

Managerial explanation and fairness in organizational change implementation: Investigating moderators of the explanation effect*

Daejeong Choi[†]

University of Iowa

The present research aimed to investigate the effect of managerial explanation on fairness perception and its boundary conditions. The author defined the explanation effect as the influences of managerial explanations (reframe, mitigation, and inspiration) on fairness and examined both the direct effect and the moderating variables such as subjective uncertainty, social inclusion, and sensitivity to fairness. A survey of employees was conducted (N=483) to test those effects in organizational change implementation. The results of hierarchical regression analysis are summarized as follows. First, providing reframe and inspiration explanation significantly increased change fairness perception, but mitigation decreased. Second, the effect of explanation significantly differed across some conditions, such that (a) providing reframe was more influential to fairness perceptions of those who felt more uncertain, (b) providing mitigation was more influential to fairness perceptions of those who were less sensitive to fairness, and (c) providing inspiration was more influential to fairness perceptions of those who perceived more included. Further, the authors integrated the present findings, discussed the theoretical implications and limitations, and suggested for future research.

Key words : organizational fairness, explanation, uncertainty, social inclusion, sensitivity to fairness

* The present manuscript is based on the author's doctoral dissertation.

† Corresponding author: Daejeong Choi, Department of Management & Organizations, Tippie College of Business, University of Iowa, daejeong-choi@uiowa.edu, 319-335-1814

Managerial explanation is generally defined as verbal strategies that managers or supervisors employ to minimize the apparent severity and to provide accurate information on a decision made or an action taken in the workplaces (e.g., Bies, 1987). According to Folger and Skarlicki (2001), it is very important for managers to provide adequate explanations, particularly for overcoming tough times such as organizational changes. Organizational changes carry uncertainties by necessity. When people confront with uncertain circumstances, they tend to engage in sense-making behaviors. Providing adequate information, managerial explanation is very useful to reduce uncertainty and to make the proposed changes predictable, and therefore it might be one of the most critical components for successful change management.

Based on more than in previous organizational justice theories (e.g., uncertainty management theory, Van den Bos & Lind, 2002; fairness theory, Folger & Cropanzano, 2001), the present research is to examine the role of managerial explanation in fairness perception. In despite of these amassed works, there are unresolved questions. Most obviously, as noted by Collie, Bradley, and Spark (2002), much of the previous organizational fairness research has been focused on the structural components of procedures such as voice and accuracy (e.g., Van den Bos, 2001; Van den Bos & Lind, 2002; Van den Bos, Wilke, Lind, & Vermunt, 1998). Indisputably, these components are essential to fair procedures

(for more detail, see Leventhal, 1980), however, concentration “on just one element of procedural justice leaves open the issue of whether their findings can be generalized to other contexts and forms of procedural justice” (Collie et al., 2002, p.546). Provided some recent research (e.g., Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt & Shaw, 2005; Kernan & Hanges, 2002), it is reasonable that a four-factor model of organizational fairness (distributive, procedural, interactional, and informational) provides a better fit to empirical data than a two-factor (distributive and procedural) and a three-factor model (distributive, procedural, and interactional), which is identical with Greenberg’s (1993) conceptualization.

For these reasons, the present study focuses on social aspects of procedures, rather than structural. Although social influence on organizational fairness perception has been noted as important, little research has been conducted on this subject (for some exceptions, see Goldman & Thatcher, 2001). Notably, social information processing (SIP) theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978) emphasized the role of informational and social environment to which people continuously have to adapt, and this argument seems more and more worthy to be considered in the era of organizational change. In the line with this reasoning, the first aim of this study is to examine the explanation effect, defined as the effect of managerial explanation provision on change fairness. The second is to investigate moderating variables of explanation

effects, that is, when and to whom explanation provision has more or less impact on an individual's fairness perception.

Managerial explanation

Previous comprehensive works (e.g., Bobocel & Zdaniuk, 2005; Shaw, Wild, & Colquitt, 2003) showed that psychological researchers have dealt with three or four types of explanations (e.g., Bies, 1987; Schlenker, 1980; Sitkin & Bies, 1993; Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1999). Bobocel and Zdaniuk (2005) recently introduced four types of explanations (excuses, justifications, apologies, and denials) can be distinguished along two dimensions (negativity of consequences and personal accountability). However, denials would be rarely used especially when managers explain the planned organizational change, and further three components (e.g., outcomes, external factors, and normative belief) have been more frequently investigated by social account and explanation researchers. Therefore, based on these previous findings, the present study suggests three types of explanations as follows.

First, reframe is that the actor provides more favorable outcomes to alter outcome perceptions or reduce the severity of consequences (e.g., 'if a new policy is introduced, the level of employees' payment would increase.') This form is known as referential accounts (Bies, 1987), reframing accounts (Sitkin & Bies, 1993), or would reducing explanations (Gilliland, Groth, Baker,

Dew, Polly, & Langdon, 2001). Second, mitigation is an explanation that the actor intends to alleviate one's personal responsibility for negative outcomes (Bobocel & Zdaniuk, 2005). This type of explanation is similar with excuse, which is well-researched type of explanation (Bobocel & Zdaniuk, 2005); Bies (1987) named as a causal account, Sitkin and Bies (1993) called as a mitigating account, and Gilliland et al. (2001) labeled a could-reducing explanation. An excuse moves a recipient's attention from internal factors, such as competences, to external situations gave an account-giver no choice but do so (e.g., 'I had to keep the rules, it's a policy.'). Third, inspiration is an explanation employed by an actor in order to acknowledge one's own accountability, but to alleviate the negativity of actions or outcomes. Similarly, this explanation has been studies as justification (Bobocel & Zdaniuk, 2005), as ideological accounts (Bies, 1987), as exonerating accounts (Sitkin & Bies, 1993), or more direct form, should reducing explanations (Gilliland et al., 2001). In such type of explanation, a manager intends to justify the actions in question by which placing on higher normative values (e.g., 'this change program should be implemented in order to have competitive superiority.').

Hypotheses

Although some previous studies (e.g., Colquitt

& Chertkoff, 2002; Gilliland, 1994) have reported insignificant explanation effects, many studies have shown that organizational events which are explained by organizational authorities tend to be perceived as adequate and sincere ones (Shaw et al., 2003). Further, managerial explanations are more critical particularly when outcome or what explained is unfavorable than favorable. For the effect of managerial explanations, Bobocel and Zdaniuk (2005) provided good summaries and five general descriptions: (a) explanations are dominantly used by leaders to enhance fairness perceptions and alleviate negative consequences, such as conflicts; (b) both direct and indirect receivers are considered, in other words, receivers comprise not only those who are affected by the event, but also third-party observers such as general public; (c) the effects of multiple explanations are not examined, instead, the explanation (typically an excuse or justification) provision has been manipulated at laboratory, or employees' perceptions whether the events in questions was explained adequately has been measured in fields; (d) the effectiveness of managerial explanations has been supported in many contexts from specific decisions to organizational policies, such as a selection decision (Gilliland, 1994), pay cut (Greenberg, 1990), and change implementation (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1999); and (e) despite of many previous results supporting the efficacy of explanations, there has been little concerns with underlying psychological processes, why, how,

and when the effects occur.

A number of previous researchers (e.g. Bies & Shapiro, 1987, 1988; Daly & Geyer, 1994; Gilliland & Beckstein, 1996; Greenberg, 1990) have proven the effects of the explanations. Remarkably, Gilliland et al. (2001) examined the dynamics of three types of explanations (would, could, should reducing explanation) in the context of applicants' reactions to rejection letters, and Shaw et al.'s (2003) meta-analytic review showed that excuses and justifications had significant influences on fairness judgments and other responses and an excuse was more influential to positive responses. These two studies are of particular significance in that they attempted to connect the explanation effects with fairness theory (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001). According to Shaw et al.'s (2003) meta-analysis, explanation provision had significant relationships with both procedural and distributive justice; uncorrected $r=.26$ and $.21$, and corrected $r=.32$ and $.26$, respectively.

