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I Cannot Afford to Quit: The Moderation Role of Continuous Commitment in Reactions to Organizational Injustice.

ABSTRACT

The present study aims to expand knowledge about the relationships between employees' perceptions of justice and employees' behavior by investigating conditions under which these reactions may occur. The purpose of this study is to identify the impact of continuance commitment in moderating the relationships between organizational justice and employee's citizenship behavior, the employee voluntary performance. A sample of 419 private-sector employees was surveyed to test the relationships between the study's variables. The results indicated that continuance commitment is a significant moderator of the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior as continuance commitment moderates the effects of interpersonal, and distributive justice on the employee's citizenship behavior.

Keywords: organizational justice, organizational commitment, continuance commitment, organizational citizenship behavior.

I Cannot Afford to Quit: The Moderation Role of Continuous Commitment in Reactions to Organizational Injustice.

Justice is sought in an organization for a number of reasons. Individuals think of justice evaluation as an indicator of their self-evaluation (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996). Justice is also perceived as an indicator of the ethicality level of the organizations and their management (Folger, 1998). Justice also contributes to reducing the uncertainty, forming expectation, and setting a benchmark for evaluation of decisions (Lind & Van den Bos, 2002). However, there are limitations to understanding what stimulates individuals to perceive injustice. Our knowledge about the psychological process by which one develops a feeling of injustice remains theoretical.

The literature has confirmed the association between organizational justice and a set of employees' behavioral reactions including employees' performance. The three types of employee performance are task performance (Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991), counterproductive behavior (Greenberg, 1990), and organizational citizenship behavior (Moorman, 1991; Skarlicki & Latham, 1996) which all have significant correlations to injustice. In fact, organizational justice was seen as an explanation and predictor of a set of employees' attitudes and behaviors. Meta-analytic studies aimed to document and confirm these relationships between justice and the associated attitudinal and behavioral reactions (for meta-analytic reviews, see Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001; Colquitt, Scott, Rodell, Long, Zapata, & Wesson, 2013).

What the meta-analytic results recommend is that the field will benefit from testing for moderation to these established relationships (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). The same view was communicated by Colquitt and his collogues (2001) who recommend that moderators testing might explain much of the existing variation in these relationships. Few studies tested later for possible moderations. However, some of these studies were mainly exploratory (Colquitt, Scott, Judge, & Shaw (2006) and relied on students-samples (Colquitt, Scott, Judge, & Shaw, 2006; Colquitt, Scott, 2007).

Another unanswered question in the current literature is what links the motivation to each type of reactions. Literature tells us that employee reaction is sometimes motivated by the desire to retaliate (Skarlicki & Folger,1997) or an effort to educate the party who is responsible for the unfair treatment (Heider, 2013), or simply to be a complaint venue (Miler, 2001). In the cases where retaliation is the motivation, the reaction can be shown publicly or privately, whereas in the cases in which educating the offender is the motivation, the reaction has to be noticeable to deliver the lesson to the targeted party. That is also true in the cases in which reactions meant to be a way of protesting, but who would like to protest in the dark? However, how about the cases in which the employee cannot afford the consequences of his reaction? Will that suppress the desire to show the reaction? The formation of theories that linked injustice to reactions would benefit from considering whether the employee can afford the reaction or not, and if showing the reaction can be suppressed by the lack of ability to afford the consequences. That will definitely affect injustice-outcomes relationships.

I Cannot Afford to Quit: The Moderation Role of Continuous Commitment in Reactions to Organizational Injustice.

The present study aims to identify conditions under which the relations between perceptions of justice and outcomes will differ in the workplace setting. This study suggests that employee's perceptions of his/her need to maintain a position within the organization—referred to in the literature as continuance commitment— moderates the relationship between perceptions of justice and the employee voluntary element of performance, organizational citizenship behavior. Since this, the not required performance and is the type of performance that the employee will not be punished for reducing it.

This study contributes to the literature of organizational justice by explaining the strength of the relationships between perceptions of justice organization and its outcomes. In particular, it suggests conditions under which justice perception and employee performance are related. Studying the dynamics of these relationships is important for several reasons.

First, employee task performance is critical to organizational performance. The perceptions of organizational justice are related to employee efficiency and productivity (for review see: Colquitt et al., 2001) aiming to better understand the relationship between organizational justice and employee performance. This will help the organization in improving its decision-making qualities those decisions that impacts perceived fairness.

