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POWER DISTANCE AS A MODERATOR IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE AND JOB SATISFACTION

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ABSTRACT

Lacking awareness of appropriate type of power to apply might cause top management to implement equitable practices that fail to produce job satisfaction among subordinates. This study attempts to assess the relationship between organisational justice, power

distance and job satisfaction among employees of Selangor Office of State secretary, Malaysia. It employed a survey method to gather data from the employees. The SmartPLS is used to evaluate the psychometric properties of the survey data and test the research hypotheses. The results of SmartPLS path model analysis revealed two important findings: First, the interaction between distributive justice and low power distance was significantly correlated with job satisfaction. Second, the interaction between procedural justice and high-power distance was significantly correlated with job satisfaction. This outcome confirms that the relationship between distributive justice and job satisfaction is moderated by low power distance, while the relationship between procedural justice and job satisfaction is moderated by high power distance. Further, significant recommendations from this study can help practitioners to understand diverse perspectives of power distance and draw up cross-cultural management plans to enable their human resource to contribute towards the attainment of the organisation's vision and missions.

Keywords: Organisational justice, management, power distance, job satisfaction, SmartPLS.

INTRODUCTION

Organisational justice has captured the attention of researchers in organisational life literature (Jamaliah et al., 2017; Jehanzeb & Mohanty, 2020). Employee perceptions toward justice are formed in response to their perceptions toward organisational treatments. Consequently, their perceptions elicit positive or negative reactions (Abu Elanain, 2010; Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara & Guerra-Báez, 2016). Usually employees develop two significant types of justice assessments: distributive justice and procedural justice (Colquitt et al., 2005; George & Wallio, 2017). These assessments reveal employee reactions to structural organisational events, such as planned management practices (e.g., salaries and decision-making procedures) (Greenberg, 1990; 1994; Hao et al., 2016). Western social scientists have been giving great attention to distributive justice that is associated with Adams' Equity Theory. According to this theory, employees perceive justice is done when the outcomes (e.g., rewards) that they receive are equally distributed according to their inputs (e.g., effort) (Chandrasai et al., 2020; Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Lambert et al., 2007). This type of justice has been studied in a number of settings, such as sales and retailing (Schwepker, 2016), resistance to organisational change (Van Der Voet, 2019), work related attitude in organisations (Chandrasai et al., 2020; Mahboob & Khan, 2017) and ethical and legal compliance in government agencies (Kiswanto et al., 2020).

Over time, the input-outcome type of justice yielded another form of justice, called procedural justice. Almost five decades now, procedural justice has been based on perceived fairness about the methods, rules, regulations and processes used by an organisation in awarding outcomes to employees (Colquitt et al., 2005; Koodamara et al., 2020). Procedural justice may lead to employees' feelings of fair treatment in organisations (Fujimoto & Hartel, 2017; Holland et al., 2013). For that reason, organisations allow employees to raise their opinions with the managers in an open dialogue and express openness about work practices with managers (Fujimoto & Hartel, 2017; Holland et al., 2013). This type of justice has been extensively studied in several contexts, such as leadership, ethics and corruption (Tang et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2016), criminal psychology (Walter, 2019), legitimacy in corporate-compliance behaviour (Rorie et al., 2019), deviant behaviour in business (Dar & Rahman, 2019), and organisational trust in information technology companies (Koodamara et al., 2020).

Recent studies about organisational justice maintain that distributive justice and procedural justice may function as a significant enabler of employee outcomes, particularly job satisfaction in organisations (Hao et al., 2016; Hur & Ha, 2019; Singhry, 2018). More recent studies reveal that job satisfaction is a critical phenomenon in certain environments, such as organisational settings (Tran, 2019), workplace diversity (Hauret & Williams, 2020), health care organisation (Akinwale & George, 2020) and occupation categories (Andrade & Westover, 2019). From an employee's perspective, job satisfaction is obtained after assessing job conditions (e.g., according to different occupation types) and their like or dislike of the job (Robbins & Judge, 2017). For example, if employees like their intrinsic job features (e.g., achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement and growth) and extrinsic job features (e.g., organisation policies, supervisor, coworker, pay, status and security) this attitude may result in higher job

satisfaction. In contrast, if employees dislike some job features, this attitude may bring about a lower job satisfaction (Akinwale & George, 2020; Azman & Mohd Ridwan, 2016; Fabi et al., 2015).