To understand what the explanation effect is, fairness theory (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001) has often been referred (e.g., Gilliland et al., 2001; Shaw et al., 2003). Fairness theory emphasizes the role of counterfactual thought. When people judge fairness (in fact, many cases are judging unfairness), they tend to determine accountability. For example, when employees are noticed a new policy, they might want to know who is accountable for the change. One of the most possible ways to determine accountability is to

compare what happened with what might have been, in other words, counterfactuals. Therefore, counterfactuals might be closely related with accountability judgments.

Given this perspective, it is plausible that deciding accountability is the essential element of fairness judgment process. Providing explanations is closely related with accountability. For example, providing mitigating explanations (i.e., excuse) impacts ‘could counterfactual,’ and exonerating explanations (i.e., justifications) affects ‘should counterfactuals’ (Shaw et al., 2003). As Gilliland et al. (2001) also noted, “because the nature of fairness and unfairness perceptions is related to the generation of these counterfactuals (Would, Could, and Should), explanations that reduce the likelihood of generating a counterfactual thought to increase perceptions of fairness.” (p.672).

Further, fairness theory postulated that one element of accountability was “the existence of an unfavorable condition” (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001, p.3). From this theory, it is worthwhile to mention that organizational change events are aversive things enough to hold someone or some entity accountable. Since the vast majority of organizational changes are accompanied with uncertainty which is unfavorable to employees, providing explanation for changes may be an important precursor to fairness perceptions.

Providing explanations also impacts other response variables (Bobocel & Zdaniuk, 2005). Shaw et al.’s (2003) result showed that

explanation provision had significant relationships with in-role cooperative responses (e.g., task motivation), extra-role cooperative responses (e.g., organizational citizenship behavior, OCB), active retaliation responses (e.g., theft), passive retaliation responses (e.g., anger, and blame), withdrawal responses from existing relationship (e.g., turnover), and withdrawal responses from potential relationship (e.g., intention to engage in future business); uncorrected $r = .24, .28, -.32, -.35, -.07,$ and $-.14$, respectively.

Hypothesis 1. Providing explanations (reframe, mitigation, and inspiration) will increase change fairness.

As much of explanation research has reported inconsistent results, it is necessary to investigate its boundary conditions of explanation effects (Bobocel & Zdaniuk, 2005; Shaw et al., 2003). Identifying the boundary conditions is so important. In theory-building processes, moderator variables give researchers information on a certain relationship is engendered more or less strongly in what situations (i.e., who-where-when, Whetten, 1989). Colquitt and Greenberg (2003) and Colquitt, Greenberg, and Scott (2005) also emphasized the role of a moderator in consolidating and integrating organizational justice theory.

In this regard, Shaw et al.’s (2003) meta-analysis tested three moderators: the type of explanations, outcome favorability, and

contexts (instrumental, relational, and moral virtue). The results of meta-analytic regression are summarized as follows. Explanations were more effective when provided as excuses than justifications (the correlation difference was .14), tended to be more effective when outcome favorability had been low than high (the correlation difference was .09), and more effective when instrumental, relational, and moral virtue impact had been high than low (the correlation differences were .14, .11, .23, respectively).

On the other hand, Bobocel and Zdaniuk (2005) conducted a qualitative review on the moderators of explanation effects. From their work, there are some factors that influence on the efficacy of explanations, such as characteristics of the message (e.g., contents), the actor (e.g., sensitivity), the receiver (e.g., cognitive processing strategy), and the social context (e.g., the nature of the past relationship). Outcome favorability and severity also had been frequently studied by many researchers (e.g., Brockner, Konovsky, Cooper-Schneider, Folger, Martin & Bies, 1994; Daly, 1995; Greenberg, 1994). Among contextual variables such as importance of the event to be explained (e.g., Brockner, DeWitt, Grover, & Reed, 1990), recipients' expectation (e.g., Colquitt & Cherkoff, 2002), and uncertainty (e.g., Cobb & Wooten, 1998) have been examined as boundary conditions of explanation effects.

Further, the effectiveness of Korean employees

seems to be more affected by social contexts than those of western people. Choi and Park's (2006) meta-analytic review suggested that the mean correlation between distributive, procedural, and interactional justice after correcting measurement errors was .60, higher than those suggested by Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) and Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, and Ng (2001), which were .51 and .54 respectively. Furthermore, such outcomes as trust and relationship are shown to be more related to interactional justice than procedural justice. There were also significant variances in those relationships, and thus it implicates that there could be the boundary conditions of fairness judgment of Korean employees. In light of this perspective, the present study examines when explanations have more beneficiary effects. Explanation might become more critical when people are more motivated to determine accountability of something happened, in other words, to know why it occurred, how important it is, and what the next will be.

When people feel uncertainty, they want to reduce the feeling. Van den Bos and Lind (2002, p.5) argued that "uncertainty can be threatening, and people generally feel a need either to eliminate uncertainty or to find some way to make it tolerable and cognitively manageable." The feeling of uncertainty is closely related to confidence or control belief that one can manage things in predictable ways (Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Uncertainty keeps

people from controlling events in lives, makes people have the belief that they cannot deal with any event, and eventually leads to one's low self-esteem. From this perspective, the issue of uncertainty has been discussed with regard to self-esteem and self-enhancement (e.g., Hogg, 2000; Hogg & Mullin, 1999). As people prefer to maintain positive self-evaluation and to avoid negative self-evaluation, it is natural to strive for reducing subjective uncertainty (Reid & Hogg, 2005).

Uncertainty reduction theory (Hogg, 2000) provides good explanations for the reason why people effort to reduce their subjective uncertainty. He argued that social identity processes are motivated not only by group and self-enhancement concerns but also by self-conceptual uncertainty reduction (Hogg, 2005). Based on social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and self-categorization theory (Turner, 1987), Hogg and his colleagues (e.g., Hogg, 2000; Hogg & Abrams, 1993; Hogg & Mullin, 1999) have investigated subjective uncertainty reduction, which is an important motive in self-categorization and in-group identification. When people define themselves by a prototype associated with their in-group, what and how people should do would be certain. In line of this reasoning, self-categorization is an effective subjective uncertainty reducing strategy (Hogg, 2005; Hogg & Mullin, 1999; Reid & Hogg, 2005).

Uncertainty management theory (e.g., Lind &

Van den Bos, 2002; Van den Bos & Lind, 2002) particularly emphasizes the role of fairness to reduce uncertainty. As mentioned earlier, fair process effects were strengthened when employees feel uncertainty (e.g., Daly & Geyer, 1994; Kirkman, Shapiro, Novelli, & Brett, 1996; Novelli, Kirkman, & Shapiro, 1995). For example, Kernan and Hanges (2002) also insisted that communication between employers and employees (i.e., providing explanations) is an antecedent of informational justice and one of the most important components in implementing organizational changes.

Under changing circumstances, employees may ask "why" questions in order to make sense of the planned organizational change (Weick, 1995). If the change is not predictable or controllable, then employees might experience uncomfortable and perturbed states. Thus, it can be postulated that people's fundamental needs for control will be salient. Given this aversive nature of uncertainty, it is predicted that uncertainty engender would, could, and should counterfactuals (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001), and thereby leading employees to be more attentive to accountability-related information to reduce their feeling of uncertainty. Therefore,

Hypothesis 2. The effect of providing explanations (reframe, mitigation, and inspiration) on change fairness will be stronger when employees are uncertain than when certain.

There has long been a general consensus about that an individual's behavior is resulted from interactions of personal characteristics and situational constraints. Also, individuals engage in fairness-related information processing in an active not passive manner (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1999). Recent psychological theories, such as stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) model (Larsen, 2000) and affective events theory (AET; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), described that personal dispositions (e.g., personality, value, and orientations) would moderate the relationships between stimulus (e.g., organizational fairness-related event) and organisms (e.g., fairness perceptions).

In organizational fairness and relevant fields, however, little research has been conducted on fairness-related individual characteristics (for exception, Colquitt, Scott, Judge, & Shaw, 2006; Liao & Rupp, 2005; Schmitt & D'órfel, 1999). Liao and Rupp (2005) have suggested that the remained research question was what the moderating roles of individual differences would be in fairness perceptions and fairness effects and tested that the interactive effects of justice climates and justice orientation on outcome variables. Further, Colquitt et al. (2006) noted that individual differences such as personality might impact on one's perception of being treated and subsequently shape the cognitive and behavioral reactions. They postulated that three personality variables such as trust propensity, risk aversion, and trait morality would significantly

moderate the effects of distributive, procedural, and international justice, and most of their predictions were supported.