Second, this study suggests that continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997) moderates the relationship between justice and employee task performance. Continuance commitment refers to the employees' evaluation of the costs associated with exiting the organization, and whether the employee can afford these costs.

Organizational Justice
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Distributive justice. As early as the 1960s, Adams (1961, 1965) introduced the concept of distributive justice in the context of equity theory, as he explained that individuals perceived

I Cannot Afford to Quit: The Moderation Role of Continuous Commitment in Reactions to Organizational Injustice.

justice (or injustice) by comparing their inputs to their outputs. Distributive justice refers to the individuals' perceptions of the fairness of outcomes that they received compared to what others received. According to equity theory (Adams, 1961, 1965), resource allocations should be in proportion to the individuals' contributions, and fairness is judged by whether the perceived ratio of outcomes to inputs matches the ratios of others. Folger (1994) defined distributive justice as an evaluation of the outcome considering the amount of input. The conversation about distributive justice in the workplace was started by Homans (1961) when he discussed workers' concerns about the feeling of unfairness as a cause of worker dissatisfaction. Empirical studies were conducted to test equity theory (for example, Wicker & Bushweiler, 1970) which became a popular topic during that era. According to Greenberg (1990), there were more than a hundred empirical studies conducted to test equity theory in the first decade following the introduction of the theory. Distributive justice is associated with resource allocation standards. According to Leventhal (1976), allocation standards are social norms that are used to make a judgment about the fairness of the distribution of resources. These standards are considered only when fairness is being assessed and not when other factors, such as the efficiency or the appropriateness of the outcome, are assessed (Tornblom, Kazemi, 2015). The reality is that an organization may or may not care about fairness because fairness is not the main object of management. Management seeks productivity, profitability, and efficiency. For many managers, efficiency is more important than fairness, so these fairness standards are not practiced.

distributive justice emphasizes the fact that not all employees are treated equally (Cropanzana, Bowen & Gilliland, 2007) and they should not be. Since there is a clear variation among employees' inputs, this variation should be compensated by variation in outcomes. According to Crapanzano and his colleague (2007), the argument that all employees should receive an equal amount of outcomes is unjust, because when differences in employees' compensation are not taken into account, an employee with a higher amount of input will experience a feeling of unfairness. This judgment is the core of equity theory. The fact that organizations are oriented toward competition, within the organization itself and among other organizations, is a major violation of equality. This is incompatible with common views of social justice where a lack of equality in societies is considered a breach of fairness (Kitching, 2010). Still, we have limitations in defining and measuring one's merit in order to reach an actual "fair" distribution. Distributive justice (Homans, 1961) was explained in equity theory framework (Adams, 1965), it worth noting, however, that equity theory and distributive justice are different concepts. Distributive justice concerns the overall judgment of the fairness of the outcomes in the organization (Stecher & Rosse, 2007), while equity theory focuses on the motivational part of this judgment. Therefore, Equity theory has been used as a means to explain distributive justice.

Procedural justice. Procedural justice refers to the mechanical aspects of the process of achieving fairness in an organization (Kernan, Hanges, 2002; Leventhal, 1976). Fairness is judged by whether resource allocations match appropriate norms (Leventhal, 1976). Greenberg (1990) summarized procedural justice in three words: system satisfaction. In this sense, unlike distributive justice assessment, procedural justice assessment is process-based rather than outcome-based. Procedural justice is assessed using Leventhal's criteria (1980) which are: (1) ensuring procedure stability among people and across time, (2) promising that procedures lack bias, (3) validating the information used in decision-making, (4) identifying some process to

I Cannot Afford to Quit: The Moderation Role of Continuous Commitment in Reactions to Organizational Injustice.

correct flawed decisions, (5) requiring agreements that include standards of ethics and morals, and (6) ensuring individual participation via a group-based approach to decision-making.

The conversation of procedural justice was rooted in legal research. Thibaut and Walker (1975) conducted a series of studies aimed at identifying which legal system is more likely to be perceived as fair by people. In their studies, they evaluated people's satisfaction with the legal systems of the United States and the United Kingdom (the adversary system) and compared their satisfaction with the legal system applied in Europe (the continental system). They concluded that the adversary system was more satisfactory than the continental system. This satisfaction was attributed to the role of the jury in the adversary system. Their approach related people's acceptance of the procedures to their role in influencing their outcomes, which expanded the scope of procedural justice to involve a higher level of participation (Lind &Tyler, 1988; Colquitt et al, 2001). One form of employee participation that organizational scholars studied was a voice as an important factor in forming procedural justice perception (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). Employees tend to accept a decision if they had a say or a voice in the process, even if they did not receive the desired outcome as a result of that process (Shapiro, 1993).

