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A study of negative emotion, perception of fairness and work attitude in the context of performance management system among the Malaysian general workers

by

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis is my own work and effort and that it has not been submitted anywhere for any award. Where other sources of information have been used, they have been acknowledged.

Hoh Chin Chin

March 2020

Malaysia

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to:

My grandfather Mr Hoh Vong, my uncle Mr Ho Wai Seng and my father Mr Hoh Wai Keng (whose gentle souls have rested in peace) for their continual reminder of the importance of learning as well as their support for my higher education

ABSTRACT

This thesis describes the research work examining the emotional responses to performance management (PM) processes as the predictors of work attitudes in a Malaysian context. The workers' perceptions of fairness are also tested for their mediation effects in this relationship. Building on the Affective Event Theory (AET) and the theory of organisational justice, two models are derived to understand the relationships among the chosen constructs.

To achieve the research aim, this study has adopted mixed methods approach. The first phase of this study explored the negative affective events and the associated affective responses related to PM system. In-depth interviews and focus group discussions were organised to obtain insights from 22 Malaysian general workers of the manufacturing sector. Content analysis method was used to code and categorise the events. "Negative acts of management", "Unsatisfactory reward" and "Negative acts of co-workers" emerged as the most important affective event categories among the participants. A total of 29 negative emotions were collected. The 10 most frequently-mentioned emotions were then developed into a measurement scale for the survey study in the following quantitative phase.

The quantitative study investigated the relationships between negative emotions and work attitudes, as exemplified by acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention, via the mediation of perception of fairness using two models. A questionnaire was used to collect data from 345 Malaysian general workers, and SEM analysis was the main method to analyse the data. In summary, negative emotion (as an overall construct) predicted the workers' acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intentions. In addition, it was found that perception of fairness about PM system significantly mediated the relationship, fully

or partially. When examining the discrete emotions individually, all 10 negative emotions significantly predicted acceptance of PM system and turnover intention, but only three negative emotions had shown to predict the workers' work engagement. The moderator proposed by the AET, negative affectivity was not substantiated in this study. On the other hand, the control variable age, demonstrated significant correlation with the workers' turnover intentions.

This study contributes to the corpus of literature on affective events, workplace emotion and organisational justice in the context of PM system as well as the practical implication to the organisations. With future research recommendations highlighted end of the thesis, more comprehensive understanding of the causal predictive chain from affective responses to work attitudes can be achieved, particularly in the context of Malaysia.

PUBLISHED WORK

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a1, a2, a3, a4, a5, a5, a6, a7. a8 – the items of the acceptance of PM system scale with "a1" being the first question and "a8" being the eighth question

ab1, ab2, ab3 – the items of the work engagement scale measuring absorption

acq – acquiescent; an item of the negative emotion scale

Accpt – latent construct of acceptance of PM system

afr – afraid; an item of the negative affectivity scale

ang – angry; an item of the negative emotion scale

AET – Affective Events Theory

ash – ashamed; an item of the negative affectivity scale

AVE – average variance extracted

CFA – confirmatory factor analysis

CFI – comparative fitness index

CIT – Critical Incident Technique

CR – construct reliability value

C.R. – critical region

CWB – counterproductive work behaviour

d1, d2, d3, d4 – the items of the perception of fairness scale measuring distributive justice

de1, de2, de3 – the items of the work engagement scale measuring dedication

dis – distressed; an item of the negative affectivity scale

dsp – disappointed; an item of the negative emotion scale

Engage – latent construct of work engagement

EFA – exploratory factor analysis

ESM – experiential sampling method

Fair – latent construct of perception of fairness

FGD – focus group discussion

fru – frustrated; an item of the negative emotion scale

GDP – gross domestic product

grv – feeling grievance; an item of the negative emotion scale

gui – guilty; an item of the negative affectivity scale

HR – human resource

HRM – human resource management

hos – hostile; an item of the negative affectivity scale

if1, if2, if3, if4, if5 – the items of the perception of fairness scale measuring informational justice

ina – inadequate; an item of the negative emotion scale

I/O – industrial and organisational

irr – irritable; an item of the negative affectivity scale

it1, it2, it3, it4 – the items of the perception of fairness scale measuring interpersonal justice

jit – jittery; an item of the negative affectivity scale

KMO – Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy

MI – modification index

MNC – multinational company

MVA – missing value analysis

NA – negative affectivity

NegAff – latent construct of negative affectivity

NegEmo – latent construct of negative emotion

ner – nervous; an item of the negative affectivity scale

NNFI – non-normed fitness index

notA – not appreciated; an item of the negative emotion scale

p1, p2, p3, p4, p5, p6, p7 – the items of the perception of fairness scale measuring procedural justice

PA – performance appraisal

PANAS – Positive and Negative Affect Schedule

PCA – principle component analysis

PFA – principle axis factoring

PM – performance management

PMI – the Nikkei Malaysia Manufacturing Purchasing Managers' Index

QA department– Quality Assurance department

r – correlation coefficient

R^2 – coefficient of determination

res – resentful; an item of the negative emotion scale

RMSEA – root-mean-square error of approximation

sca – scared; an item of the negative affectivity scale

sce – sceptical; an item of the negative emotion scale

SD – standard deviation

S.E. – standard error

SEM – structural equations modeling

SME – small and medium-sized companies

Social – sub-construct of Fair

Structural – sub-construct of Fair

t1, t2_re, t3, t4 – the items of the turnover intention scale with "t1" being the first question and "t4" being the fourth question

Turn – latent construct of turnover intention

ups – upset; an item of the negative affectivity scale

UWES – Utrecht Work Engagement Scale

v1, v2, v3 – the items of the work engagement scale measuring vigour

VSS – Voluntary separation scheme

wor – worried; an item of the negative emotion scale

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Chapter overview

This chapter presents an overview of the research project reported in this thesis. It begins with the background of the research and progresses to the development of research questions and aim. It also details the significance of this research project and its potential contributions to the field of workplace emotion. Then, the scope of the study is defined and discussed before the organisation of this thesis is outlined.