Limited findings from some studies did not show consistently the effect of distributive justice and procedural justice on job satisfaction when power distance is present in organisations (Begley et al., 2002; Lam et al., 2002). At an individual level, power distance refers to the degree to which individuals accept the legitimacy of unequal power distribution or the hierarchical gap between authorities (e.g., managers and supervisors) and subordinates in organisations (McShane & Von Glinow, 2005; Muhammad et al., 2020; Robbins & Judge, 2017). However, power distance has been investigated more at the individual level than at the societal level (Chen et al., 2014; Gu et al., 2018). Power distance consists of two major elements: low power distance and high-power distance. Studies have shown that subordinates with different power distance postures will not have similar degrees of dependency and expectations on leaders (Cole et al., 2013; Daniels and Greguras, 2014). Low power distance means a low interaction gap between leaders and employees (e.g., informal communication and approachable). In a low power distance posture, subordinates expect leaders seek their opinions in work-related issues. This expectation may encourage employees to seek greater role in issues of particular interest to them (Daniels & Greguras, 2014). In contrast, high power distance produces a high interaction gap between leaders and employees (e.g., formal communication and formal relationship) in planning and executing organisational functions (Begley et al., 2002; Daniels & Greguras, 2014). In a high-power distance posture, subordinates expect their leaders to have strong authority over them. This expectation will encourage them to accept the legitimacy of power distance, respect leaders' position and show obedience to leaders, allow leaders to make decisions without consultation with subordinates (Daniels & Greguras, 2014; Leong & Fischer, 2011; Wang & Guan, 2018).

Organisational justice literature discloses that job satisfaction, low power distance, high power distance, distributive justice and procedural justice are different, but highly interconnected constructs. For example, the job satisfaction will be enhanced by perceived distributive justice (i.e., by allocating equitable outcomes with

employee contributions) in a low power distance context (i.e., interaction gap between superiors and subordinates is low) (Begley et al., 2002; Balbeer Singh, 2005). In contrast, the job satisfaction will be enhanced by perceived procedural justice (i.e., allocation of outcomes to organisational members is done fairly) practiced in a high power distance environment (i.e., interaction gap between superiors and subordinates is high) (Begley et al., 2002; Lam et al., 2002). However, past research on the relationship among the variables has neglected the moderating effect of power distance types (Begley et al., 2002; Singhry, 2018).

Researchers argue that this situation may be explained by several factors: first, past studies have much explained the characteristics of power distance, such as meaning, types and practices in organisations (Hao et al., 2016; Haybatollahi & Gyekye, 2015). Second, numerous previous studies have utilised a simple correlation method to evaluate the two types of relationship: a) between job satisfaction and organisational justice (Hao et al., 2016; Abekah-Nkrumah & Atinga, 2013) and b) between job satisfaction and power distance. Analyses of these models, however, examine only the degree of association between the variables of interest (Hauff & Richter, 2015; Taras et al., 2012) but largely ignore the effect size and nature of power distance as a moderating variable (Singhry, 2018; Begley et al., 2002). As a result, the studies' general findings do not help practitioners in recognising the multidimensional views of power distance and practices of fair treatments in different power distance features (Mornah & MacDermott, 2016; Nazarian et al., 2017).

For this study, the context is the state secretary office of Selangor government in Malaysia. This office implements policies made by the state legislative assembly (Hai @ Ibrahim & Nor Fadzlina, 2012). There are four major units of the state secretary's office, namely, corporate unit, internal audit, integrity unit and disaster unit. These units assist the state government in planning and monitoring the implementation of state development affairs (e.g., local authority and economic action council) and management affairs (e.g., chief minister's office, service management, human resource management, and information technology) for the state government and public (Portal Rasmi Kerajaan Negeri Selangor, 2020a). In order to achieve the organisation's objectives, the administrators have incorporated

justice rules in managing various kinds of operations. There are two types of justice rules: distributive justice and procedural justice. Administrators applied distributive justice by giving adequate rewards to enhance employees' feelings of justice. For example, variable pay on top of the base salary is awarded based on equity (e.g., professional skills and competent employees). Benefits are provided based on equality (e.g., health treatment, loan and retirement plan) to all employees. Other psychological rewards are bestowed based on employee needs, that is, family backgrounds (e.g., kindergartens and special aids for disable employees) and occupational categories (e.g., flexible working hours, and quarters for critical positions). With respect to procedural justice, the administrators have complied with the standardised rules and recognised resource allocation methods within the organisation. The latter are related to, among others, working hours, performance related reward, budget allocations and work disciplines and integrity (Laporan Ketua Audit Negara, 2017).

Majority of employees perceived that the administrators are committed to implement fair rules in carrying out state government vision and missions and this perception may have generated their positive work attitudes, especially job satisfaction (Portal Rasmi Kerajaan Negeri Selangor, 2020b). For example, employees show their satisfaction with job through positive attitudes such as enjoying in performing daily work using discretion to solve customer needs and appreciating support received from their organisations. However, the top management has not been very happy with the existing employee achievement. They have taken initiative to enhance the level of employee satisfaction by encouraging the administrators to practise power distance to accomplish their strategic vision.

Currently, administrators have practised both, low power distance and high power distance. For example, many administrators often practise informal relationship (that represents low power distance) when they want to obtain input from employees in upgrading customer satisfaction and empowering the employees to solve daily job problems. Meanwhile, majority of the administrators normally practise formal relationship with the employees (which represents high power distance) when they want to reinforce rules and regulations, such as conducting performance appraisal and monitoring grievances and disciplines. Within the power distance orientations, the level of

employees' perceptions of fairness will be increased and this situation may inspire employees to enhance job satisfaction in the organisation.