According to Bobocel and Gosse (2015), procedural justice has a great influence on individuals as they care about it, and they observe and evaluate the fairness of procedures regularly. Scholars used a variety of theoretical building to explain why individuals pay attention to procedural justice. Theories were employed to understand the psychological process of forming one's perception of procedural justice. For example, the instrument model by Thibaut and Walker (1976) suggests that procedures have a causal relationship with the outcomes which means a fair procedure yielded a fair outcome. Another model by Lind and Tyler (1988) is built on relational theories. This model argues that employees care about procedural justice because they care about their long-term relationships with the organization. In this sense, procedural fairness is a representation of the authority in the organization. Another model by Lind and Van den Bos (2002) attributes the power of procedural justice to its contribution to uncertainty management. This model proposes that procedural justice has such a ubiquitous effect on individuals because it reduces the uncertainty about the fairness of the outcome they had received. It also aids their judgments about them the organization and its authorities and if they are trustworthy (Folger, 1998). In other words, procedural justice provides some sort of standards or points of reference against which fairness may be compared or assessed.

Procedural justice seems to be the most understood type of justice. Evaluating procedural justice is based on the evaluation of the system itself and the stability of applying the system. The power of procedural justice is not limited to its explanatory power to itself, but to its explanatory power to the other types of justice: distributive justice and interactional justice. One advantage of procedural justice is that employees are likely to accept unfair outcomes if they perceived that the process which resulted in the outcome was fair. The employee is more likely to accept their managers not sharing important information with them if they believe that the system does not allow the managers to do so. Therefore, procedural justice was seen to have an advantage when the outcome or treatment is not desired. Many studies aimed to identify variables that reinforce this advantage. However, research has started wondering if there are cases in which this advantage of procedural justice might be neutralized (Brockner, 2010). This research direction will provide a further theoretical understanding of the procedural justice concept and will challenge the central assumption about the remedial effect of procedural justice.

I Cannot Afford to Quit: The Moderation Role of Continuous Commitment in Reactions to Organizational Injustice.

 Interactional justice. Interactional justice focuses on the significant role of the quality of communication in the organization, as employees should be treated with respect in a way that preserves their dignity (Colquitt et al, 2001). Research indicates that individuals form their perceptions of justice based on factors that are not limited to the quality of organizational procedures (procedural justice) and the outcome quality (distributive justice). Their perceptions are also impacted by several other factors (Greenberg, 1990). Bies and Moag (1986) introduced the idea of interactional justice when they found that individuals assess and seek interactional quality in the applied procedures (Colquitt et al, 2001). Individuals normally expected a level of respect in their exchanges with others, especially those who represent authority in the workplace (Bies & Moag, 1986). A series of studies were conducted to test the theory of interactional justice. They concluded that individuals' perceptions of justice are affected by the quality of treatment they received (Tyler, 1987, 1989; Bies, 1987) and that individuals appreciate receiving explanations for the decisions that affect them. Other studies argued the quality of the social exchange in the organization is improved by engaging the employee in the decision-making process (e.g., Bies, 2005; Bies & Moag, 1986; Bies & Shapiro, 1987). Cropanzano and others (2007) considered interactional justice to be the most achievable type of justice since it only requires a proper sharing of information and avoiding unkindness or rudeness in daily interpersonal interaction. It is the organization's role to ensure that interactional justice is met, and not to rely on the managers' personal judgment about the quality of their own interpersonal exchange in the workplace with their subordinates. Fostering interactional justice can be achieved by imposing clear rules of fair interpersonal communication (Bies & Moag, 1986). Such practices will improve the justice climate and the quality of interpersonal relations in the organization. Judge, Scott, and Ilies (2006) found that perceived injustice was highly correlated with hostility for individuals possessing the trait of hostility. Individuals assume supervisors are representative of the organization and therefore representative of the organization's interactional justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2002).