1.2 Background of the research

1.2.1 Introduction of job performance appraisal

Job performance appraisal (PA) system is a pivotal and one of the most applied techniques organisations used all over the world (Aguinis, Joo, & Gottfredson, 2012; Choi, Tan, Wan Ismail, & Abdul Rashid, 2013). Almost all the public and private organisations are using some form of PA system to evaluate their employees' work performances (Maharvi, Iqbal, & Ullah, 2014). It is a formal process of employee monitoring and usually involves "evaluating performance based on the judgments and opinions of subordinates, peers, supervisors, other managers and even workers themselves" (Jackson & Schuler, 2003, p.455). Performance appraisal supports organisations and employees to achieve a variety of important outcomes (Levy & Williams, 2004; Murphy & Cleveland, 1995). At the employee level, these outcomes include rewards and sanction defined by the organisation, career advancement, recognition and self-esteem earned from achievement, knowledge learnt and emotions experienced (Conway, Fu, Monks, Alfes, & Bailey, 2015; Dickinson, 1993). At the

organisation level, PA system links human resource management (HRM) and organisational effectiveness (Daley, Vasu, & Blackwell-Weinstein, 2000; Harrington & Lee, 2015). An effective PA system aids in promoting subordinate-superior understanding (Pulakos, Mueller Hanson, Arad, & Moye, 2015), validity of selection and hiring procedures (Ferris, Munyon, Basik, & Buckley, 2008) and supporting an organisation's culture (Daley et al., 2000).

1.2.2 Performance appraisal is dreadful

Despite a long history application in organisations (Levy, Tseng, Rosen, & Lueke, 2017), there have been many reports of dissatisfaction with the PA system in organisations (Adler et al., 2016; Bretz, Milkovich, & Read, 1992; Choi et al., 2013; Kavanagh, Brown, & Benson, 2007; Meinecke, Lehmann-Willenbrock, & Kauffeld, 2017; Pulakos et al., 2015; Sudin, 2011). It is seen as of little value (Dahler-Larsen & Pihl-Thingvad, 2014; Pulakos et al., 2015)**,** burdensome and bureaucratic (Levy et al., 2017)**,** and unworthy of time invested (Pulakos et al., 2015). Employers have acknowledged that supervisors and subordinates despise and detest the appraisal process (Cappelli & Tavis, 2016). From subordinates' experiences, performance appraisal is associated with fear, anger and disappointment (Levy et al., 2017; Smither, London, & Reilly, 2005; Tata, 2002). For supervisors, employee PA is often regarded as a yearly rite of passage in the organisation that triggers dread and apprehension (Kline & Sulsky, 2009; Spence & Keeping, 2011).

The researcher shared similar PA experiences from the practitioners. From over 15 years of employment history in manufacturing sector in Malaysia, the researcher has had many opportunities to participate in the PAs of the general workers and to discuss PA outcomes, procedures and improvement plans with the supervisors

as well as the management. In many occasions, the companies refined the systems to provide as accurate and fair ratings as possible to their workers, but the PAs frequently ended up with negative responses from the workers such as feeling disappointed with low salary increment or angry with “unfair” treatment. Such incidences had also caused a sense of helplessness and trapped feelings among the supervisors. The researcher believed that some aspects of the system were designed inadequately, implemented poorly or even overlooked. As a member of the management team, such questions as “What had caused the workers to feel so strongly about?”, “Weren’t the procedures fair to everyone?” and “Would the workers be demotivated at work ever since?” constantly arose in the researcher’s mind.

1.2.3 Performance appraisal as a source of affective responses

Job PA is claimed as a source of emotional stress on both raters and ratees (Carter & Delahaye, 2005; Gabris & Ihrke, 2001; Gbadamosi, 2006; Verbos, Miller & Goswani, 2014). For example, a supervisor may feel stressed about having to spend long hours to conduct his subordinates’ PAs (Lake & Luong, 2017; Saffie-Robertson & Brutus, 2014). At the same time, an employee may experience an array of emotions, be it positive or negative depending on the experience, process and outcome of the PA. Regardless of whether the system is designed for evaluative or developmental purpose, the experience can be anxiety-arousing for both the raters and ratees (Vara, 2015). Employees are likely to contemplate about events related to PA, eliciting a variety of emotional responses depending on how they view its implications for performance and the relationships with their supervisors (Beal, Weiss, Barros, & MacDermid, 2005;

Martin & Tesser, 1996). Evidences of the role of affects[1] can be quoted directly or indirectly in different processes of PM system such as giving/receiving performance feedback and (not) receiving rewards.