The role of power distance as an influential moderating variable has not been thoroughly examined in organisations. This situation motivates the researchers to extend the literature by evaluating the moderating effect of power distance in the relationship between organisational justice and job satisfaction. Specifically, the present study has four primary objectives: firstly, to assess the relationship between distributive justice and job satisfaction. Secondly, to assess the relationship between procedural justice and job satisfaction. Thirdly, to assess the effect of interaction between distributive justice and low power distance on job satisfaction. Fourthly, to assess the effect of interaction between procedural justice and high-power distance on job satisfaction. This paper is structured to discuss five important aspects: literature review, methodology, results, discussion and implications and conclusion.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

The Relationship between Organisational Justice and Job Satisfaction

The role of distributive justice as an important determinant of job satisfaction is consistent with the core idea of Adams' Equity Theory (Adams, 1965). It explains that individuals perceived equity when they think that the outcomes (e.g., resources and/or rewards) that they receive are equitable to their contributions vis-à-vis pay referents (such as, coworkers), and this may reinforce their positive behaviour (e.g., job satisfaction). The essence of this theory has gained strong support from the research articles on distributive justice (Ghran et al., 2020). Many recent studies conducted in different organisational settings have argued that distributive justice is an important precursor to job satisfaction. For example, results from studies by Mahboob and Khan (2017), Singhry (2018), Arab and Atan (2018), Astuti and Ingsih (2019), Purnama et al. (2020) and Ghran et al. (2020) showed that the level of employees' perceptions of distributive justice would be greater if superiors are able to appropriately determine type, level

and/or amount of outcomes (i.e., resources and/or rewards) that are equitable with differing employee contributions and/or capabilities (e.g., amount of experience, responsibility, and performance). Consequently, this perception of justice could lead to greater job satisfaction in the respective organisations. Thus, it is hypothesised as follows:

H₁: Distributive justice has a positive relationship with job satisfaction

The role of procedural justice as an important predictor of job satisfaction is consistent with the principal meaning of procedural justice theory. For example, Tyler (1989) and Tyler et al.'s (1998) Relational Model of Authority in Groups explains that superiors usually interact with group members based on three procedures: (1) concern for respect, courtesy and dignity (standing), (2) concern with honesty and lack of bias (neutrality) and (3) showing authority as trustworthy (trust). Meanwhile, Leventhal's (1980) Fair Distribution Rule suggests that fair distribution of resources may be realised if authorities (superiors) make judgments based on six-structure rules: (1) the consistency rule, (2) the bias-suppression rule, (3) the accuracy rule, (4) the appealable rule, (5) the representativeness rule and (6) the ethicality rule. If the superiors are able to implement such procedures fairly in executing daily work functions, they may elicit employees' positive actions (e.g., job satisfaction). The notion of this theory has received strong support from the research papers in procedural justice (Ray, 2020).

Numerous studies done in diverse organisational samples have proved that procedural justice is an important determinant of job satisfaction. For example, findings from surveys by Mahboob and Khan (2017), Arab and Atan (2018), Ray (2020) and Al-Douri (2020) showed that the level of employees' perceptions of procedural justice would be higher if superiors could use appropriate procedures (e.g., policies, rules and regulations) in allocating outcomes to subordinates who work in different job levels and categories (e.g., salary increment, performance appraisal related reward, and promotion). As a result, this perception of justice could lead to higher job satisfaction in the different organisational contexts. Thus, it is hypothesised as follows:

H₃: Procedural justice has a positive relationship with job satisfaction.

The Relationship between Organisational Justice, Power Distance and Job Satisfaction

Hofstede's (1980) Model of Cultural Dimensions suggests that power distance is a crucial variable of individual difference that may affect the quality of authorities and subordinate relations in organisations (Badu & Asumeng, 2013; Muhammad et al., 2020). Power distance is defined as a gap between superiors and subordinates that arises from unequal power distributions within an organisation. It has two major types: high power distance and low power distance. They are practised at varying degrees in different organisational settings within the same and/or different countries (Daniels & Greguras, 2014; Muhammad et al., 2020). The findings from previous studies have shown that the role of power distance as a moderating variable has investigated leadership styles and individual attitudes and behaviour (e.g., performance, team effectiveness and creativity) within collectivism and individualism cultures (Gu et al., 2018; Purwanto, 2018). According to Purwanto (2018), most organisational culture studies have spotted the level of power distance as an important moderating variable between particular features of organisational justice (e.g., quality of relationship between leaders and subordinates, participative decision making and empowerment) and job satisfaction (Fock et al., 2013; Hauff & Richter, 2015; Rafiei & Pourreza, 2013). In these studies, the role of power distance as a significant moderating variable has not been specifically examined in the relationship between organisational justice and job satisfaction. Lacking such focus may not help academicse and practitioners to understand the inconsistent effect of organisational justice on job satisfaction within different power distance practices (Gu et al., 2018; Haybatollahi & Gyekye, 2015; Muhammad et al., 2020).