Greenberg (1993) proposed that interactional justice is better seen in two facets: interpersonal justice and informative justice. He further suggested that interpersonal justice may best be related to distributive justice, as it can control the reaction to the received outcome. He also suggested that the informative part of interactional justice is actually a part of procedural justice since this informative part provides explanations about the procedures. Few scholars adopted this four-dimensional structure without considering the link between interpersonal justice and distributive justice or the link between informative justice and procedural justice (Colquitt et al, 2001).

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Organ (1977) defined organizational citizenship behavior as those work-related activities that are voluntary, and an employee is unlikely to be rewarded for doing them. These activities improve the functioning of the organization when they accumulate (Organ, 1988). Such as helping coworker after hours (Lee & Allen, 2002). Organ (1988) suggested five classes of what may be considered an OCB. These categories include showing altruistic behavior, treating others with courtesy, showing good sportsmanship, being diligent, and having civic virtue. The relationship between organizational justice and citizenship behavior is recognized in the literature. When employees believe that organizations treat them justly, they are more likely to respond in different forms of positive behaviors and to support their organization outside of their required work. The employee will show citizenship behavior through voluntary activities as simple as giving a keeping his office clean or loading the shared printer with sheets. It

I Cannot Afford to Quit: The Moderation Role of Continuous Commitment in Reactions to Organizational Injustice.

 is also expected that employees who perceived unfair organizational treatment will less likely care about benefiting the organization. Employees normally attribute procedural justice to the organization, while they attribute interactional justice to supervisors.

Organizational Commitment

According to Meyer and Allan (1997), the term organizational commitment refers to the degree to which employees identify with an organization, the extent to which they care about its goals and values, and the degree to which they wish to continue to work for the organization. There are three types of organizational commitment: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Affective commitment results from the employee's desire to be part of the organization and to remain a member of the organization. This kind of commitment is developed cumulatively through daily encounters within the organization. Some scholars say it also results from some personality aspects. The second type of commitment is called continuous commitment. This kind of commitment results when the employee determines it is necessary to stay in the organization in order to satisfy needs. The needs can be economic needs or self-actualization needs. The third type of commitment is driven by a sense of obligation, and it is called normative commitment. It is the individual's sense of obligation to stay part of the organization. Mowday et al. (1982) started the conversation about the need to acknowledge different kinds of commitment to the organization. They made a distinction between two types of organizational commitment: attitudinal and behavioral. Attitudinal commitment refers to the process by which employees come to the realization about their relationship with the organization, in terms of their agreement with its goals and values. On the other hand, behavioral commitment refers to the process by which employees display their association with the organization and how they identify themselves with their goals and values through actions and behaviors.

Reichers (1985) raised some concerns about the conceptualization of organizational commitment. One concern was the lack of a unique understanding of this concept in the field. Another concern was the need to distinguish among those to whom an employee directs his or her commitment. Here, an individual will experience different kinds of commitments within the same organization. Reichers suggested using a theoretical framework that considers various targets, or foci, of commitment: commitment to the coworker, commitment to the supervisor, and commitment to the managers.

Unlike that of Richters, Myer and Alan's model (1991) focuses on the drive of the commitment. They observed that organizational commitment had been studied with few limited outcomes, which were job satisfaction and intention to quit. However, many antecedents were suggested for organizational commitment. That indicated the need to consider different sources of commitment. They proposed the dominant three-component framework of organizational commitment: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Backer (1992) operationalized Reichter's theory of multiple foci of commitment and reflected strong support of the concept. The idea of multiple foci of commitment was extended by Bishop and Scott (2000), who added that within the same organization an individual may develop different levels of commitment toward work team and the global organization. They concluded that team commitment is more related to inter-task conflict and satisfaction with a coworker, while organizational commitment was more related to resource conflict and satisfaction with the organization.

I Cannot Afford to Quit: The Moderation Role of Continuous Commitment in Reactions to Organizational Injustice.

Even though organizational commitment has been studied extensively in the field, a majority of the effort has been directed toward a study of affective commitment. Little attention was paid to the other two types. The effect of continuance commitment has not been adequately explored. It is clear that individuals differ in their perceptions of their ability and willingness to lose their jobs. The variation in the perceptions of continuance commitment is in alignment with the variation in individuals' perceived needs.