Studies have pointed out that giving performance feedback is conceivably a difficult, delicate and emotional process (Baron, 1988; Geddes & Baron, 1997; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). London and Smither (2002) highlighted that a ratee's first reaction is likely to be emotional rather than cognitive. In particular, negative feedback often result in emotions such as shame, anger, sad, discouraged and overall unpleasantness, whereas positive feedback tend to result in emotions such as happy, pride and overall pleasantness (Brett & Atwater, 2001)**.** Therefore, a rater is likely to feel reluctant and stressed to inform a ratee about his poor ratings (Saffie-Robertson & Brutus, 2014), especially when the ratee is someone close to him (Fletcher, 2008; Keeping & Levy, 2000).

Workers are also expected to respond emotionally to the processes of how they are being evaluated particularly when PM systems are tied to monetary reward (Mathis & Jackson, 2006)**.** In most organisations, good performance is rewarded by financial benefits. Moreover, consistent good performance increases a worker's chance of career advancement (Sonnentag & Frese, 2003). A review paper by Brief and Weiss (2002) recorded organisation reward and punishment as one of the five major factors contributing to the production of emotions in the workplace.

Performance appraisal outcome may impact on an employee's social status in a group and indirectly engender affective reactions on the employee. The model of relational identity argues that individuals' relational identity is based on the function, status and nature of complementarity of their role compared to a social context (Sluss

[1] The term *affect* is used in this thesis as a general and inclusive label to refer to both mood and emotion. The differences between mood and emotion are explained in Chapter 3.

& Ashforth, 2007). In the job PA context, a high-performing worker may feel less valuable and significant to his work unit if his performance is appraised poorly or poorer than that of salient peers. His role and relational identity as high-performing worker could be jeopardised by his PA outcome. Additionally, a worker's standing is thought to be implied by the (interpersonal) treatment a worker receives (during appraisal); low quality interpersonal treatment conveys the message that the supervisor or management regards the worker as being low status, and vice versa (Brown, Hyatt, & Benson, 2010). As noted in Thompson and Dalton (1970) *"*The signals he receives about this assessment have a strong impact on his self-esteem and on his subsequent performance" (p. 150*).* Thus, a generally high level of visibility for affective reactions due to PA outcomes would be anticipated.

1.2.4 Affective responses influence judgments and work attitudes

Research on workplace affect has shown that it has significant implications on employees and organisations (Kiefer & Barclay, 2012). At a personal cognitive level, empirical studies have shown significant correlations between affective state and judgment (e.g., Lerner & Keltner, 2000) and judgment about fairness (e.g., Hollensbe, Khazanchi, & Masterson, 2008; Sinclair & Mark, 1991;1992; Van den Bos, 2003). Utilising a qualitative design, Hollensbe et al. (2008) asked new job entrants about their perceptions of fairness of their supervisors and organisation and the reasons underlying their views. The findings revealed that although the participants' fairness perception did reflect the relevance to the four traditional justice dimensions (see the theory of organisational justice in Chapter 3), they frequently used their own affective states (and other rules such as social information) to form fairness perception. Sample phrases included "feelings of frustration negatively affected my perception of fairness"

was mentioned by the participants. In line with the affect-as-information theory (Schwarz, 2012; Schwarz & Clore, 2007), affective states could serve as a source of information when forming an evaluative judgment.

Affect adds information-processing burdens to individuals and subsequently hinders task performance. In general, cognitive psychologists believe that human being cognitive processes are limited to a central resource that is loaded with multiple activities, i.e., if an individual is burdened with too many tasks or distracting stimuli that take away the cognitive capacity, the individual's task performance declines (Beal et al., 2005; Ferris et al., 2008; Schneider & Fisk, 1982). Negative emotions are said to narrow thinking through rumination and to use up important cognitive resources needed for performance improvement (Beal et al., 2005; Martin & Tesser, 1996). Staw and Barsade (1993) reported that employees exhibiting positive emotions at work tended to receive higher performance ratings from their superiors. Alternatively, negative emotions such as anxiety led to reduced demonstration of intellectual curiosity and socialisation-based learning among the employees (Reio & Callahan, 2004). In extreme cases, high levels of negative emotions might signal employee perceptions of violated work values or standards (Kiefer, 2005).

At the team level, emotion is posited contagious and capable of influencing thinking process of the others. Emotion contagion theory (Hareli & Rafaeli, 2008) says that there is a tendency for two individuals to emotionally converge in social systems. In organisational context, an emotional reaction by a ratee would likely be directed at the raters and to other stakeholders such as team members, department heads and potentially clients. Applying in the PA setting, the demonstration of emotion by ratees tends to trigger emotion in raters which in turn influences the cognitive processes raters used to make performance rating (Ferris et al., 2008; Hareli

& Rafaeli, 2008). A recent research done by Meinecke et al. (2017) supported this phenomenon. In this study, the ratee's affective tone, regardless of the actual content of the disagreement of a performance feedback had an impact on the rater's reactions such that the rater was more likely to enforce his own point of view after the ratee expressed disagreement in a personal attack style, but not when disagreement was expressed in a constructive manner.

In sum, affects exert impacts on individuals' fairness judgment, work attitude, job performance and able to influence co-workers' thinking process. Accordingly, a study to identify the antecedents and associated affective responses in the context of PM system, and their subsequent influences on work attitudes is justified and worthwhile (Schleicher, Baumann, Sullivan, & Yim, 2019; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). As mentioned by Gruman and Saks (2011), although the ultimate goal of implementing a PA system is to improve job performance, affective (together with cognitive and conative) outcomes are more proximal and precede changes in performance. Hence, PM systems provide a good starting point to investigate workers' perceptions and affective responses towards organisational systems, and the consequences which influence the workers' performance, by extension, improve company-level productivity and turnover rate.

