Hofstede's cultural values framework. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 37(3), 285-320. doi: 10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8400202
- Kirkman, B. L., Chen, G., Farh, J. L., Chen, Z. X., & Lowe, K. B. (2009). Individual power distance orientation and follower reactions to transformational leaders: A cross-level, cross-cultural examination. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52(4), 744-764. doi: 10.5465/AMJ.2009.43669971
- Kolarska, L., & Aldrich, H. (1980). Exit, voice, and silence: Consumers' and managers' responses to organizational decline. *Organization Studies*, 1(1), 41-58. doi: 10.1177/017084068000100104
- Lam, S. S. K., Schaubroeck, J., & Aryee, S. (2002). Relationship between organizational justice and employee work outcomes: A cross-national study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 23(1), 1-18. doi:10.1002/job.131
- Lawrence, S. A. (2008). The case for emotion-induced toxicity: Making sense of toxic emotions in the workplace. In Ashkanasy, N. M., & Cooper, C. L. (Eds.), *Research Companion to Emotion in Organizations* (pp. 73-89). Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.
- Lee, C., Pillutla, M., & Law, K.S. (2000). Power-distance, gender and organizational justice. *Journal of Management*, 26 (4), 685-704. doi:10.1177/014920630002600405
- Lee, J., & Jablin, F. M. (1992). A cross-cultural investigation of exit, voice, loyalty and neglect as responses to dissatisfying job conditions. *Journal of Business Communication*, 29(3), 203-228. doi: 10.1177/002194369202900302
- Lian, H., Ferris, D.L., & Brown, D.J. (2012). Does power distance exacerbate or mitigate the effects of abusive supervision? It depends on the outcome. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97 (1), 107-123. doi: 10.1037/a0024610
- Liljegren, M., & Ekberg, K. (2008). The longitudinal relationship between job mobility, perceived organizational justice, and health. *BMC Public Health*, 8(1), 164-173. doi: 10.1186/1471-2458-8-164
- Liljegren, M., Nordlund, A., & Ekberg, K. (2008). Psychometric evaluation and further validation of the Hagedoorn et al. modified EVLN measure. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, 49(2), 169-177. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9450.2007.00620.x
- Martinko, M. J., Gundlach, M. J., & Douglas, S. C. (2002). Toward an integrative theory of counterproductive workplace behavior: A causal reasoning perspective. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 10(1-2), 36-50. doi: 10.1111/1468-2389.

- 00192
- McFarlin, D. B. & Sweeney, P.D. (2001). Cross-cultural applications of organizational justice. In Cropanzano, R. (Ed.), *Justice in the Workplace: From Theory to Practice (Vol. 2)* (pp. 67-96). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Miles, D.E., Borman, W.E., Spector, P.E., & Fox, S. (2002). Building an integrative model of extra role work behaviors: A comparison of counterproductive work behavior with organizational citizenship behavior. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 10*(1), 51-57. doi: 10.1111/1468-2389.00193
- Mishra, A. K., & Spreitzer, G. M. (1998). Explaining how survivors respond to downsizing: The roles of trust, empowerment, justice, and work redesign. *Academy of Management Review, 23*(3), 567-588. doi: 10.5465/AMR.1998.926627
- Naus, F., van Iterson, A., & Roe, R. (2007). Organizational cynicism: Extending the exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect model of employees' responses to adverse conditions in the workplace. *Human Relations, 60*(5), 683-718. doi: 10.1177/0018726707079198
- Niehoff, B.P. & Moorman, R.H. (1993). Justice as a mediator of the relationship between methods of monitoring and organizational citizenship behavior. *The Academy of Management Journal, 36*(3), 527-556. doi: 10.2307/256591
- Penney, L.M. & Spector, P.E. (2005). Job stress, incivility, and counterproductive work behavior (CWB): The moderating role of negative affectivity. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 26*, 777-796. doi: 10.1002/job.336
- Preacher, K. J., & Hayes, A. F. (2004). SPSS and SAS procedures for estimating indirect effects in simple mediation models. *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments, & Computers, 36*(4), 717-731. doi: 10.3758/BF03206553
- Preacher, K. J., & Leonardelli, G. J. (2001). *Calculation for the Sobel test: An interactive calculation tool for mediation tests*. Retrieved from <http://quantpsy.org/sobel/sobel.htm>
- Ramamoorthy, N., & Carroll, S. J. (1998). Individualism /collectivism orientations and reactions toward alternative human resource management practices. *Human Relations, 51*(5), 571-588. doi: 10.1177/001872679805100501
- Rinne, T., Steel, G. D., & Fairweather, J. (2012). Hofstede and Shane revisited the role of power distance and individualism in national-level innovation success. *Cross-Cultural Research, 46*(2), 91-108. doi: 10.1177/106937111423898