Continuance commitment. The definition of continuance commitment has been extended by the innovation of two sub-dimensions: (1) the perceived cost, or scarifies, of exiting the organization, and (2) the perceived lack of alternatives (Bentein, Vandenberg, Vandenberghe, & Stinglhamber, 2005). Although these two aspects are distinct concepts, continuance due to high sacrifices and continuance due to lack of alternatives commitment tend to correlate positively. Conceptually, this pattern of a high positive correlation may be best explained by stating that continuance commitment's perception is based on two factors: (1) a holistic calculation of the costs and benefits of remaining or exiting the organization (2) a consideration of the availability of realistic alternatives. Continuance commitment focuses on the acknowledgment of an internal, and perhaps an implicit, cost-benefit analysis that reveals the level of the necessity to continue with a particular organization because of either the economic reliance on the specific position in the organization or the lack of realistic employment alternatives.

For example, employees with a chronic illness that requires expensive treatments are more likely to perceive the need to keep a job in an organization that provides excellent medical benefits. Also, an employee who supports a family of five perceives higher continuance commitment than a person who does not support anyone. The circumstances that create the employee's continuance commitment are many, however, they are not limited to financial needs. Continuance commitment can result from psychological needs, such as the need for affiliation or self-actualization. Therefore, continuance commitment is an individual difference.

The moderation role of continuance commitment.

Continuance commitment refers to how much an employee feels the need to continue to work for the organization due to the lack of work alternatives, and comparable remuneration. Continuance commitment result from two aspects: the perception of the high cost of leaving the organization, and the perception of the lack of alternatives. Therefore, employees with high continuance commitment are more likely to perceive the need to retain their positions, even for those high in exchange ideology which means that a dissatisfied employee may be unwilling to leave the organization. This will make the employee committed to maintaining a membership with the organization even though the employee is not satisfied. When the employee feels that he received unfair treatment, an employee with high continuance commitment will compensate by reducing his voluntary behavior as a reaction to the unfair treatment. This can be explained by looking at the well-established relationship between organizational justices and employee task performance (for review see Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al, 2001) can be altered by the employees' perceptions of their need to keep their jobs. It is apparent that core job performance is the reason why organizations hire employees, and if employees decrease their performance they might be at risk of losing their positions. The risk of altering required job performance may suppress the motivation to restore justice even for those individuals with high exchange ideology. (Scott & Colquitt, 2007). Thus, they are more likely to respond to unfair treatment by reducing their voluntary performance to compensate for experiencing injustice,

I Cannot Afford to Quit: The Moderation Role of Continuous Commitment in Reactions to Organizational Injustice.

whether the source of injustice was distributive, procedural, or interpersonal. Therefore, I propose the following hypotheses:

H1: continuance commitment moderates the relationships between organizational justice (a. distributive, b. procedural, and c. interpersonal) and organizational citizenship behavior toward individuals; the higher continuance commitment the stronger the relationship.

H2: continuance commitment moderates the relationships between organizational justice (a. distributive, b. procedural, and c. interpersonal) and organizational citizenship behavior toward an organization; the higher continuance commitment the stronger the relationship.
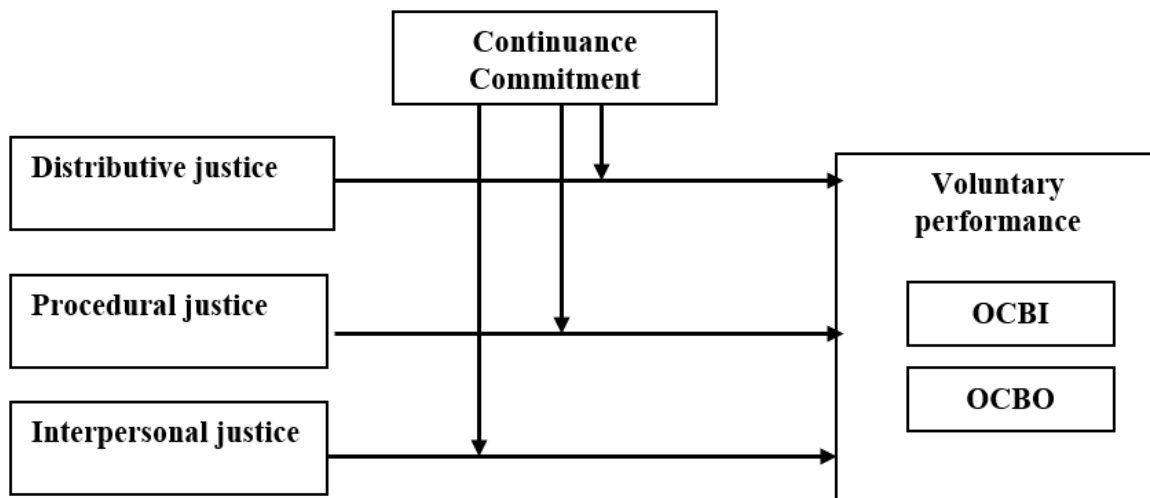