In addition to these two studies, some organizational fairness researchers also have dealt with the issue of individual differences in fairness effects, such as equity sensitivity (Huseman, Hatfield, & Miles, 1987), delay of gratification (Joy & Witt, 1992), justice sensitivity (Schmitt & D'órfel, 1999), exchange ideology (Witt, Kacmar, & Andrews, 2001), belief in just world (Hagedoorn, Buunk, & Van de Vliert, 2002), self-construal (Brockner, De Cremer, Van den Bos, & Chen, 2005) and negative affectivity (Skarlicki, Folger, & Tesluk, 1999). These characteristics may make people more attentive to fairness issues, more involved in fairness-related information processing, and more reactive to fairness perceptions (Colquitt et al., 2006). Further, Colquitt and Greenberg (2003) suggested that justice moderators might have influences on justice effects through two psychological mechanisms: expectation and sensitivity. They also noted that previous researchers have used more narrow variables "as indirect indicators of justice expectation and sensitivity" (p.195). In line of these reasoning, the present study postulates sensitivity to fairness as a more proximal moderator of fairness effects.

Referred previous studies (e.g., Rupp, Bryne, & Wadlington, 2003; Schmitt, Gollwitzer, Maes & Arbach, 2005), sensitivity to fairness is defined as an individual trait characterized by

making oneself be more sensitive to psychological processes such as perceiving, interpreting, and reacting to fairness-relevant events. The present study suggests that sensitivity to fairness would moderate the effects of reframe, mitigation, and inspiration explanations for the following three reasons.

First, it is plausible that some people are more attentive to the fairness issues for reasons that they internalize the belief that an authority should treat their employees in a fair manner. It is regarded as a duty or responsibility of an authority. This postulation is largely based on existing theories such as fairness theory (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001), the deontological model of justice (Cropanzano, Goldman, & Folger, 2003) and moral virtue model (Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel, & Rupp, 2001). Given that fairness judgment process might be regarded as “discrepancy monitoring” (Gillespie & Greenberg, 2005, p.202), individuals who are more normatively sensitive to fairness may have higher levels of expectations that they should be treated fairly, and may be more inclined to assess accountability of the target events. It is highly probable, therefore, that this inclination to accountability assessments makes them be more attentive to fairness-related events such as managerial explanations. Other previous moderators such as belief in just world (Hagedoorn et al., 2002) and justice orientation (Rupp et al., 2003) reflected these normative dispositions as well.

Second, individuals may be also attentive to fairness issues for reasons such as cognitive tendencies to compare themselves with others or deservingness. This cognitive comparison process, which has been well known as social comparison process (Festinger, 1954), had given a primary but significant contribution to the history of organizational fairness (Colquitt, Greenberg, & Zapata-Phelan, 2005). Further, Gibbons and Buunk (1999) have suggested that the desire to know about self through social comparison is universal. A number of researchers (e.g., Festinger, 1954; O’Neill & Mone, 1998; Taylor, Wayment, & Carillo, 1995) also have implicitly and explicitly suggested that certain types of individuals might have been more inclined to engage in social comparison processes. In organizational justice research, this premise also may have been known by equity sensitivity construct (e.g., Huseman et al., 1987) and its validation (e.g., Kings & Miles, 1994). Equity sensitivity, drawn from social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954) and equity theory (Adams, 1964), proposed that “individuals react in consistent but individually different ways to both perceived equity and inequity because they have different preferences for (i.e., are differently sensitive to) equity” (Huseman et al., 1987, p.223). In line of these reasoning, the present study expects that all individuals are not equally devoted to the discrepancy-monitoring process (i.e., social comparison process). Individuals who are more cognitively sensitive to fairness may

adhere to the norm of reciprocity and be more entitled to compare themselves with others or deservingness.

Finally, given that fairness judgment process can be considered affective and subjective, it is reasonable that people are sensitive to fairness issues for reasons such as affective responsiveness when they are faced with fairness-relevant events. Related to this premise, previous theories such as AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) and appraisal theories (e.g., Lazarus, 1991) emphasized emotional experiences in the workplaces, and found that justice or injustice could lead to experience strong emotions (e.g., Cropanzano, Weiss, Suckow, & Grandey, 2000; Weiss, Suckow, & Cropanzano, 1999). Larsen's (2000) S-O-R model suggested that there could be individual differences in sensitivity to stimulus and response regulation, and thus people might show different reactions to affective events. With regards to fairness judgment, sensitivity to befallen injustice (SBI; Schmitt, 1996) included intensity of anger as one of four indicators, and Van den Bos, Maas, Waldring, and Semin (2003) also found that both outcome fairness and procedural fairness effects were stronger among participants high in affective intensity, and concluded that "individuals' propensity for affect intensity is an important determinant of how people react toward fair and unfair events (p.166)." Therefore,

Hypothesis 3. The effect of providing

explanations (reframe, mitigation, and inspiration) on change fairness will be stronger among employees who are more sensitive to fairness issues than those who are less sensitive.

Dynamics brought by social standing between employees are omnipresent in the workplace (Kramer, 1996). In distributive and procedural fairness domains, one of the most crucial factors is social standing (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler & Lind, 1992; Van Prooijen, Van den Bos & Wilke, 2002, 2004a, 2005). Van Prooijen et al.'s (2004a) review on the relationship between procedural fairness and status concluded that "people's position in groups may activate fairness concerns" (p.54). They also described that previous justice researchers have categorized the concept of status into two broad ways: intragroup status (e.g., Tyler, DeGoey, & Smith, 1996) and inclusion (e.g., Lind, 2001a; Lind & Tyler, 1988; Van Prooijen, Van den Bos, & Wilke, 2004b). The former is the same as Tyler and Blader's (2002) concept of comparative standing and based on social comparison of objective criterion such as performance differences between employees, while the latter, Tyler and Blader (2002) called as autonomous standing, is based on internal standards such as values, and norms.

Lind (2001a) insisted that the differences between two conceptualizations were very important and more important element was inclusion, not status. Van Prooijen et al. (2004a)

have suggested that “procedural fairness effects were influenced by the absence versus presence of status information, and not by participants’ status position (high vs. average vs. low). ... Thus, whereas procedural fairness effects did not differentiate between various levels of relative intragroup status, procedural fairness effects did differentiate between included versus excluded individuals (p.52).” For example, Van Prooijen et al. (2004b) revealed that the voice effect (participants who were given a chance of voice reacted more positively) was stronger in the inclusion condition than in the control condition. Therefore, the present study focuses on social inclusion rather than social status.

Davidson and Friedman (1998) noted that people in less-powerful groups, such as people in minority groups, “might interpret accounts and react to injustices in ways that are systemically different from others” (p.156). They conducted four studies, and the results of three studies revealed “persistent injustice effect” that is a proclivity for individuals who have experienced many injustices to perceive injustice continuously despite the use of an excuse explanation. In more detail, lesser changes in fairness perceptions (the differences between pre-account and post-account ratings) were engendered in black participants group than white participants. Further, persistent injustice effect was pronounced when the victim of injustice was black, when the levels of participants’ racial identification were high, and when participants experienced

more injustices (for more detail, see Davidson & Friedman, 1998).

Shapiro and Kirkman (2001) called this phenomenon as “anticipatory injustice” and emphasized the role of expectation in fairness judgment process. They interpreted that minority group members would expect more injustice in the future than majority group members and thus “this different set of expectations may explain why, despite a justice-enhancing intervention, perceptions of injustice persisted among the black managers but not the white managers” (p.158). With respect to expectation, previous organizational researchers (e.g., Bell, Ryan, & Wiechmann, 2004; Bell, Wiechmann, & Ryan, 2006; Sharpire & Kirkman 1999, 2001) have took the role of justice or injustice expectations into accounts as well. For example, Shapiro and Kirkman (1999) have found distributional justice expectations for organizational changes were negatively related to employee resistance, and Bell et al. (2006) have found applicants’ justice expectations significantly influenced their test-related attitudes and perceptions of testing process.