A number of previous studies on organic organisations display that a low power distance creates a low interaction gap between superiors and subordinates in a low hierarchical organisation structure (Daniels & Greguras, 2014; Gu et al., 2018). In this power distance orientation, superiors show a number of tendencies, such as allowing active participation, obtaining feedback from subordinates on matters of importance and sharing up-to-date information (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005; Gu et al., 2018). Past organisational power studies, however, have provided a limited evidence to support the role of low power

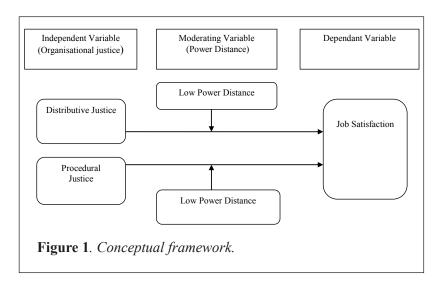
distance as a vital variable in changing the strength of relationship between distributive justice and job satisfaction (Begley et al., 2002; Lam et al., 2002). In addition, studies by Tyler et al. (2000), Begley et al. (2002), Lam et al. (2002), and Balbeer Singh (2005) confirmed that superiors are aware that distributive justice (i.e., matching equitable outcomes with employee contributions) could prompt positive work outcomes if it was practiced in a low power distance context (i.e., low interaction gap between superiors and subordinates). For example, allocation of outcomes (e.g., resources and/or rewards) would be more effective when authorities build closer and favourable relationship with employees and encourage employees' participation in decision making. Consequently, adoption of appropriate type of power distance in executing job functions might lead to higher job satisfaction in the respective organisations. Thus, it is hypothesised as follows:

H₃: The effect of distributive justice on job satisfaction is moderated by low power distance.

The recent inorganic organisation studies acknowledge that a high-power distance is extensively practised in a high hierarchical organisational structure (Hofstede, 1980; Muhammad et al., 2020). Under the high-power distance culture, superiors prefer to exercise autocratic leadership, using their authority to make decisions and retain power through organisational procedures (e.g., rules and regulations). This situation will create autonomy in decision making, a high interaction gap between superiors and subordinates and discourage employees' participation (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005; Wang & Guan, 2018). Some studies about organisational power have provided a little support for the role of high power distance as a dominant variable in changing the strength of relationship between procedural justice and job satisfaction (Begley et al., 2002; Lam et al., 2002). Important outcomes from surveys conducted by Begley et al. (2002), Lam et al. (2002), and Tyler et al. (2000) suggested that superiors are concerned that procedural justice (i.e., fairness in the process and systems of allocating outcomes to organisational members) could enhance positive work outcomes if it was practiced in a high power distance environment (i.e., high interaction gap between superiors and subordinates). For example, the process of allocating outcomes (e.g., resources and/or rewards) to employees would be more effective when authorities are able to establish formal relationship with employees, use objective assessments, and disregard personal relationship with employees in decision making. As a result, application of this power distance in performing day-to-day job operations could create greater job satisfaction in different organisations. Thus, it is hypothesised that:

H₄: The effect of procedural justice on job satisfaction is moderated by low power distance.

The research literature has been consulted as platform to formulate a conceptual framework for this research as illustrated in Figure 1. This framework shows that distributive justice and procedural justice act as the independent variables, low power distance and high-power distance as the moderating variables and job satisfaction as the dependent variable. It explains that the effect of organisational justice on job satisfaction is moderated by power distance.



METHODOLOGY

Research Design

This study used a survey method as the research strategy because it permits the researchers to utilise a cross-sectional research design to collect data. This procedure is believed to help the researchers to collect data that are accurate, high quality and less bias (Creswell, 2012). This study was conducted at the state secretary office of Selangor, Malaysia. The study maintains anonymity of the respondents for confidential reasons. At the initial stage of this study, the items for survey questionnaire were developed based on the organisational justice literature. Next, the back-to-back translation was utilised to translate the survey questionnaire from English language to Malay language thereby enhancing the quality of research results (Creswell, 2012; Sekaran & Bougie, 2016).

Measures

The survey questionnaire consists of three major parts: firstly, the procedural justice (PJUST), which was measured using five (5) items adapted from the procedural justice scale developed by Niehoff and Moorman (1993). This construct was rated using three elements: the performance evaluation, salary increase and promotion. Secondly, the distributive justice (DJUST) was measured using six items adapted from the distributive justice scale developed by Niehoff and Moorman (1993). This construct was rated using three elements: the amount of pay, incentives and pay criteria. Thirdly, power distance consisted of two major types, namely low power distance and highpower distance. Low power distance (LOPD) had three items, whereas high power distance (HIPD) had four items adapted from the organisational justice related power distance literature (Begley et al., 2002; Bochner & Hesketh, 1994; Dorfman & Howell, 1988). LOPD was rated using two elements: treatment and promotion chance. HIPD was rated using two elements: decision and respect. Finally, job satisfaction (JSAT) was measured using four items adapted from the job satisfaction scale developed by Warr et al. (1979). All of the items were rated using a Likert scale, from "strongly disagree/dissatisfied" (1) to "strongly agree/satisfied" (7). This construct was rated using two elements: intrinsic job feature and extrinsic job feature. Respondent characteristics were used as controlling variables because this study emphasised on employee attitudes. This study applied the 7-point scale instead of other points for compelling reasons. Higher points, for instance, seven (7) rather than five (5), increase scale sensitivity (Cummins & Gullone, 2000). The 7-point scale provides a more accurate measure of the respondent's true evaluation (Finstad, 2010) and that the greater extent of reliability measurement (Chang, 1994) and (7 or 11) points therefore tend to enhance reliability and validity (Alwin, 1997). In fact, in one study, the confirmatory factor analysis shows that the best fit is achieved for the 7-point (Oylum & Arslan, 2016).