Figure. 1. Conceptual model of continuance commitment as a moderator of justice effect

Methods

Sample

Participants 419 private–sector employees of a pharmaceutical company. The survey was sent to 700 employees, and 59.8% responded. Of those who responded, 62.7% were men (263) and 34.8% were women (146). There were ten participants who preferred not to declare their gender. In terms of education levels, 41% of respondents had an undergraduate degree and 34.3% had a graduate degree. The participants who worked for the organization for more than nine years made up 22% of the sample, while 21% worked for a period ranging from three to five years. 63% of the participants had over 9-years' overall work experience. The study's location was very specialized in its functioning. Therefore, there was no variation in the employees' role in the organization.

I Cannot Afford to Quit: The Moderation Role of Continuous Commitment in Reactions to Organizational Injustice.

Measures

Orgnzational justice This study utilized the scale developed by Colquitt (2001). Respondents rate their responses using a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree). The higher the response value, the higher the amount of a perceived justice.

Continuance commitment. This study operationalized continuance commitment using this revised version of the Meyer, Allen (1997) scale. Respondents rate the six items in Bentein et al (2005) and Vandenberghe' scale (2002) in order to report their need to continue working for their current organization or not. Aspects they considered include the costs associated with leaving their jobs and their knowledge of the availability of alternatives. Items were phrased using the same wording as was written in the original scale. A sample item for testing high cost is, ''I continue to work for this organization because I don't believe another organization could offer me the benefits I have here.'' Another sample for testing lack of alternatives is, "I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization." A seven-point Likert scale was utilized to measure the respondent's continuance commitment ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree); the higher the response value, the higher the commitment.
Organizational citizenship behavior. This study uses a modified version of the original scale developed by Smith et al. (1983) after consulting with the company management who identified applicable items from the provide pool. Accordingly, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted on this scale level to ensure the scale validity and reliability. All OCB items were measured using seven-point Likert-type scales ranging from Never (1) to Always (7); the higher the response value, the higher the citizenship behavior.

Results

Table 1 provide the descriptive statistics and the correlation between the study variables.

Table 1

Correlations and Descriptive Statistics (N = 419)

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Distributive Justice	5.1	1.6	(.97)					
2. Procedural Justice	4.9	1.3	.68**	(.92)				
3. Interpersonal Justice	5.7	1.2	.45**	.562**	(.91)			
4. Continuance Commitment	3.93	1.4	-.11*	.10	-.10	(.83)		
5. OCBI	5.5	1.2	.08	.2**	.27**	-.14**	(.89)	
6. OCBO	5.3	1.3	.16**	.33**	.28**	-.10	.67**	(.90)

n= 419, Reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha) appear in parentheses on the diagonal n/a.
 **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
 *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

 Table 2 shows the moderation testing of the hypotheses. Step1 and step 2 were used to test the direct relationships between justices and orgnzational citizenship behavior, while step three tested We used moderated hierarchical regression followed by a simple slopes analysis to test the

I Cannot Afford to Quit: The Moderation Role of Continuous Commitment in Reactions to Organizational Injustice.

two hypotheses. The variables were mean-center a standardized to improve graph interpretability (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). Table 2 shows the hierarchical regression results that predict the employee voluntary performance. To test the model, in the first step we entered the main effects of distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional. In the second step, the main effect of the suggested moderation, continuance commitment. In the third step, we entered the product term for the interaction between each type of justice and continuance commitment. We, then, examined the change in variance explained R^2 to assess the interaction. As noted in Table 2, the interaction term was significant, with at least one type of justice, providing initial support for the two hypotheses.