In addition, Van den Bos (2002) and Van den Bos, Burrows, Umphress, Folger, Lavelle, Eaglestone, and Gee (2005) have suggested that fair process effects could be interpreted as assimilation effects and thus earlier experiences of fair or unfair treatments by others might be important to understand fair process effects. For example, subordinates who have experienced fair

treatments by their supervisors would show more positive subsequent reactions (e.g., accepting of new management programs) than those who have experienced unfair treatments. Therefore, consistent with persistent injustice effect (Davidson & Friedman, 1998) and anticipatory injustice (Shapiro & Kirkman, 2001), the explanation effect will be more beneficiary in included members than excluded members as follows.

Hypothesis 4. The effect of providing explanations (reframe, mitigation, and inspiration) on change fairness will be moderated by social inclusion, such that it will be stronger in employees with high level of social inclusion than those with low level of social inclusion.

Method

Samples

A total of 582 employees from multiple companies participated in a survey. As a control variable, this study measured an employee's perception of organizational change pressure. Two items were developed; "In my organization, organizational change is emphasized," and "there have been a lot of the changes implemented in my organization" ($\alpha=.76$). The responses indicating low change pressure (below 3.0) were excluded from analyses in order to provide more

implicative results to organizational change implementation. As a result, a total of 483 responses were used, and about seventy percent of respondents ($N=338$) were men, and thirty percent ($N=145$) were women. The mean age was 37.2 years ($SD=7.69$).

Measures

Subjective uncertainty

Subjective uncertainty was measured by summing responses to procedural uncertainty and outcome uncertainty. Procedural uncertainty scale was adapted from George and Zhou's (2001) 4-item scale of unclear means. Outcome uncertainty scale was also adapted from George and Zhou's (2001) 5-item scale of unclear ends. Self-ratings were made on 5-point Likert-type scale (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree) whether they agreed or disagreed with each statement. After dropping three items which had low item-total correlations (below .30), procedural uncertainty was measured by three items (Cronbach's $\alpha =.65$) and outcome uncertainty was also measured by three items (Cronbach's $\alpha =.73$). In order to investigate the effect of overall uncertainty, the mean score of two subscales was used in the analyses.

Sensitivity to fairness

To develop a measure of an individual's sensitivity to fairness, starting point was a review of relevant studies. For example, Schmitt

et al. (2005) developed 30-item scale for justice sensitivity from three perspectives (victim, observer, beneficiary). Similarly, Rupp et al. (2003) named this type of characteristic as justice orientation and developed Justice Orientation Scale, which consisted of 16 items to measure the internalization and attentiveness. According to the definitions described earlier, the present study developed 5 statements for each component. Sample items are as follows; “On all occasions, an employee should be treated fairly by an authority” (normative sensitivity to fairness), “I am sensitive to whether I am approved of as more competent person than my peers” (cognitive sensitivity to fairness), and “I cannot help repressing my anger when treated unfairly by an authority” (affective sensitivity to fairness). Ratings were made on 5-point scale (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree). After dropping three items which had lower item-total correlations than .30, each component has four items. The Cronbach’s reliability coefficients (α) of normative, cognitive, and affective sensitivity to fairness were .66, .65, and .78, respectively. The mean score of three subscales was used for testing hypotheses.

Social inclusion

To measure social inclusion, I developed a self-report two-item scale of which sample item is “I feel included as a member of my work team.” Ratings were made on 5-point scale (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree), and

Cronbach’s α was .65.

Change explanation

Change explanation was measured by a self-report 15-item scale. Based on previous research on social account (e.g., Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1999; Sitkin & Bies, 1993) and influence tactics literatures (e.g., Furst, 2004; Yukl & Seifert, 2002), I measured three dimensions of change explanations.

Reframe, in which a manager elucidates more favorable outcomes to alter outcome perceptions or to reduce the severity of consequences, was measured by five items such as “My supervisor emphasizes that participating to the organizational change will be beneficial to have a good career record.” Inspiration, in which a manager intends to reframe actions in question by which placing on higher normative values, was measured by five items such as “My supervisor appeals that team members have the very persons to take responsibilities for the proposed change.” Mitigation, in which a manager intends to mitigate one’s accountability for the change by emphasizing external situations which gave no choice but do, was measured by five items such as “My supervisor emphasizes that external conditions make us have no choice but implement the change”

Ratings were made on 5-point scale (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree). After dropping two items which had low item-total correlations (below .30), reframe explanation was

measured by four items (Cronbach's $\alpha = .78$), mitigation explanation was measured by four items (Cronbach's $\alpha = .73$), and inspiration explanation was measured by five items (Cronbach's $\alpha = .83$).

Change fairness

Twelve items were adapted to the organizational change from Colquitt's (2001) scale. Each of four factors (distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational fairness) was measured by three items, and ratings were made on 5-point scale (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree). After dropping one item from interpersonal fairness scale, which has a low item-total correlation (below .30), The Cronbach's reliability coefficients (α) of

distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational fairness were .90, .67, .80, and .84, respectively. The mean score of four subscales was used for testing hypotheses.

Result

Table 1 presents descriptive statistics for and intercorrelations among the key variables. It is notable that there were significant correlations between reframe and inspiration explanation and change fairness ($r = .32$ and $.31$, respectively) but mitigation explanation was not significantly correlated with change fairness ($r = .06$, $p > .50$). This indicates that mitigation might not be an effective way to explain the planned change in

Table 1. Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, and Intercorrelations for Study Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Age	-								
2. Gender	-.36***	-							
3. Reframe	.02	-.01	-						
4. Mitigation	.11*	.01	.42***	-					
5. Inspiration	.04	-.03	.42***	.55***	-				
6. SU	-.01	.03	-.01	.12**	-.02	-			
7. SF	-.09	.15**	.19***	.32***	.22***	.30***	-		
8. Inclusion	.20***	-.19***	.23***	.16**	.22***	-.07	.14**	-	
9. Fairness	.08	-.10*	.32***	.06	.31***	-.26***	-.11*	.27***	-
M	37.2	-	3.47	3.59	3.57	3.29	3.65	3.47	3.03
Sd	7.69	-	.63	.57	.59	.58	.46	.68	.58

Note. SU=subjective uncertainty; SF= sensitivity to fairness

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

the workplace, and will be discussed later with the result of following regression analysis.

To test hypotheses, hierarchical regression analyses were conducted for three explanations (reframe, mitigation, and inspiration) and three moderators (subjective uncertainty, inclusion, and sensitivity to fairness). I controlled gender and age at the first step, entered three explanation variables with centered at the second step and

three moderators at the third step, and then finally entered all nine hypothesized two-way interaction terms at the fourth step. The results of hierarchical regression analyses are shown in from Table 2. As shown in Table 2, reframe and inspiration explanation significantly increased change fairness ($\beta=.29$, $p<.001$, and $\beta=.31$, $p<.001$, respectively, see Step 2). Specially, however, mitigation did have a negative effect

Table 2. Result of Hierarchical Regression Analysis on Change Fairness

	Step1	Step2	Step3	Step4
Gender	-.07	-.06	-.02	-.01
Age	.07	.09	.04	.04
Reframe (A)	-	.29***	.26***	.22***
Mitigation (B)	-	-.25***	-.17**	-.15**
Inspiration (C)	-	.31***	.27***	.25***
Uncertainty (D)	-	-	-.18***	-.19***
Sensitivity to Fairness (E)	-	-	-.14**	-.12**
Inclusion (F)	-	-	.16***	.15***
(A) x (D)	-	-	-	.22***
(B) x (D)	-	-	-	-.02
(C) x (D)	-	-	-	-.07
(A) x (E)	-	-	-	.05
(B) x (E)	-	-	-	-.12*
(C) x (E)	-	-	-	-.05
(A) x (F)	-	-	-	-.05
(B) x (F)	-	-	-	.04
(C) x (F)	-	-	-	.15**
ΔR^2	.01*	.17***	.08***	.06***

Note. Figures in table are standardized regression weights.

* $p<.05$, ** $p<.01$, *** $p<.001$

on fairness ($\beta = -.25, p < .001$, see Step 2). Put together, reframe and inspiration explanation increase an employee's change fairness perception but mitigation explanation decreases. Thus, Hypothesis 1 received some partial support.