1.3 Research questions and research aim

Taking into consideration the negative affective responses towards PA systems among the employees and its implications for the organisations as motivation, the following central research questions are formulated:

1) What affective events during PA processes cause the workers to react emotionally?

2) What are the major emotions associated with the affective events?
3) Do emotions predict work attitudes (acceptance of performance management system, work engagement and turnover intention)?
4) What are the (discrete) emotions that predict the work attitudes more significantly?
5) Does perception of fairness mediate the relationship between emotions and work attitudes?

To answer to the research questions above, the researcher investigated the affective responses associated with the PA processes as predictors of work attitudes. Presuming that emotions do significantly predicted work attitudes, perception of fairness was proposed as the mediator of the relationships to add information on the mechanism of the causal relationships.

1.4 The research framework – Affective Event Theory

To achieve the research aim, the Affective Events Theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) framework is referred. Affective Event Theory (AET) provides a possible way for studying workplace emotions as a dynamic phenomenon, linking workplace events to employees' affective responses and subsequently relating to attitudinal changes. The core ideas of AET are that (1) the workplace environment is a source of discrete affective events that generate emotional responses from the employees, and (2) the employee's emotional responses to these events determine subsequent attitudes and behaviours. Affective Events Theory thus highlights the importance of recognising emotions in the workplace, both in terms of the impact of events on employees' emotional responses, and the subsequent impact on workplace attitudes.

Since the introduction of AET, several studies have examined the work events that are common to organisations and demonstrated the impact on moment-to-moment affective states. Studies have identified that work events related to PA system such as supervision (e.g., Hart, Wearing, & Headey, 1995), leader-member interactions (e.g., Basch & Fisher, 2000) and goal enhancing/disrupting activities (e.g., Zohar, Tzischinski, & Epstein, 2003) lead employees to respond emotionally. Frequently reported emotions included anger (Mitchell, 2010a; Sargeant, Mann, Sinclair, Van Der Vleuten, & Metsemakers, 2008) and happiness (Basch & Fisher, 2000).

In addition, various studies have demonstrated the implications of affects for organisations. At the personal cognitive level, studies have revealed the correlation between affective states and judgment about fairness (Thiel, Hill, Griffith, & Connelly, 2016). Employees' affective states have also been shown to correlate with employees' attitudes such as acceptance of performance feedback (e.g., Brett & Atwater, 2001), work engagement (e.g., Agarwal, 2014), work performance (e.g., Ferris, Munyon, Basik, & Buckley, 2008) and eventually turnover intention (e.g., Grandey, Tam, & Brauburger, 2002).

1.5 Scope of the study

The current study focused on negative affective events and negative emotions because plethora of studies has revealed its significant implications (e.g., Fugate, Kinicki, & Prissia, 2008; Hosie, Sharma, & Kingshott, 2019; Vecchio, 1995).[2] When negative events happen, the affective outcomes of the appraisal are likely to be disturbing and emotionally draining (Fugate et al., 2008), may it be anger or sadness. For employees,

[2] Only events in the workplace were included; major life events such as death of a family member were excluded.

negative emotions reduce job performance (Hosie et al., 2019; Motowidlo, Packard, & Manning, 1986), increase workers' intentions to quit (Fugate et al., 2008), and lead to poor physical health (Danna & Griffin, 1999) and deterioration of psychological well-being (Crabtree, 2005).

At the organisational level, negative emotions are attributed to stronger and more detrimental behavioural consequences such as counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) (Taylor, 1991). Geddas and Baron (1997) also reported higher risk for aggressive behaviours due to negative feedback. Moreover, strong emotions such as workplace jealousy and envy often become precursors for workplace violence and harassment (Vecchio, 1995). According to the asymmetry emotions theory (Peeters, 2002; Rozin & Royzman, 2001; Taylor, 1991), employees are more likely to remember negative events than positive events. Ito, Larsen, Kyle Smith and Cacioppo (1998) found that people's brains are more responsive to negative information than to positive information when making evaluative judgment.

The current study drew its scope around performance management (PM) system instead of PA system, in order to enable more affective events to be included in the discussion. The literature has pointed out that PM system covers a larger scope than PA system (Aguinis, 2009; Levy et al., 2017). Specifically, a PA system refers to the processes of rating a subordinate's job performance including the performance review session by supervisors, whereas a PM system refers to the PA system pluses goal setting, achievement measurement, goal review and re-contract, and training needs analysis (Aguinis, 2009; Denisi & Murphy, 2017).

In terms of participant sampling, the current study focused on Malaysian general workers working in the manufacturing sector in Malaysia. General workers contribute significantly to the nation's economy and workforce (Department of

Statistics Malaysia, 2018, 2019b). However, there is dearth of information regarding systems available to ensure their productivity. Very few researches exist with how general workers perceive the PA and PM systems. Job performance appraisal processes are highly personal and context specific (Taormina & Gao, 2009); hence, studies that focused on more Western contexts may not necessarily be applicable to the Malaysian context.

1.6 Significance of the study

The current study contributes to the advancement of workplace affective event and workplace emotion research in two significant ways. Firstly, this study identifies the causes and the consequences of affective responses, in particular affective events related to PM systems, perception of fairness and work attitudes, i.e., acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention. Unlike previous studies which tend to identify general work events (e.g., Basch & Fisher, 2000), the current study purely focuses on PM systems. Hence, it renders more diligent identification of affective events relevant to PM system, associated emotional responses as well as their relationships with fairness perception and work attitudes. The findings would offer a more complete picture of general workers' perceptions towards PM systems and offer recommendations in terms of specific courses of actions that organisations could pursue (Narayanan, Menon, & Spector, 1999).