Sample

The study applied a purposive sampling plan to distribute 300 survey questionnaires to employees who work in different divisions in the select organisation. For the specific aim of this study, this sampling technique was chosen because the head of the organisation had not provided the employee records to the researchers and this limitation could not permit the researchers to apply a random technique in choosing respondents. The respondents gave their consent to participate in this study. Out of the total, 160 (80%) usable questionnaires were returned to the researchers. The sufficiency of this sample is assessed based on the rule of thumb, that is, the number of this sample should be equal to or larger than ten times the largest number of formative indicators in the survey questionnaire and the items for measurement models should have outer loading above the common threshold of 0.70 (Hair et al., 2017). In this study, DJUST and PJUST had ten items; this was the largest number of formative indicators in the instrument. Based on this rule, the sample size needs to be at least 100 respondents. The sample size is sufficient for further analysis. In addition, the level of response bias in the survey questionnaire data was detected using Harman's single factor test (Podsakoff et al., 2003). This test showed that the variance percentage was 47.71, which was lower than 50 percent of the variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003). This proves the absence of bias in the survey method.

RESULTS

According to Hair et al. (2017), survey questionnaire data should be first filtered before they can be used to analyse measurement model and structural equation model. In response to this suggestion, the survey questionnaires that had no missing values were used and items that had suspicious answers, outliers and the values of Skewness and Kurtosis bigger than +/-2.0 were removed from the survey data. Only the survey questionnaire that satisfactorily met the criteria of validity and reliability analyses were used in this study.

Respondents' Characteristics

Table 1 shows that most of the participants were females (61.9%), whose age ranges from 26 to 35 years (53.8%), SPM/MCE holders (18.1%), employees with one to five years of service (43.1%), non-executives (71.9%) and permanent staff (66.9%).

 Table 1

 Respondent Characteristics

Respondent	Sub-profile	Percentage	
Gender	Male Female	61.9 38.1	
Age	18 - 25 years old 26-35 years old 36-45 years old > 46 years old	11.9 53.8 18.1 16.3	
Education	Degree Diploma STPM/Matriculation SPM/MCE/LCE PMR/SRP Others	21.9 20.0 15.0 36.9 3.8 2.5	
Length of service	< 1 year 1 - 5 years 6 -10 years 11-15 years > 16 years	3.1 43.1 25.6 5.0 23.1	
Position	Executive Non-Executive	28.1 71.9	
Type of service	Permanent Contract Others	66.9 25.0 8.1	

Note. SPM/MCE (Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia/Malaysia Certificate of Education) STPM/HSC (Sijil Tinggi Pelajaran Malaysia/Higher School Certificate)PMR/SRP/LCE (Penilaian Menengah Rendah/Sijil Rendah Pelajaran/Lower School Certificate).

Measurement Model

Table 2 shows the results of convergent validity analysis. All items for each construct have loadings greater than 0.70 in their own constructs

within their models and all the constructs have values of average variance extracted (AVE) greater than 0.50 (Henseler et al., 2009). This result confirms that the constructs satisfactorily fulfil the criteria of convergent validity analysis.

Table 2The Results of Factors Loadings and Average Variance Extracted

Construct		Facto	r Loadin	gs		AVE
	PJUST	DJUST	LOPD	HIPD	JSAT	
PJUST						0.772
The procedures used to determine my organisation's pay plan is fair.	0.244					
The procedures used to determine my salary increases is fair.	0.237					
The procedures used to amend my organisation's pay system is fair.	0.211					
The procedures used to evaluate my performance is fair.	0.224					
The procedures used to provide feedback about my performance is fair.	0.222					0.700
DJUST The amount of pay I receive is distributed fairly.		0.230				0.798
The amount of fringe benefits I receive is distributed fairly.		0.228				
The overall reward/ incentive I receive are fairly distributed.		0.240				
I believe that my rewards/ incentives accurately reflect my contributions to the organisation.		0.198				
In performance appraisal, I feel that the ratings that I receive reflect my work effort.		0.221				
LOPD						0.821
I believe that my supevisor's/ officer's actions show that s/he respects me.			0.375			
					(con	tinued)

(continued)