For the interactive effect, there are three significant effects (see Step 4): (a) the effect of reframe explanation on change fairness was moderated only by subjective uncertainty ($\beta = .22, p < .001$); (b) the effect of mitigation explanation on change fairness was moderated only by sensitivity to fairness ($\beta = -.12, p < .05$); and (c) the effect of inspiration explanation on change fairness was moderated only by inclusion ($\beta = .15, p < .01$).

Figure 1 shows the significant interaction between reframe explanation and subjective uncertainty as an illustration (Aiken & West, 1991). The simple slopes of the regression lines reveal following: when employees felt relatively certain, reframe explanation was not significantly related to change fairness perception ($b = .05$, n.s.), but when employees perceived high uncertainty, there was a significant and positive relationship between reframe explanation was not significantly related to change fairness perception ($b = .46, p < .001$). For the interactive effect of mitigation explanation and sensitivity to fairness, as depicted in Figure 2, change fairness perception was positively influenced by mitigation only when employees were not sensitive to fairness ($b = .20, p < .05$), however, when they were highly sensitive, mitigation explanation was

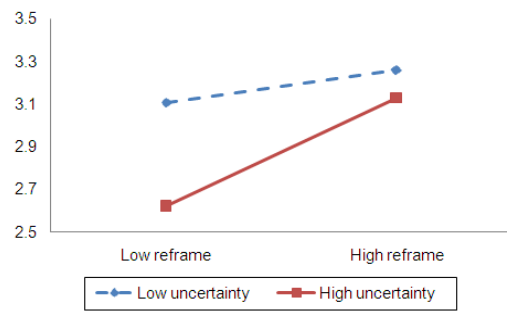


Figure 1. Fairness perceptions predicted by the two-way interactions between reframe explanation and subjective uncertainty

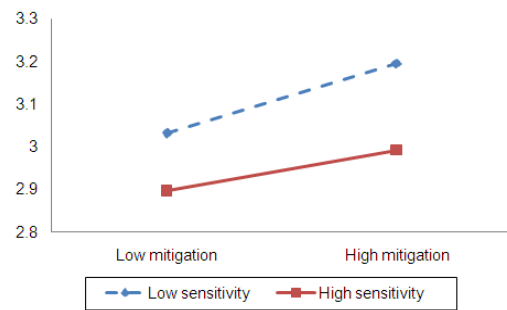


Figure 2. Fairness perceptions predicted by the two-way interactions between mitigation explanation and sensitivity to fairness

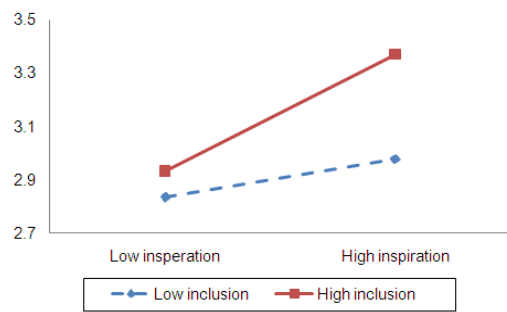


Figure 3. Fairness perceptions predicted by the two-way interactions between inspiration explanation and inclusion

not significantly related to change fairness ($b=.04$, n.s.). This is contradicted to Hypothesis 3, and thus will be discussed in later. Figure 3 shows the significant interaction between inspiration explanation and social inclusion, such that change fairness perception was positively influenced by inspiration when employees feel included ($b=.41$, $p<.001$), but when they did not perceive included, inspiration explanation was not related to change fairness ($b=.09$, n.s.).

Discussion

The matter of how fairly employees are treated has received a great amount of attentions. The present study was performed to apply the previous theoretical evidences to the context of organizational change. Taken the previous theories and the present findings together, social information conveyed by managerial explanations is differently used in making fairness judgments. The present study hypothesized three boundary conditions: the situation (uncertainty), the individual characteristic (sensitivity to fairness), and the quality of relationship (social inclusion). Empirical findings for these prepositions extend previous research domains which have mainly focused structural components such as procedural accuracy and voices. Further, given that inconsistent results between meta-analyses in Korean studies (Choi & Park, 2006) and in

Western studies (Cohen-Carash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001), the present research can provide some theoretical implications for these inconsistencies.

The present findings can be summarized as follows; (a) providing explanations for the planned organizational change did increase employees' fairness perceptions, particularly reframe and inspiration explanation significantly increased fairness perception, but mitigation had a negative effect, and (b) the effect of explanation significantly differed according to some conditions, such that employees who faced with uncertain work situation were more responsive to reframe, employees who were less sensitive to fairness were more sensitive to mitigation, and employees perceived more included were more susceptible to inspiration explanation. These results not only extend the previous findings that uncertainty heightened the efficacy of the structural components of procedures such as voice and accuracy (e.g., De cremer & Sedikides, 2005; Van den Bos, 2001) to the social components, but also support perceived injustice effect (Davison & Friedman, 1998) and anticipatory injustice effect (Shapiro & Kirkman, 2001).

From these results, here are also some findings that should be further discussed. First, the negative effect of mitigation should be discussed. Although mitigation was positively but non-significantly correlated with change fairness, it was negatively related to change fairness when

simultaneously considering the effects of other two explanations (reframe and inspiration). This evidence might be understood from Bobocel and Zdaniuk's (2005) suggestion that the effects of multiple explanations might be different from those of explanation provisions. In other words, the effect of the specific type of explanation could be decomposed into the general effect (e.g., whether an authority provided explanations for the planned change) and the specific effect (e.g., idiosyncratic nature of the specific explanation). To understand the idiosyncratic nature of mitigation explanation, trustworthiness of an authority and social entity should be considered. In line of this reasoning, the negative effect of mitigation could be interpreted as follows. Trustworthiness reflects its relevant components such as sincerity, adequacy, and respect (e.g., Bies & Moag, 1986; Bies & Shapiro, 1987, 1988; Bobcel & Zdaniuk, 2005; Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler & Lind, 1992). Given that mitigation overemphasized the external factors and underemphasized the responsibility of an authority, it fails to convey any sense of being respected and adequately explained, thereby leading employees to cast doubt on an authority's trustworthiness. Therefore, trustworthiness might play a mediating role in the relationship between explanation and fairness (cf. Lewicki, Wiethoff, & Tomlinson, 2005). This interpretation should be investigated in future research.

Second, uncertainty enhanced the efficacy of

explanations. As suggested earlier, uncertainty increases accountability, thereby leading people more susceptible to explanations. Since this hypothesized interaction was supported for reframe, it is plausible that employees under uncertain situations such as undergoing change implementation might become concerned about their future outcome favorability. In other words, Accountability may be associated with concerns for control (Thibaut & Walker, 1975), and uncertainty makes this concern salient. Reframe may reduce felt accountability by conveying information about future outcomes. This finding is also meaningful from uncertainty management theory (Lind & Van den Bos, 2002) and fairness heuristic theory (Lind, 2001b). From those perspectives, uncertainty facilitates substitutability effect which means people use outcome (or procedural) information to judge procedural (outcome) fairness (Lind, 2001b). Related to this notion, outcome information conveyed by reframe explanation could form fairness expectation which leads to fairness. The more uncertain the organizational context is, the more critical outcome information is to form fairness expectation and consequent fairness. Future research needs to explore why outcome information matters in such uncertain situations as organizational change implementation. It would be also interesting to examine the mediating role of fairness expectation in "outcome-process substitution process."

Third, social inclusion information also affected

the effectiveness of inspiration explanation, supporting Davidson and Friedman's (1998) persistent injustice effect. As described earlier, trustworthiness is a good substitute for anticipating and judging fairness, and moreover, resolve the dilemmas whether to cooperate for the successful organizational change or not. From this perspective, the past experiences in reciprocal exchanges may be an important precursor. Furthermore, given that inspiration is one component of transformational leadership, the quality of relationship such as social inclusion could be a possible moderator of transformational leadership effectiveness. For example, employees who have experienced the higher quality of relationships might endorse and support change needs and goals provided by transformational leaders. Thus, it would be interesting to explore the effects of social exchange relationships such as leader-member exchange (LMX) on the effectiveness of transformational leadership while implementing organizational changes.