Table 2 Moderated regression results

	OCBO			OCBI		
Regression step	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β
1.Distrbutive Justice (DJ)	.130	.130*	.14*	.09	.09*	.14*
Procedural Justice (PJ)			.34*			.16*
Interpersonal Justice (IJ)			.15*			.24*
2. Continuance Commitment (CC)	.138	.009*	-.09*	.103	.02*	.13*
3. DJ X CC	.167	.029*	.99*	.122	.02*	.17
PJ X CC			-.52			.37
IP X CC			.32			.77*

Note: n=419. ΔR^2 values may not sum exactly to R^2 due to rounding.
*$p < .05$. Two-tailed

   To proceed with the moderation testing the moderated hierarchical regression was followed by a simple slopes analysis to test both hypotheses. The tested variables were mean-centered and the to improve graph interpretability (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). For hypothesis 1, at least one interaction term was significant ($\Delta R^2 = .03$, p = .00) we conducted a simple slopes analysis (Aiken & West, 1991) the relationship was graphed at different levels of the moderation. slopes at 1 SD above and below the mean. Figure 2 shows the significant interaction between distributive justice and continuance commitment on organizational citizenship behavior toward the organization. Table 3 shows conditional effect of continuance commitment *(CC)* the relationship between distributive justice and OCBO was significant when continuance commitment was high with the value of 1SD above the mean ($b = .15$, *p-value* < 0.01), and significant when continuance commitment was at the mean level ($b = .08$, *p-value* $= .03$); however it was not significant when continuance commitment was low, 1SD below the mean ($b = 0$, *p-value* $= .84$) indicating a conditional effect of continuance commitment on the relationship. therefore, hypothesis H1was supported.

I Cannot Afford to Quit: The Moderation Role of Continuous Commitment in Reactions to Organizational Injustice.

Figure 2 simple slope of continuance commitment (CC) on the relationship between distributive justice and organizational citizenship behavior toward the organization (OCBO)
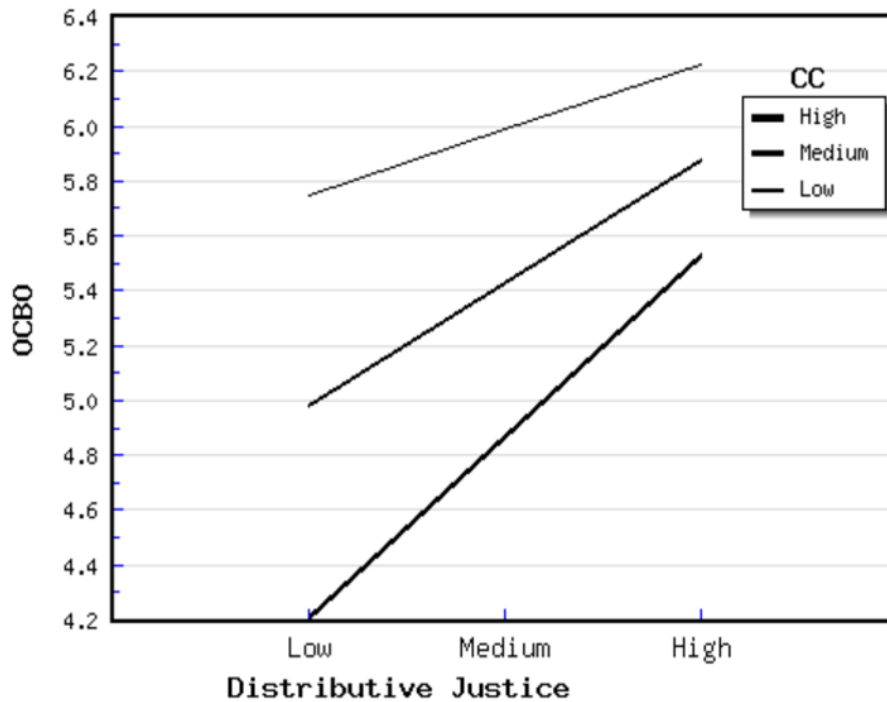

Table 3 Conditional Effects of continuance commitment (CC) on the relationship between distributive justice and organizational citizenship behavior toward the organization (OCBO)

CC	B	P	95% CI	
One *SD* below mean	.02	.63	-.08,	.10
At the mean	.15	< .01	.08,	.23
One *SD* above mean	.28	< .01	.17,	.39

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

I Cannot Afford to Quit: The Moderation Role of Continuous Commitment in Reactions to Organizational Injustice.