Furthermore, in contrast to previous studies that focused on a few preselected emotions (e.g., Baron, 1988; Mitchell, 2010b) or aggregate emotions to a composite for data analysis (e.g., Glasø & Einarsen, 2006), the current study examines how each discrete emotion is related to workers' perceptions of fairness and the work attitudes. Since the elicitation of discrete emotion and its motivational and behavioural

consequence are distinct, different relational outcomes can be resulted (Lazarus, 1995). Hence, analysing discrete emotions can avoid losing the ability to tease apart these differences.

Secondly, the current study provides a more inclusive research framework in correlating workplace emotions and work attitudes. In a clearer sense, the current study integrates the theory of organisational justice (Greenberg, 1986), thereby combining both affective and cognitive components correlating to workers' work attitudes in the revised AET model. The results allow us to understand how a cognitive component, i.e., perception of fairness could explain the relationship between affective responses and work attitudes. A review or relevant literature shows that no equivalent model has been reported to examine the relationship between affects and work attitudes. In addition, the current study broadens the literature by investigating the moderating effects of negative affectivity and workers' demographic characteristics as control variables simultaneously in a single study of affect and work attitude relationship in the Malaysian context.

In this thesis, perception of fairness towards the PM system was considered as a mediator between emotions and work attitudes. Given much of the research regarding justice is based in the Western context, the current study adds more information on how Malaysian workers perceive organisational justice. Scholars (e.g., Gupta & Kumar, 2013) explain that different level of individualistic/collectivist cultures demonstrate different emphasis on perception of fairness. In North America for example, individuality is highly emphasised (Li & Cropanzano, 2009), while collectivist cultures such as Malaysia, emphasise interdependent self-concepts. This suggests that Malaysian workers may have different perceptions of fairness because of different norms and values (Skarlicki, 2001). This current study allows us to learn

more about non-Western culture perception of fairness and potentially contribute to "Malaysian-grown" theories.

From a practical perspective, understanding local perception of fairness can assist managers of multinational organisations to understand how organisational policies and their implementation impact on employees' perceptions of fairness. The findings on the relationships among the employees' affective responses towards PM systems, perception of fairness and work attitudes can help managers to understand the consequences of these perceptions. Lastly, the findings of the current study can be useful as comparison to literature done for other work groups and other disciplines such as HRM and cross-cultural studies.

The findings on affective events and affective reactions engendered from PM procedures, and the relationships with employees' perceptions of fairness and work attitudes are useful for human resource (HR) practitioners to develop strategies to avoid negative affective events and to promote positive affective events; indirectly, improving workers' work attitudes and psychological well-being in the workplace (Fox & Spector, 2002). Moreover it allows HR practitioners to inject the human touch element when designing and implementing better PM systems. As mentioned by Aguinis (2009), many PM systems designed with little concern about human emotion aspect, and mostly focus on the technical aspects, i.e., advantages and disadvantages of different rating methods, rating accuracy, and sources of error.

1.7 Organisation of thesis

This thesis is divided into ten chapters, followed by references and appendices. The organisation of the thesis is as follows:

Chapter 1 Introduction – This chapter provides an overview of the current study. It begins with describing the negative affective events and responses related to PM system, and the implications to employees and organisations. Accordingly, the research questions and aim are presented. The research framework of the current study is introduced in this chapter. Lastly, the scope and significance of the current study are defined.

Chapter 2 General workers and the Malaysian manufacturing sector –The chapter briefly discusses the general workers and the current employment issues of manufacturing sector of Malaysia in relevance to the research aim.

Chapter 3 The conceptual framework – The fundamental concept of the key theories employed in this thesis are delineated in this chapter. The chapter also covers findings that have brought about the development of the proposed model of the current study.

Chapter 4 Affective event, emotion, work attitude and perception of fairness–A literature review - This chapter reviews critically the previous work relevant to this thesis, namely the relationships among affective events, affective responses, perception of fairness, acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention. Then, the moderator and control variables of the current study are introduced and discussed in this chapter. The final part concludes with the research objectives and hypotheses of the thesis.

Chapter 5 Methodology – This chapter details the rationale for the research design and methodology chosen for the investigation, followed by the data inquiry (i.e.,

sampling procedures and sample size requirement) and data analysis (i.e., data screening, EFA, CFA and SEM) procedures. The chapter also includes a detailed description of the measurement scales used and how ethical issues are addressed.

Chapter 6 Interview and FGD results and discussion - This chapter presents and discusses the findings of the qualitative study. It covers the results derived from the interviews and focus group discussion, highlighting the emergence of the major affective event categories and associated emotions.

Chapter 7 Preliminary data analysis and interpretation – The main purpose of this chapter is to present the data screening, EFA and CFA results before the SEM results.

Chapter 8 The relationships between negative emotion and work attitudes through perception of fairness: Results and discussion - This chapter presents and discusses the SEM results of Models 1 (Hypotheses 1 to 6). The chapter ends with the discussion of results of the moderator and the control variables.

Chapter 9 The relationships between discrete negative emotion and work attitudes through perception of fairness: Results and discussion - This chapter focuses on the findings from Model 2 (Hypotheses 7 to 12). It includes the SEM results and the discussions. This chapter also covers the discussion of results of the moderator and the control variables.