Fourth, an unexpected form of interaction was founded. It is previously predicted that high sensitivity would strengthen the explanation effect. However, the result showed that high sensitivity would weaken the effect of mitigation explanation, such that people who are less sensitive to fairness were more responsive to mitigation. This unexpected result also can be inferred from cognitive processing strategy. People high in sensitivity can be assumed that they process the information conveyed by

explanation in more controlled and systemic manners, on the other hand, those who low in sensitivity process in more automatic and heuristic manners. If it is true, higher sensitivity people may be more influenced by the quality of argument, whereas lower sensitivity people may be influenced by the message itself such as number of arguments (Bobocel & Zdaniuk, 2005). Another possibility is that sensitivity to fairness might be negatively related to trust propensity which is a dispositional tendency to trust others (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). Given that mitigation emphasizes the external factors such as an organizational policy or authority, trust or trustworthiness could be critical to the effectiveness of mitigation explanation. Related to this, Colquitt et al. (2006) described that "individuals low in trust propensity will more frequently engage in careful analysis of justice information" (p.114). In their study (Table 2, p.120), trust propensity was negatively correlated to equity sensitivity ($r=-.23$) and SBI ($r=-.32$), which indicates employees high in sensitivity to fairness might be more suspicious. This interpretation is needed to be further tested. For example, it would be interesting to examine that suspicious people are normatively, cognitively, or affectively sensitive to fairness issues. Future research need to integrate the roles of individual differences (e.g., Big five personality and general mental ability) in fairness judgment and consequent social exchange relationships.

Two caveats of this study should be addressed. One concerns that the present study does not provide much evidence supporting the expected relationships. As previously noted, the present study suggested that each of three explanation effects would be moderated by all three hypothesized variables: the situation (uncertainty), the individual characteristic (sensitivity to fairness), and the quality of relationship (social inclusion). However, only three interactions were significant, and thus further empirical evidence is needed to verify those relationships. The other concerns that this research did not predict the specific interactions between explanations and moderators. For example, it's not clear why uncertainty enhances only the reframe effect and why social inclusion improves only the inspiration effect. Although the possible mechanisms such as outcome favorability and trust propensity are discussed, empirical findings and theoretical integration are still needed to understand such an idiosyncratic nature of each explanation effect.

There are also possible limitations. First, it is important to note that all variables were measured from a single source, which in turn might raise concerns about common method bias. For example, it might be unclear to what extent three explanations are distinct and whether certain type of explanation can have dominant effect over other types. Second, because all variables were analyzed only in an individual level, the results do not reflect

cross-level effects. For example, uncertainty and managerial explanation would be measured and analyzed at the team-level or organization-level. Also, inherent features of Korean cultures such as relationships between a manager and employers should be considered. Future research should comprise and validate the multilevel model of change implementation. Third, explanation effects were tested on only one dependent variable (i.e., fairness) and thus further evidences on a variety of individual and organizational outcomes are necessary. This limitation is related with that providing explanations might evoke such a general positive attitude toward the changes as satisfaction, and thus future research should include other attitude variables and compare the effect size on each dependent variable with that on change fairness. In addition to these, as individual characteristics such as ability, personality, and motivation are not included, further empirical evidences on the incremental validity of explanations are required.

In conclusion, this study aimed to integrate and extend previous research evidences by examining fairness judgment processes (i.e., explanation effect). Future research may benefit from examining the other contextual and individual variables and from investigating accountability and trustworthiness more explicitly. Furthermore, the present findings are necessary to be integrated by such related variables and theories as leadership and organizational change.

References

- Adams, J. S. (1965). *Inequity in social exchange*. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 2, pp. 267-299). New York: Academic.
- Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. (1991). *Multiple Regression: Testing and interpreting interactions*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Bell, B. S., Ryan, A. M., & Wiechmann, D. (2004). Justice expectations and applicant perceptions. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 12*, 24-38.
- Bell, B. S., Wiechmann, D., & Ryan, A. M. (2006). Consequences of organizational justice expectations in a selection system, *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*, 455-466.
- Bies, R. J. (1986, August). Identifying principles of interactional justice: The case of corporate recruiting. In R. J. Bies (Chair), *Moving beyond equity theory: New directions in research on justice in organizations. Symposium conducted at the meeting of Academy of Management, Chicago*.
- Bies, R. J. (1987). The predicament of injustice: The management of moral outrage. In L. L. Cummings & B.M. Staw (Eds.) *Research in Organizational Behavior*, (Vol. 9, pp. 289-319). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Bies, R. J., & Shapiro, D. L. (1987). Interactional fairness judgments: The influence of causal accounts. *Social Justice Research, 1*, 199-218.
- Bies, R. J., & Shapiro, D. L. (1988). Voice and justification: Their influence on procedural fairness judgment. *Academy of Management Journal, 31*, 676-685.
- Bobocel, D. R., & Zdaniuk, A. (2005). How can be explanations be used to foster organizational justice? In J. Greenberg, & J. A. Colquitt. (Ed.), *Handbook of organizational justice* (pp.469-498). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Brockner, J., De Cremer, D., Van den Bos, K., & Chen, Y. (2005). The influence of interdependent self-construal on procedural fairness effects. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 96*, 155-167.
- Brockner, J., DeWitt, R. L., Grover, S., & Reed, T. (1990). When it is especially important to explain why: Factors affecting the relationship between managers' explanations of a layoff and survivors' reactions to the layoff. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 26*, 389-407.
- Brockner, J., Konovsky, M., Cooper-Schneider, R., Folger, R., Martin, C. L., & Bies, R. J. (1994). The interactive effects of procedural justice and outcome negativity on the victims and survivors of job loss. *Academy of Management Journal, 37*, 397-409.
- Choi, D., & Park, D-G. (2006). The dimensionality and consequences of organizational Justice: A Meta-analytic review of Korean studies. *Korean Journal of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 19*, 193-227.
- Cobb, A. T., & Wooten, K. C. (1998). The role social accounts can play in a "justice intervention." *Research in organizational change and development, 11*, 73-115.

- Cohen-Charash, Y., & Spector, P. E. (2001). The role of justice in organizations: A meta-analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 86, 278-321.
- Collie, T., Bradley, G., Spark, B. A. (2002). Fair process revisited: Differential effects of interactional and procedural justice in the presence of social information. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 38, 545-555.
- Colquitt, J. A. (2001). On the dimensionality of organizational justice: A construct validation of a measure. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86, 386-400.
- Colquitt, J. A., & Chertkoff, J. M. (2002). Explaining injustice: The interactive effect of explanation and outcome on fairness perceptions and task motivation. *Journal of Management*, 28, 591-610.
- Colquitt, J. A., & Greenberg, J. (2003). Organizational justice: A fair assessment of the state of the literature. In J. Greenberg (Ed), *Organizational Behavior: The State of the Science* (2nd ed.), (pp.165-210). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Colquitt, J. A., & Shaw, J. C. (2005). How should organizational justice be measured? In J. Greenberg, & J. A., Colquitt, (Eds.), *Handbook of Organizational Justice* (pp. 113-152). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Colquitt, J. A., Conlon, D. E., Wesson, M. J., Porter, C. O. L. H, & Ng, K. Y. (2001). Justice at the millennium: A meta-analytic review of 25 years of organizational justice research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86, 425-445.
- Colquitt, J. A., Greenberg, J., & Scott, B. A. (2005). Organizational justice: Where do we stand? In J. Greenberg, & J. A. Colquitt. (Ed.), *Handbook of Organizational Justice* (pp.589-620). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Colquitt, J. A., Greenberg, J., & Zapata-Phelan, C. P. (2005). What is organizational justice? A historical review. In J. Greenberg, & J. A. Colquitt. (Ed.), *Handbook of Organizational Justice* (pp. 3-56). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Colquitt, J. A., Scott, B. A., Judge, T. A., & Shaw, J. C. (2006). Justice and personality: Using integrative theories to drive moderators of justice effects. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 100, 110-127.
- 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, 164-209.
- Cropanzano, R., Goldman, B., & Folger, R. (2003). Deontic justice: The role of moral principles in workplace fairness. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 24, 1019-1024.
- Cropanzano, R., Weiss, H. M., Suckow, K., & Grandey, A. A. (2000). Doing justice to workplace emotions. In N. Ashkanasy, C. Hartel, and W. Zerbe (Eds.), *Emotions at workplace* (pp.49-62). Westport, CT: Quorum Books.
- Daly, J. P. (1995). Explaining changes to