Construct		Facto	r Loadin	gs		AVE
	PJUST	DJUST	LOPD	HIPD	JSAT	
Employees respect supervisors for their positions			0.355			
HIPD						0.813
Employee should not disagree with the management decision.				0.310		
Employees should carry out the requests of supervisor/ officer without questions.				0.302		
Employees should not express disagreements with their supervisors/ officers.				0.263		
Employees should highly respect their supervisors/ officers.				0.231		
JSAT						0.678
I am satisfied with my job.					0.175	
I am satisfied with my supervisor/ officer.					0.191	
I am satisfied with the relationship between the management and employees.					0.192	
I am satisfied with the work culture and management in this organisation.					0.163	
I feel that my job is more interesting than others.					0.156	
I am satisfied with the attentions given to my recommendation.					0.166	
I am satisfied with the chances of promotion in this organisation.					0.168	

Table 3 displays the results of discriminant validity and construct reliability. The values of Heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio of correlation for each construct are less than 0.90 (Hair et al., 2017; Henseler et al., 2009), indicating that the constructs have satisfied the discriminant validity criteria (Hair et al., 2017; Henseler et al., 2009). The values of confidential interval for each construct shown in the parenthesis fall below 1 (Hair et al., 2017), indicating that the constructs have met the standard of discriminant analysis. In addition, the composite reliability value for each construct exceeds 0.80, showing that the constructs have high internal consistency (Nunally & Bernstein, 1994).

 Table 3

 Results of Discriminant Validity and Composite Reliability

Construct		Discriminant Validity				
	PJUST	DJUST	LOPD	HIPD		
PJUST					0.944	
DJUST	0.891				0.942	
LOPD	0.698	0.693 (0.761, 0.923)			0.932	
HIPD	0.722	0.747 (0.565, 0.826)	0.659		0.946	
JSAT	0.890 (0.844, 0.944)	0.861 (0.761, 0.923)	0.857 (0.778, 0915)	0.778 (0.634, 0.852)	0.936	

Note. The values in the parenthesis are the values of confidential interval at 5% and 95%.

Construct Analysis

Table 4 displays the results of variance inflation factor and descriptive statistics. The mean values for the constructs range from 5.3259 to 5.7646, showing that most of the participants viewed the levels of DJUST, PJUST, HIPD, LOPD and JSAT as ranging from high (4) to highest (7).

 Table 4

 Results of Variance Inflation Factor and Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Mean	Standard deviation	Variance inflation factor	
			JSAT	
PJUST	5.3259	1.01878		3.567
DJUST	5.4225	1.13492		3.785
HIPD	5.4266	.87712		1.903
LOPD	5.7646	.87723		2.216
JSAT	5.3927	1.12704		3.567

In contrast, the variance inflation factors' values for the relationship between the independent variable (i.e., DJUST and PJUST) and the moderating variable (i.e., HIPD and LOPD), and between the moderating variable (i.e., HIPD and LOPD) and the dependent variable (i.e., JSAT), are lower than 5.0, revealing that the data have no serious collinearity problems (Hair et al., 2017).

Outcomes of Testing Hypotheses 1 and 2

Table 5 shows that 75 percent in the variance of JSAT are contributed by DJUST and PJUST. The R^2 value is bigger than 0.26 (Cohen, 1988) indicating that this model has large effect. Moreover, the findings of testing the research hypotheses displayed two important results: First, DJUST is significantly correlated with JSAT (B=0.323; t=4.080); therefore, supporting H_1 . Second, PJUST is significantly correlated with JSAT (B=0.557; t=7.655); thus, supporting H_2 . This result confirms that DJUST and PJUST are important precursors of JSAT.

Table 5Results of Testing Hypotheses 1 and 2

Hypothesis	Beta	<i>t</i> -value	Decision	\mathbb{R}^2	Decision
H ₁ : Relationship between DJUST and JSAT	0.323	4.080	Supported	0.747	Large effect
H ₂ : Relationship between PJUST and JSAT	0.557	7.655	Supported		

Note. Significant at * t > 1.65 (One tail testing).

Further, effect size (f²), model fit (SRMR value) and predictive relevance (Q²) are tested. The f² value for the relationship between DJUST and JSAT (0.127) is lower than 0.15 (Hair et al., 2017), revealing that it has medium effect. The value of f² for the relationship between PJUST and JSAT (0.405) is higher than 0.35, revealing that it has large effect. The value of standardised root mean square residual (SRMR) is 0.052, which is lower than 0.1, showing that this model has a good fit. The Q² value for JSAT is 0.466, which is higher than zero, indicating that the model has predictive relevance.

Results of Examining Hypothesis 3

Table 6 shows that the inclusion of DJUST and LOPD in the analysis has explained 78 percent in the variance of JSAT. The R² value is bigger than 0.26 (Cohen, 1988), showing that this model has large effect. However, the results of testing the research hypothesis show that interaction between DJUST and LOPD is significantly correlated with JSAT (B=0.150; t=1.816); thus, supporting H₃. This result confirms that effect of DJUST on JSAT is moderated by LOPD.