Chapter 10 Overall discussion, implications, limitations and recommendations- This chapter summarises the findings of the current study. Theoretical, practical and methodological implications of the findings are discussed. A section is specially denoted to present the findings related to the mixed methodologies employed in the current study. It then proceeds with a discussion of the limitations of the study and recommendations for future research. The chapter ends with an overall conclusion of the current study.

At the beginning of each chapter, an overview of the contents is prepared to aid the readers' understanding. Appendices A to L contain supplementary material information to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the work being done in this research project.

1.8 Chapter summary

This chapter has discussed the background of the research by highlighting the negative affective responses of employees during PAs and the implications of affective responses for organisations. Accordingly, the research questions and research aim are formulated. In summary, the key contributions of the current study to PM system research and practice are as follows:

(1) The current study identifies the antecedents and the consequences of the workers' affective responses and provides understanding on the relationships among the variables, i.e., affective events, affective responses, perception of fairness, acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention.

(2) The current study proposes a revised AET model that includes organisational justice theory to examine the interplay among affective responses, perception of fairness and the work attitudes.

(3) Since much of the research regarding organisational justice is based in the Western context, the current study provides valuable information on how Malaysian workers perceive organisational justice. The workers' fairness perception is expected to be different than the Western perception as Malaysians demonstrate stronger collectivist and higher power distance characteristics.

Having presented the background of the research, the research questions and the significance of the current study, the following three chapters detail a comprehensive discussion of the relevant theories and key research literature review that have formed the research objectives and hypotheses of the current study.

CHAPTER 2 GENERAL WORKERS AND THE MANUFACTURING SECTOR IN MALAYSIA

2.1 Chapter overview

This chapter focuses on the target sample of the current study. In the following sections, the rationale for the selection of Malaysian general workers from the manufacturing sector as the target sample of the current study is presented.

2.2 The Significance of the Malaysian manufacturing sector

Malaysia is a developing country with a multi-sector economy mostly based on manufacturing and services. Manufacturing involves the production of goods by using machines, equipment, labour and raw materials. The manufacturing sector has contributed significantly to Malaysia economic development in terms of its contribution to gross domestic product (GDP) and employment (Hooi, 2016). The manufacturing sector has been experiencing moderate growth since 2016, and it is one of the key drivers of Malaysian GDP growth in 2018 (Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2019b). As of the third quarter of 2018, it has accounted for 23.0 % of the total GDP of the Malaysian economy (Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2019b). The growth is mainly from electrical, electronic and optical products, petrochemical, rubber and plastic products.

The overall performance of manufacturing sector is also spurred by transportation related projects. The manufacturing industry is expected to grow steadily at the rate of 4.7% in tandem with developments in the global semiconductor industry (Zainul, 2018). As a major contributor to the national GDP and its continued

steady growth, it is important to undertake new research in labour issues of manufacturing sector to ensure sustainable growth.

2.3 General workers in Malaysia

General workers from the manufacturing sector usually engage in processing raw materials to finished goods, packing and shipping finished goods. Their services also include testing and inspecting the quality of raw material, intermediate and finished goods (Locsin, 2018; PayScale, 2019). These workers operate machineries and equipment to carry out most of their duties, but may also be required to engage in performing physical tasks. Some general workers are semi-skilled such as machine operators, quality control inspectors and forklift drivers while a significant number are classified as low-skilled workers (i.e., packing workers and cleaners). Although general workers are often positioned at the lowest hierarchy of organisations, these first-liners are directly responsible for the hands-on manufacturing and controlling the quality of products. Furthermore, they are a crucial factor in executing safety, health and environment policies in organisations (Department of Occupational Safety and Health, 2011)**.**

The work pattern of general workers is routinary and is associated with very little if any in terms of task autonomy (Loscocco & Spitze, 1990; Oliveira, 2015). They may spend a lot of time standing and moving around operating machinery or sitting at a workbench or assembly line. The working environment varies from high temperature to air-conditioned rooms, and sometimes under very poor lighting conditions. General workers usually work a variety of (non-flexible hour) shifts such as day, night or weekend shift (personal communication with the organisation representatives). In terms of salary, entry-level general workers often receive statutory

minimum wage, plus extra payments such as shift allowance, overtime and productivity incentives (personal communication with the organisation representatives).

2.4 The sample –general workers of the Malaysian manufacturing sector

Being a key contributor to the national GDP, manufacturing sector plays an important role in bringing up the competitiveness of the nation. Efforts nevertheless require every employee in the sector to perform better to increase employee productivity. Other than governmental policies, infrastructure, educational system and financial markets (Galace, 2017), research has shown positive links between HRM practices such as performance appraisal (Ong & Koh, 2018) and reward system (Hooi, Sulaiman, & Omar, 2012) with productivity.

In addition, the work environment of manufacturing companies could be another motivation to enhance HRM practices (Subramaniam, Choo, & Johari, 2019). As mentioned in the previous section, the work environment of manufacturing settings is potentially hazardous - noisy, hot, dusty, tiring (especially during night shifts) and monotonous. These unpleasant aspects of work environment are likely to affect workers' work behaviours (Rosenblatt, 2010; Nada et al., 2012). It follows, then, that other work aspects such as HRM practices and workers' psychological well-being must be given serious attention in any attempt to promote healthy and productive work behaviours among the workers.