- employees: The influence of justifications and change outcomes on employees' fairness judgment. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 31, 415-428.
- Daly, J. P., & Geyer, P. D. (1994). The role of fairness in implementing large-scale change: Employee evaluations of process and outcome in seven facility relocations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 15, 623-638.
- Davidson, M., & Friedman, R. A. (1998). When excuses don't work: The persistent effect among Black managers. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 43, 154-183.
- De Cremer, D., & Sedikides, C. (2005). Self-uncertainty and responsiveness to procedural justice. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 41, 157-173.
- Festinger, L. (1954). A theory of social comparison processes. *Human Relations* 7, 117-40.
- Folger, R., & Cropanzano, R. (2001). Fairness theory: Justice as accountability. In J. Greenberg, & R. Cropanzano (Eds.) *Advances in Organizational Justice* (pp. 1-55). Palo Alto, CA: Stanford Press.
- Folger, R., & Skarlicki, D. P. (2001). Fairness as a dependent variable: Why though times can lead to bad management. In R. Cropanzano (Eds.) *Justice in the Workplace: From Theory to Practice*. (Vol. 2, pp. 97-118). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Furst, S. A. (2004). *An expectancy-based model of managerial influence tactics and employee commitment to organizational change*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of North Carolina.
- George, J. M., & Zhou. J. (2001). When openness to experience and conscientiousness are related to creative behavior: An interactional approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86, 513-524.
- Gibbons, F. X., & Buunk, B. P. (1999). Individual differences in social comparison: Development of a scale of social comparison orientation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 76, 129-142.
- Gillespie, J. Z., & Greenberg. J. (2005). Are the goals of organizational justice self-interested? In J. Greenberg, & J. A. Colquitt, (Eds.), *Handbook of Organizational Justice* (pp.301-328). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Gilliland, S. W. (1994). Effects of procedural and distributive justice on reaction to a selection system. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79, 691-701.
- Gilliland, S. W., & Beckstein, B. A. (1996). Procedural and distributive justice in the editorial review process. *Personnel Psychology*, 49, 669-691.
- Gilliland, S.W., Groth, M., Baker, R.C., Dew, A.F., Polly, L.M. & Langdon, J.C. (2001). Improving applicants' reactions to rejection letters: An application of fairness theory. *Personnel Psychology*, 54, 669-703.
- Goldman, B. M., & Thatcher, S. M. B. (2002). A social information processing view of organizational justice. In Gililand, S., Dirk, S., & Skarlicki, D (Ed.), *Emerging Perspectives on Managing Organizational Justice* (pp. 103-130). Greenwich: Information-Age.

- Greenberg, J. (1990). Organizational justice: Yesterday, today, and tomorrow, *Journal of Management*, 16, 399-432.
- Greenberg, J. (1993). The social side of fairness: Interpersonal and informational classes of organizational justice. In R. Cropanzano (Eds.). *Justice in the workplace: Approaching fairness in human resource management*. (pp.79-103). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Greenberg, J. (1994). Using socially fair treatment to promote acceptance of a work site smoking ban. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79, 288-297.
- Hagedoorn, M., Buunk, B. P., & Van de Vliert (1998). Opening the black box between justice and reactions to unfavorable outcomes in workplace. *Social Justice Research*, 11, 41-57.
- Hogg, M. A. (2000). Subjective uncertainty reduction through self-categorization: A motivational theory of social identity processes. *European Review of Social Psychology*, 11, 223-255.
- Hogg, M. A. (2005). Uncertainty, social identity and ideology. In S. R. Thye & E. J. Lawler (Eds.), *Advances in group processes*, (Vol.22, pp.203-230). New York: Elsevier.
- Hogg, M. A., & Abrams, D. (1993). Towards a single-process uncertainty-reduction model of social motivation in groups. In M. A. Hogg & D. Abrams (Eds.), *Group motivation: Social psychological perspectives*, (pp. 173-190). London: Harvester Wheatsheaf.
- Hogg, M. A., & Mullin, B. A. (1999). Joining groups to reduce uncertainty: Subjective uncertainty reduction and group identification. In D. Abrams & M. A. Hogg (Eds), *Social Identity and Social Cognition* (pp.249-279). Oxford: Blackwell.
- Huseman, R. C., Hatfield, J. D., & Miles, E. W. (1987). A new perspective on equity theory: The equity sensitivity construct. *Academy of Management Review*, 12, 222-234.
- Joy, V. L., & Witt, L. A. (1992). Delay of gratification as a moderator of the procedural justice-distributive justice relationship. *Group and Organization Management*, 17, 297-308.
- Kernan, M.C., & Hanges, P. J. (2002). Survivor reactions to reorganization: Antecedents and consequences of procedural, interpersonal and informational justice. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 916-928.
- King, W. C., Jr. and Miles, E. W. (1994). The measurement of equity sensitivity, *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 67, 133-142.
- Kirkman, B. L., Shapiro, D. L., Novelli, L., & Brett, J. M. (1996). Employee concerns regarding self-managing work teams: a multidimensional perspective, *Social Justice Research*, 9, 47-67.
- Kramer, R. M. (1996). Divergent realities and convergent disappointments in the hierarchic relation: Trust and the intuitive auditor at work. In R. M. Kramer & T. R. Tyler (Eds.), *Trust in organizations: Frontiers of theory and research* (pp. 216-245). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Larsen, R. J. (2000). Toward a science of mood

- regulation. *Psychological Inquiry*, 11, 129-141.
- Lazarus, R. S. (1991). *Emotion and Adaptation*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Leventhal, G. S. (1980). What should be done with equity theory? New approaches to the study of fairness in social relationships. In K. Gergen, M. Greenberg, & R. Wills (Eds.), *Social exchange: Advances in theory and research* (pp.27-55). NY: Plenum.
- Lewicki, R.J., Wiethoff, C. and Tomlinson, E. (2005) What is the role of trust in organizational justice? In J. Greenberg, & J. A. Colquitt. (Ed.), *Handbook of Organizational Justice* (pp.247-270). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Liao, H., & Rupp, D. E. (2005). The impact of justice climate and justice orientation on work outcomes: A cross-level framework. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90, 242-256.
- Lind, E. A. (2001a). Thinking critically about justice judgments. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 58, 220 - 226.
- Lind, E. A. (2001b). Fairness heuristic theory: Justice judgment as pivotal cognitions in organizational relations. In Greenberg, J., & Cropanzano, R. (Eds), *Advances in Organizational Justice*. (pp.56-88). Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Lind, E. A., & Tyler, T. R. (1988). *The social psychology of procedural justice*. New York: Plenum.
- Lind, E. A., & Van den Bos, K. (2002). When fairness works: Toward a general theory of uncertainty management. In B. M. Staw & R. M. Kramer (Eds.), *Research in Organizational Behavior*, (Vol. 24, pp. 181-224). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Mayer, R. C., Davis, J. H., & Schoorman, F. D. (1995). An integrative model of organizational trust, *Academy of Management Review*, 20, 709-734.
- Novelli, L., Kirkman, B. L., Shapiro, D. L. (1995). Effective implementation of organizational change: An organizational justice perspective, *Trends in Organizational Behavior*, 2, 15-36.
- O'Neil, B. S., & Mone, M. A. (1998), Investigating equity sensitivity as a moderator of relations between self-efficacy and workplace attitudes, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83, 805-816.
- Reid, S. A., & Hogg, M. A. (2005). Uncertainty reduction, self-enhancement, and social identification. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 31, 804-817.
- Rousseau D, & Tijoriwala S. (1999). What's a good reason to change? Motivated reasoning and social accounts in organizational change. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 84, 514 - 528.
- Rupp, D. E., Byrne, Z. S., & Wadlington, P. (2003, April). Justice orientation and its measurement: Extending the deontological model. *Paper presented at the 18th annual meeting of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Orlando, Florida.*
- Salancik, G. R., & Pfeffer, J. (1978). A social information processing approach to job attitudes and task design. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 23, 224-253.
- Schlenker, B. R. (1980). *Impression management: The*