- Rusbult, C. E., Farrell, D., Rogers, G., & Mainous, A. G. (1988). Impact of exchange variables on exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect: An integrative model of responses to declining job status satisfaction. *Academy of Management Journal, 31*(3), 599-627. doi: 10.2307/256461
- Rusbult, C. E., & Zembrodt, I. M. (1983). Responses to dissatisfaction in romantic involvements: A multidimensional scaling analysis. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 19*(3), 274-293. doi: 10.1016/0022-1031(83)90042-2
- Rusbult, C. E., Zembrodt, I. M., & Gunn, L. K. (1982). Exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect: Responses to dissatisfaction in romantic involvements. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 43*(6), 1230-1242. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.43.6.1230
- Russell, J. A., & Barrett, L. F. (1999). Core affect, prototypical emotional episodes, and other things called emotion: Dissecting the elephant. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 76*(5), 805-819. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.76.5.805
- Saunders, D. M., Sheppard, B. H., Knight, V., & Roth, J. (1992). Employee voice to supervisors. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal, 5*(3), 241-259. doi: 10.1007/BF01385051
- Seo, M., Barrett, L.F., & Jin, S. (2008). The structure of affect: history, theory, and implications for emotion research in organizations. In Ashkanasy, N. M., & Cooper, C. L. (Eds.), *Research Companion to Emotion in Organizations* (pp. 17-44). Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.
- Skarlicki, D. P., & Folger, R. (1997). Retaliation in the workplace: The roles of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 82*(3), 434-443. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.82.3.434
- Tepper, B. J. (2000). Consequences of abusive supervision. *Academy of Management Journal, 43*(2), 178-190. doi: 10.2307/1556375
- Turnley, W. H., & Feldman, D. C. (1999). The impact of psychological contract violations on exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect. *Human Relations, 52*(7), 895-922. doi: 10.1023/A:1016971222029
- Tyler, T. R., Lind, E. A., & Huo, Y. J. (2000). Cultural values and authority relations: The psychology of conflict resolution across cultures. *Psychology, Public Policy, and Law, 6* (4), 1138-1163. doi: 10.1037/1076-8971.6.4.1138
- Tzeng, H. M. (2002). The influence of nurses' working motivation and job satisfaction on intention to quit: an empirical investigation in Taiwan. *International Journal of Nursing Studies, 39*(1), 1-11. doi: 10.1054/ijns.2002.39101

- 39(8), 867-878. doi: 10.1016/S0020-7489(02)00027-5
- Van Katwyk, P. T., Fox, S., Spector, P. E., & Kelloway, E. K. (2000). Using the Job-related Affective Well-being Scale (JAWS) to investigate affective responses to work stressors. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 5*(2), 219–230. doi: 10.1037//1076-8998.5.2.219
- VanYperen, N. W., Hagedoorn, M., Zweers, M., & Postma, S. (2000). Injustice and employees' destructive responses: The mediating role of state negative affect. *Social Justice Research, 13*(3), 291-312. doi: 10.1023/A:1026411523466
- Wang, W., Mao, J., Wu, W., & Liu, J. (2012). Abusive supervision and workplace deviance: The mediating role of interactional justice and the moderating role of power distance. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources, 50*(1), 43–60. doi:10.1111/j.1744-7941.2011.00004.x
- Watson, D., & Clark, L. A. (1984). Negative affectivity: The disposition to experience aversive emotional states. *Psychological Bulletin, 96*(3), 465. doi: 10.1037/0033-2909.96.3.465
- Watson, D., & Tellegen, A. (1985). Toward a consensual structure of mood. *Psychological Bulletin, 98*(2), 219-235. doi: 10.1037/0033-2909.98.2.219
- Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: The PANAS scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 54*(6), 1063–1070. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.54.6.1063
- Watson, D., Wiese, D., Vaidya, J., & Tellegen, A. (1999). The two general activation systems of affect: Structural findings, evolutionary considerations, and psychobiological evidence. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 76*(5), 820-838. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.76.5.820
- White, R., & Lippitt, R. (1968). Leader behavior and member reaction in three “social climates”. In Cartwright, D., & Zander, A. *Group Dynamics: Research and theory* (3rd ed.) (pp. 318-335). London: Tavistock.
- Withey, M. J., & Cooper, W. H. (1989). Predicting exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 34*(4), 521-539. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/2393565>
- Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara, P. (2010). Do unfair procedures predict employees' ethical behavior by deactivating formal regulations? *Journal of Business Ethics, 94*(3), 411-425. doi: 10.1007/s10551-009-0273-z
- Zohar, D. (1995). The justice perspective on job stress. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 16*(5), 487–495. doi: 10.1002/job.4030160508