Table 6Results of Testing Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis	Beta	<i>t</i> -value	Decision	R ²	Decision
H ₃ : Interaction between DJUST, LOPD and JSAT	0.150	1.816	Supported	0.779	Large effect

Note. Significant at * t > 1.65 (One tail testing).

Moreover, effect size (f^2), model fit (SRMR value) and predictive relevance (Q^2) are tested. The f^2 value for the relationship between LOPD and JSAT (0.476) is more than 0.35, revealing that it has large effect. Besides, the value of standardised root mean square residual (SRMR) is 0.053, which is lower than 0.1, showing that this model has a good fit. The Q^2 value for JSAT is 0.485 (Hair et al., 2017), which exceeds zero, indicating that the model has predictive relevance.

Results of Examining Hypothesis 4

Table 7 shows that the inclusion of PJUST and HIPD in the analysis has explained 77 percent in the variance of JSAT. The R² value is more than 0.26 (Cohen, 1988), showing that this model has large effect. However, the results of testing the research hypothesis show that interaction between PJUST and HIPD is significantly correlated with JSAT (B=0.155; t=2.892); thus, supporting H₄. This result confirms that effect of PJUST on JSAT is moderated by HIPD.

Table 7Results of Testing Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis	Beta	<i>t</i> -value	Decision	\mathbb{R}^2	Decision
H ₄ : Interaction between PJUST, HIPD and JSAT	0.155	2.892	Supported	0.767	Large effect

Note. Significant at * t > 1.65 (One tail testing).

Further, effect size (f²), model fit (SRMR value) and predictive relevance (Q²) are tested. The f² value for the relationship between HILP and JSAT (0.139) is higher than 0.020 and lower than 0.15, revealing that it has medium effect. Moreover, the value of standardised root mean square residual (SRMR) is 0.053, which is lower than 0.1, showing that this model has a good fit. The Q² value for JSAT is 0.485 (Hair et al., 2017), which exceeds zero, indicating that the model has predictive relevance.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATION

The findings of this research show that LOPD acts as an effective moderating variable between DJUST and JSAT. Similarly, HIPD acts as an important moderating variable between PJUST and JSAT. In the context of this study, administrators have been inspired by their stakeholders to implement fair rules in order to enhance employees' feelings of distributive justice and procedural justice. The perception of justice is very crucial to stimulate employees supporting their stakeholders' vision and missions. Sizeable respondents perceived that the levels of DJUST, PJUST, LOPD, HIPD and JSAT are high. This perception reveals two important results: First, the ability of organisations to implement distributive justice in a low power distance environment (e.g., a closer and favourable relationship between managers and subordinates in executing daily work) may strongly inspire employees to enhance their job satisfaction in the organisation. Second, the competency of organisation to practice procedural justice in a high-power distance climate (e.g., strictly using rules and regulations in doing daily job) may strongly stimulate employees to improve their job satisfaction in the organisation.

This study suggests three major implications: theoretical support, the rigor of research methodology and practical impact. Regarding the theoretical support, the findings are consistent with the essence of Hofstede's (1980) Model of Cultural Dimensions, which reveals that applying distributive justice in a low power distance climate (i.e., a low gap between superiors and subordinates) and procedural justice in a high power distance context (i.e., a high gap between superiors and subordinates) have enhanced job satisfaction in organisations. This finding also has supported the power distance-organisational justice literature. Results from the studies by Begley et al. (2002), Lam et al. (2002), Balbeer Singh (2005) and Tyler et al. (2000) disclosed that the ability of superiors to fairly distribute outcomes (i.e., equal allocation of outcomes to organisational members) in a low power distance environment (e.g., practice good human relations, participation, consultation and autonomous in executing daily job operations) may lead to an enhanced job satisfaction in respective organisations.

Furthermore, findings from studies by Begley et al. (2002), Lam et al. (2002) and Tyler et al. (2000) disclosed that the capability of authorities (superiors) to use fair procedures in distributing outcomes (e.g., follow formal organisational policies, rules and regulations) in a high power distance climate (e.g., formal relationships based on organisational hierarchy, rules and regulations, and avoiding favouritism in performing daily job functions) may lead to an enhanced job satisfaction in different organisation settings.

With respect to the rigor of research methodology, the survey data used in this research have met the standard of validity and reliability analyses. This condition may help to produce accurate and reliable research results.

Further, this study presents recommendations that are useful to practitioners in achieving their organisational visions and missions. The first recommendation is made according to the outcomes of importance-performance map analysis (IPMA) (See Figure 2). According to Hair et al. (2017), the IPMA outcomes will guide practitioners to focus on the most important actions that may overcome crucial management problems. The outcomes of IPMA show that the highest performance predecessor for job satisfaction (EJS) is low power distance (CLPD) (0.399) and this has been followed by

distributive justice (BDJ) (72.619), procedural justice (APJ) (72.496) and high power distance (DHPD) (66.366). In contrast, low power distance (CLPD) (0.399) is ranked as most important predecessor for job satisfaction (EJS) and this has been followed by procedural justice (APJ) (0.396), high power distance (DHPD) (0.160) and distributive justice (BDJ) (0.139).