- self-concept, social identity, and interpersonal relations*. Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.
- Schmitt, M. (1996). Individual difference in sensitivity to befallen injustice (SBI). *Personality and Individual Differences, 21*, 3-20.
- Schmitt, M., & Dörfel, M. (1999). Procedural injustice at work, justice sensitivity, job satisfaction and psychosomatic wellbeing, *European Journal of Social Psychology, 29*, 443-453.
- Schmitt, M., Gollwitzer, M., Maes, J. & Arbach, D. (2005). Justice sensitivity: Assessment and location in the personality space. *European Journal of Psychological Assessment, 21*, 202-211
- Shapiro, D. L., & Kirkman, B. L. (1999). Employees' reaction to the change to work teams: The influence of 'anticipatory' injustice. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 12*, 51-66.
- Shapiro, D. L., & Kirkman, B. L. (2001). Anticipatory injustice: The consequences of expecting injustice in the workplace. In J. Greenberg & R. Cropanzano (Eds.), *Advances in organizational justice* (pp. 152-178). CA: Stanford University Press.
- Shaw, J. C., Wild, E., & Colquitt, J. A. (2003). To justify or excuse?: A meta-analytic re-view of the effects of explanations. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*, 444-458.
- Sitkin, S. B., & Bies, R. J. (1993). Social accounts in conflict situations: Using explanations to manage conflict, *Human Relations, 46*, 349-370.
- Skarlicki, D. P., Folger, R., & Tesluk, P. (1999). Personality as a moderator in the relationship between fairness and retaliation. *Academy of Management Journal, 42*, 100-108.
- Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (1979). An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. In W.G. Austin & S. Worchel (Eds). *The Social Psychology of Intergroup Relations* (pp. 33-47). Monterey, CA: Brooks Cole.
- Taylor, S. E., Wayment, H. A., & Carrillo, M. A. (1995). Social comparison and self-regulation. In R.M. Sorrentino & E.T. Higgins (Eds.) *Handbook of motivation and cognition*, (pp.3-27), New York: Guilford Press.
- Thibaut, J., & Walker, L. (1975). *Procedural justice: A psychological analysis*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Turner, J. C. (1987). *Rediscovering the Social Group: A Self-Categorization Theory*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Tyler, T. R., & Blader, S. L. (2002). The influence of status judgments in hierarchical groups: Comparing autonomous and comparative judgments about status. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 89*, 813-838.
- Tyler, T. R., & Lind, E. A. (1992). A relational model of authority in groups. In M. P. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 25, pp.115-191). San Diego. CA: Academic.
- Tyler, T. R., DeGoey, P., & Smith, H. (1996). Understanding why the justice of group procedures matters: A test of the psychology dynamics of the group-value model. *Journal*

- of Personality and Social Psychology*, 70, 913-930.
- Van den Bos, K. (2001). Uncertainty management: The influence of uncertainty salience on reactions to perceived procedural fairness. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 80, 931-941.
- Van den Bos, K. (2002). Assimilation and contrast in organizational justice: The role of primed mindsets in the psychology of the fair process effect. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 89, 866-880
- Van den Bos, K., & Lind, E. A. (2002). Uncertainty management by means of fairness judgments. In M. P. Zanna(Ed.), *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology* (Vol. 34, pp.1-60). Boston: Elsevier.
- Van den Bos, K., Burrows, J. W., Umphress, E., Folger, R., Lavelle, J. J., Eaglestone, J., & Gee, J. (2005). Prior experiences as temporal frames of reference: The influence of previous fairness experiences on reactions to new and old supervisors. *Social Justice Research*, 28, 99-120.
- Van den Bos, K., Maas, M., Waldring, I. , & Semin, G. P. (2003). Toward understanding the psychology of reactions to perceived fairness: The role of affect intensity. *Social Justice Research*, 16, 151-168.
- Van den Bos, K. & Miedema. J. (2000). Toward understanding of why fairness matters: The influence of mortality salience on reactions to procedural fairness. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 79, 355-366.
- Van den Bos, K., Wilke, H. A. M., Lind, E.A., & Vermunt, R. (1998). Evaluating outcomes by means of the fair process effect: Evidence for different processes in fairness and satisfaction judgments. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74, 1493-1503.
- Van Prooijen, J.-W., Van den Bos, K., & Wilke, H. A. M. (2002). Procedural justice and status: Status salience as antecedent of procedural fairness effects. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 83, 1353-1361.
- Van Prooijen, J.-W., Van den Bos, K., & Wilke, H. A. M. (2004a). The role of standing in the psychology of procedural justice: Towards theoretical integration. *European Review of Social Psychology*, 15, 33-58.
- Van Prooijen, J.-W., Van den Bos, K., & Wilke, H. A. M. (2004b). Group belongingness and procedural justice: Social inclusion and exclusion by peers affects the psychology of voice. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 87, 66-79.
- Van Prooijen, J.-W., Van den Bos, K., & Wilke, H. A. M. (2005). Procedural justice and intragroup status: Knowing where we stand in a group enhances reactions to procedural justice. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 41, 664-676.
- Weick, K. E. (1995). *Sensemaking in Organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Weiss, H. M. & Cropanzano, R. (1996). Affective events theory: A theoretical discussion of the structure, causes, and consequences of affective experience at work. In B. M. Staw & L. L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research in*

- organizational behavior* (Vol. 18, pp.1-74).
Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Weiss, H. M., Suckow, K., & Cropanzano, R.
(1999). Effects of justice conditions on
discrete emotions. *Journal of Applied
Psychology*, 84, 786-794.
- Whetten, D. A. (1989). What constitutes a
theoretical contribution, *Academy of
Management Review*, 14, 490-495.
- Witt, L. A., Kacmar, K. M., & Andrews, M. C.
(2001). The interactive effects of procedural
justice and exchange ideology on
supervisor-rated commitment. *Journal of
Organizational Behavior*, 22, 505-515.
- Yukl, G., & Seifert., C. F. (2002, April).
Preliminary validation research on the
extended version of the Influence Behavior
Questionnaire. *Presented at annual meeting of
the Society for Industrial and Organizational
Psychology, Toronto, Ontario.*
- 1차 원고접수 : 2008. 3. 28
2차 원고접수 : 2008. 6. 29
3차 원고접수 : 2008. 8. 16
최종게재결정 : 2008. 8. 18

조직 변화에 대한 설명과 공정성: 설명효과에 대한 조절 변인 검증

최 대 정

University of Iowa

본 연구는 조직 공정성 인식과정에서 관리자의 설명(managerial explanation)이 갖는 영향력과 그 조절변인들을 검증하는 것을 목적으로 하였다. 본 연구에서 설명효과란 관리자의 설명(재구조화, 책임완화, 감화)이 공정성 인식에 미치는 영향으로 정의하였고, 설명효과의 조절 변인으로 주관적 불확실성 인식, 사회적 소속감, 공정 민감성의 세 가지를 상정하였다. 이론적으로 도출된 4가지 연구 가설들을 검증하기 위해 직장인을 대상으로 설문조사를 실시하였으며 (N=483), 그 결과는 다음과 같이 요약된다. 첫째, 세 가지 설명방식 중 재구조화와 감화는 모두 변화 공정성을 유의미하게 증가시켰으나 책임완화는 유의미한 부적 효과를 가지고 있었고, 둘째, 재구조화 설명의 효과는 불확실성이 큰 상황에서 더 크게 나타났고, 책임완화는 공정 민감성이 낮은 사람에게서 더 큰 효과가 나타났으며, 감화 설명은 사회적 소속감을 더 많이 느끼는 사람에게서 더 크게 나타났다. 이러한 연구결과들을 통합하고 이론적인 시사점과 한계점에 대하여 논의하였으며, 향후 연구과제에 대해서도 제안하였다.

주요어 : 조직 공정성, 설명, 사회적 소속감, 불확실성, 공정 민감성