Same procedure was employed to test hypothesis 2, at least one interaction term was significant (ΔR^2= .02, p = .00) Figure 3 shows the significant interaction between interpersonal justice and continuance commitment on organizational citizenship behavior toward the individuals. Table 3 shows conditional effect of continuance commitment *(CC)* the relationship between distributive justice and OCBO was significant when continuance commitment was high with the value of 1SD above the mean (b = .38, *p-value* < 0.01), and significant when continuance commitment was at the mean level, (b = .25, *p-value* < 0.01); however it was not significant when continuance commitment was low (b = .13, *p-value* = .05) indicating a conditional effect of continuance commitment on the relationship. therefore, hypothesis H2 was supported.

Table 4 Conditional effects of continuance commitment (CC) on the relationship between interpersonal justice (IJ) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCBI)

EI	B	*P*	95% CI	
One *SD* below mean	.13	.05	-.001,	.266
At the mean	.25	< .01	.160,	.347
One *SD* above mean	.38	< .01	.255,	.496

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

Figure 3 simple slope of continuance commitment (CC) on the relationship between interpersonal justice (IJ) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCBI)
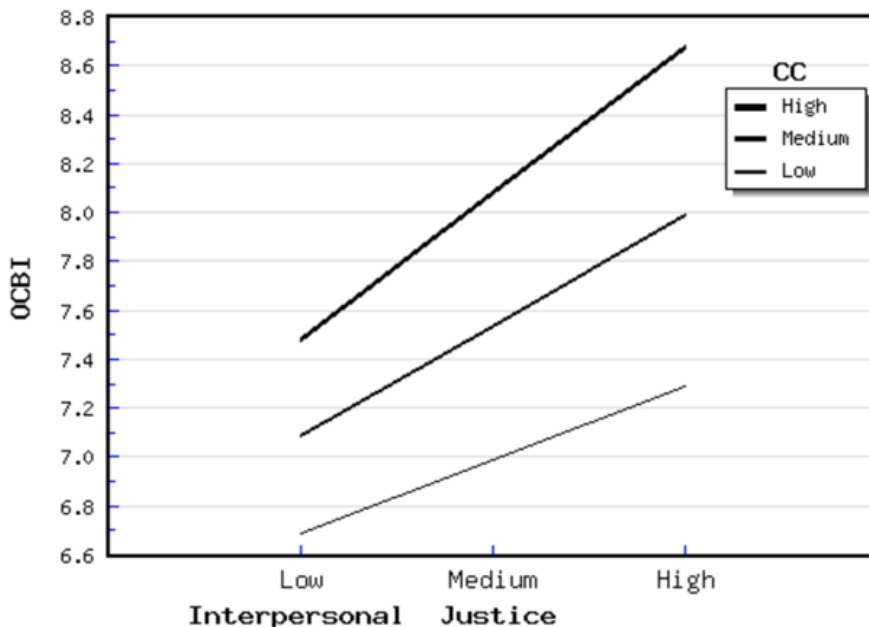
I Cannot Afford to Quit: The Moderation Role of Continuous Commitment in Reactions to Organizational Injustice.

Discussion

This study's findings replicate and extend prior findings in the organizational justice literature. The extension is related to testing how individual differences influenced the severity of the established association between organizational justice and employee voluntary performance. The relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior and validated by Moorman (1991) was replicated in this study. In the current study, all organizational justice types were significant predictors for organizational citizenship (in agreement with the extant literature the two-citizenship behavior focuses—toward individuals and toward the organization—.

The study introduced continuance commitment as a moderator to reactions to injustice. This study provides empirical evidence that continuance commitment is a significant moderator to the previously established relationship between organizational justice and the employee voluntary performance, organizational citizenship behavior. In particular, continuance commitment moderates the relationship between organizational justice (interpersonal justice) and organizational citizenship behavior targeted toward individuals in the organization. In addition, continuance commitment moderates the relationship between organizational justice (distributive justice) and organizational citizenship behavior targeted toward the organization itself.

These findings are not surprising. (Skarlicki & Latham, 1996). According to (Skarlicki & Latham, 1996) employees will address their OCB behavior to those individuals or groups who have treated them fairly as we can see that employee will reciprocate to fair (or not fair) interpersonal treatment, by increasing (or reducing) interpersonal citizenship behavior. If employees perceive that their supervisors are the source of the fair interpersonal treatment, interactional justice, they are more likely to reciprocate the good treatment to their supervisors. However, in cases where fair (or unfair) treatment is attributed to the organization's norms, that OCB behavior will be increased (or decreased) toward the organization itself instead of toward the individuals.

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