Despite the important role of HRM practices to employee and company productivity, Zakaria, Ishak, Arshad, Chew Abdullah and Ahmad (2018) found that the medium-sized companies (SME) in Malaysia implemented HRM practices, but informally and at a very minimum level. Only five HRM practices were found relevant to

the Malaysian SMEs (communication and information sharing, compensation, performance appraisal, recruitment and selection, and training and development). Specifically for the PM system, the implementation of PM system in the manufacturing sector did not advance much since the last decade as the review of literature by Abdullah, Che Rose and Kumar (2007) had indicated inadequacy of the PM systems employed by the manufacturing companies and the propensity of triggering (negative) affective responses among the workers. The authors also highlighted that only a third of the manufacturing companies in Malaysia conducted regular PAs for their employees. Employees were usually only evaluated on their acquired skills, knowledge and attitudes; employees' career path development was absent.

In another study focusing on the SMEs by Hooi (2006), PA practices showed similar problems to those reported by Abdullah et al. (2007). Majority (63.3%) of the SME manufacturing companies used conventional methods of evaluating their employees, which were not only subjective and tedious but also time-consuming. Such practices led both the raters and the ratees feeling lack of trust, stressed and have unfavourable attitudes towards PM processes. A later study by Abdullah (2009) pointed out that PA was often neglected due to lack of qualified HR personnel in managing these complex and specialised processes. Taken together, the findings signalled constant challenges encountered by Malaysian manufacturing companies in implementing PM systems. Hence, the findings from the current study, specifically the events related to the PM processes would give specific pointers for the improvements of PM systems.

The current study focuses on Malaysian general workers from the manufacturing sector. Firstly, general workers from the manufacturing sector constitute the largest headcount of the Malaysian workforce (Department of Statistics

Malaysia, 2018). High growth rate and technology expansion in the Malaysian manufacturing sector has resulted in a substantial increase in demand for labour (Hooi, 2016). As of 2017, the manufacturing sector ranks the largest industry sector in terms of headcount, accounts for about 17.4% of Malaysia's total workforce (Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2018). This upward trend is further reflected in various employment statistics. For example, the Nikkei Malaysia Manufacturing Purchasing Managers' Index (PMI) conducted in September 2018, signalled the strongest improvement in Malaysian manufacturing conditions for ten months, driven by a faster rate of job creation (IHS Markit, 2018). IHS Markit, a data and information service provider highlighted that the upward movement in the headline PMI was driven by a stronger rise in employment (Murugiah, 2018). Given the current positive employment trend in manufacturing sector, production is expected to expand and further generate more employment opportunities. Being the largest workforce of the nation, this work group deserves attention from researchers.

Lastly, the lack of investigation on how Malaysian workers perceive PM systems is another factor that justifies the selection of this target work group. Although there are several studies examined job satisfaction (e.g., Dawal, Taha, & Ismail, 2009; Ooi, Arumugam, Teh, & Chong, 2008), quality work life (e.g., Muhamad Noor & Abdullah, 2012; Siron, Hj. Tasripan, & Abd. Majid, 2012), occupational health hazards (e.g., Nada et al., 2012; Santos, Ramos, Ramasamy, & Fernandes, 2015), turnover intention (e.g., Hooi et al., 2012) and performance measurement design (e.g., Ismail & Azizi, 2008) amongst Malaysian workers, little is known about workers' fairness perceptions about PM systems and the respective affective responses. Clarke, Harcourt and Flynn (2013) found that the rank and file nurses perceived less fairness (procedural and adequate notice) about the PM system

as compared to their supervisory counterpart. Moreover, the literature has revealed that lower-rank employees tend to adopt a rather submissive stance (Boudens, 2005; Drory & Ritov, 1997; Morrison, 2014; Rai & Agarwal, 2018) for fear of being seen as challenging the authority (Kish-Gephart, Detert, Treviño, & Edmondson, 2009; Li & Sun, 2015) or unfavourable repercussions (Hooi et al., 2012). In a high power distance society like Malaysia, it is uncommon for workers especially the lower ranked ones to question the decisions of management (Hooi et al., 2012). Negative sentiments among the general workers could be overlooked easily. Li and Cropanzano (2009) posited that Asians might be more likely to avoid or to keep silent when it came to addressing injustice-provoking situations liked interpersonal conflicts, because social harmony was prioritised over self-interest, and it was regarded as an end in itself (Shao, Rupp, Skarlicki, & Jones, 2013). The emphasis on social harmony however could lead to undesirable outcomes such as stress and turnover intention.

The large number of foreign workers in the manufacturing sector has rendered the understanding of the local workers' perceptions of fairness as a critical component of organisational performance. Employee turnover rate in the manufacturing industries within Malaysia was high, ranging from 19.92% to 23.88% for the period of July 2010 to June 2011 (Goh, 2012). According to the General Industry Total Rewards Survey (Tower Watsons Malaysia, 2013), the manufacturing sector had the highest turnover rate of 24.0%, followed by conglomerates (14.0%) and financial service sectors (13.3%).

To ensure operation sustainability and productivity, a large number of foreign workers are taken in to work in the manufacturing industries**.** Approximately 543,500 persons accounting for 24.5% of total registered foreign workers are currently employed in the manufacturing industries (Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2019a).