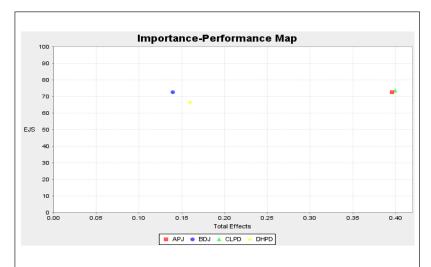


Figure 2. *Importance-performance map analysis.*

The outcomes of IPMA show that there is a high possibility to upgrade the performance of high power distance individuals for managerial action. In order to achieve this aim, the top management should pay more attention to the following set of recommendations: First, top management should promote people-oriented leadership to improve the quality of relationship between administrators and employees. For example, these administrators should allow employee participation in making decisions in carrying out their daily operations and provide emotional support and material aids to those who need. Such actions will increase positive employee perceptions that they are highly appreciated in organisations. Second, the organisation create unnecessary formality and regulations that create many bureaucratic red-tapes in delivery services to public. This can be done by undertaking the following actions: decentralisation, delegation, empowerment, and job simplification. Thirdly, top management

provide managerial coaching and mentoring to junior managers to activate helping behaviour. For example, this training technique will motivate managers and supervisors to improve their human skills (e.g., able to try communication openness, cross-cultural understanding and effective customer relation techniques) in order to achieve their key performance indicators. Finally, the organisation promotes informal and formal relationship to reduce relationship gaps between the management and subordinates (e.g., family day and community relations activities). These suggestions may assist the organisations to accomplish their objectives.

The second set of recommendations is made to strengthen fairness climate that may potentially lead to organisational effectiveness. Some useful thoughts to support this aim are: Firstly, offer suitable type, level and/or amount of monetary and non-monetary payments to fulfil diverse needs of employees. For example, allocate adequate rewards based on job structure (e.g., length of service and/or seniority) that can boost employee loyalty and pleasant workplace. In addition, the management can set aside performance-based rewards (e.g., productivity) that may motivate competent employees to help other colleagues accomplish organisational objectives. Second, review and reassign job duties and responsibilities to match employees' knowledge, skills and attitudes. This practice will reduce job conflicts and lead to increased employee engagement and performance in organisations.

The third set of recommendations is to promote relationship orientation in order to encourage senior management to counsel middle and junior management in understanding and implementing fairness to create high performing work culture. Finally, plan and launch organisational culture training to help all employees understand positive and negative cultural practices, as well as facilitating them to practice positive work cultures. Sharing of common value may guide employees to match power distance types with appropriate situations in solving routine and challenging job problems. All of these suggestions may motivate employees to accomplish their organisations' goals.

However, this research has some methodological and conceptual constraints. First, it has not evaluated the correlation between specific dimensions for the variables of interest. Second, this research has used a cross-sectional research design, which prevents making inferences of causality among the variables of interest. Third, the findings of this research have not explained the similarities and dissimilarities of various respondent perceptions toward the relationship among the variables of interest. Fourth, the research collected its data using purposive sampling plan that may not be able to control respondent bias. Finally, this research was focused only on one state government in Malaysia. These constraints may reduce the ability of the research to generalize the research outcomes to other organisational backgrounds.

Notwithstanding the contribution and limitations, this study desires to provide important guidelines to improve the methodological and conceptual constraints. These guidelines are: First, some important respondent characteristics (e.g., gender, age, education, length of service and position) should be scrutinised because they may show similar and different perceptions of the employees toward the variables of interest. Second, this study should evaluate the correlation between elements of the independent variable, the moderating variable and the dependent variable in order to improve the results of this research. Third, the longitudinal study may be used in future if researchers want to make a comparison between subsamples within the research sample. Fourth, a comparison between this organisation and one or more companies should be encouraged in future study because it may increase our understanding about the effectiveness of power distance level as an important moderating variable in different organisational ownerships. Fifth, a larger sample size should be utilised to represent the studied population. Sixth, the social aspects of organisational justice such as informational justice and interpersonal communication should be considered because they are found to be effective determinants of work outcomes. Finally, other constructs of work outcomes such as organisational citizenship behaviour and organisational commitment should be incorporated in the hypothesised model because they are found to be important outcomes of the interaction between organisational justice and power distance. The significance of these recommendations needs to be further examined in future research

CONCLUSION

The results of testing the research hypotheses reveal that the effect of distributive justice on job satisfaction is moderated by low power distance and the effect of procedural justice on job satisfaction is moderated by high power distance. Thus, the current research and practice within organisational behaviour need to incorporate power distance as crucial dimensions of the organisational justice domain. The outcomes of this study further suggest that the ability of authorities (superiors) to match distributive justice with low power distance and procedural justice with high power distance will strongly induce positive subsequent work outcomes (e.g., commitment, performance, ethics, trust and quality). Therefore, these positive outcomes may help the organisations become an employer of choice in the globally competitive environment.

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