The presence of foreign labour in Malaysia industries brings along diverse work attitudes and cultures to local workplace. Consequently, workplace tensions and conflicts over sensitive issues can easily be triggered (Hooi, 2016). For instance, Hoh, Ramos and Hooi (2019) reported that the local workers felt threatened by the fact that foreign workers are now receiving the same basic salary upon the implementation of minimum wage policy in 2013. The presence of foreign workers also complicates local workers' perceptions of workplace fairness (Hooi, 2016). Turnover intention among the local workers would likely to heighten if management does not realise the workers' views and ensure fairness and harmony of the work environment (Hooi, 2016).

Taking these factors into consideration, the perceptions and affective responses towards the PM system of this work group are important and warrant attention from the researchers. It may be imperative for organisations to provide handsome wages and adequate trainings, to practise lean manufacturing or to invest in sophisticated equipment; nonetheless, organisations should not neglect the need to understand the organisational climate and the workers' psychological well-being that fosters high productivity and long term employment (Bernardin & Beatty, 1984).

2.5 Chapter summary

The chapter provides a contextual overview of the sample of the thesis. As a major contributor to national GDP, the manufacturing sector is a sector of workers that needs focus. Being the largest workforce in the country, the well-being of this work group of highly marginalised workers bear significant implications to the country's continued growth and economic development. Previous surveys have informed that in general, the PM systems of the Malaysian manufacturing companies are rather

conventional and not well-managed, if not neglected. Furthermore, no research has been found that examined the general workers' perceptions of PM systems and the corresponding affective and attitudinal responses. The current study signifies a pioneering effort to investigate general workers' perceptions of and affective responses to PM system in the Malaysian context.

CHAPTER 3 DEVELOPMENT OF THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Chapter overview

The purpose of this chapter is to delineate the fundamental concepts of the key theories employed in this thesis – the Affective Events Theory (AET) and the theory of organisational justice that lead to the development of the conceptual framework used in the current study. This chapter also discusses the literature that supports and justifies the proposed conceptual framework.

3.2 Affective Event Theory (AET)

The AET proposed by Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) looks at the causes, structures and consequences of affective experience at work. In contrast to earlier works which focus on job characteristics and employees' cognitive evaluation of jobs (Fisher & Ashkanasy, 2000), AET suggests an approach to research affects in the workplace, in particular linking affective events, affective responses, work attitudes or behaviours and personal affectivity in a model. This framework is adopted for conducting the current thesis.

AET posits that the work environment predisposes certain events on the job which lead to certain affective reactions, and the cumulative affective reactions will then influence work attitudes and behaviours (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). An example using a fireman's job profile can be used to explain the AET model as depicted in Figure 1. Due to the job nature of a fireman, the events often involve urgency, as they are expected to be on-call at all times to save lives. These *affective events* may then cause the fireman to feel tired, helpless or a sense of accomplishment,

which are the examples of *affective* reactions. AET further proposes that affective reactions cause almost immediate influence on *affect-driven behaviours*, while *judgment-driven behaviours* require accumulation of affective responses to be apparent (Grandey et al., 2002). Based on the fireman example, feeling of tiredness may cause the fireman feeling demoralised momentarily (affect-drive behaviour). The frequent feeling of helplessness may cause the fireman to doubt his ability (attitude towards his work) and eventually to quit his job (judgment-driven behaviour).

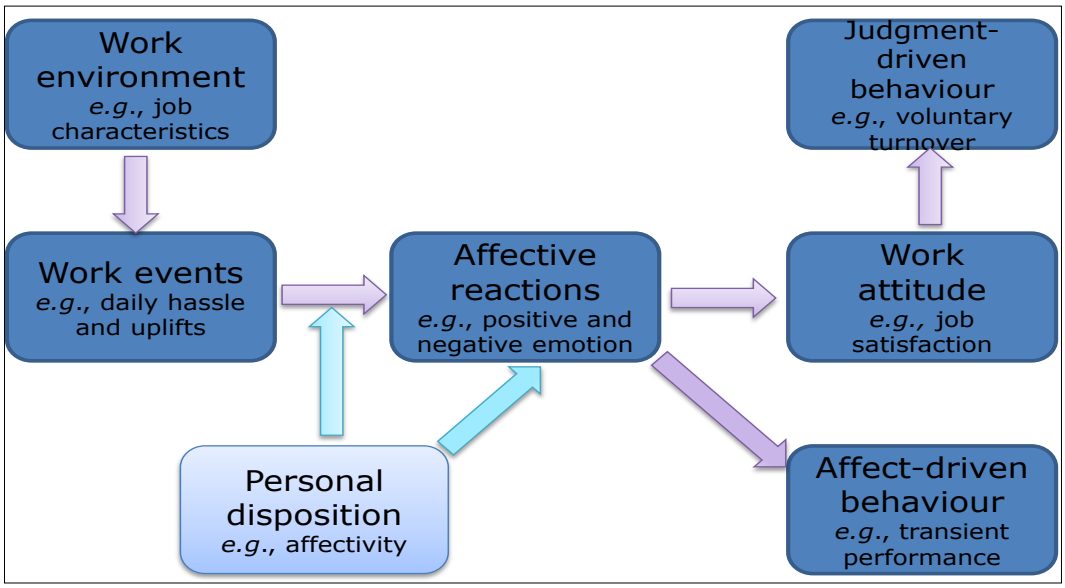


Figure 1. Diagram of the AET model. Adapted from Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) and Ashkanasy and Daus (2001)

The model also asserts that an individual's *affectivity* influences how an individual respond to events. For example, an individual who is high in negative affectivity tends to see events more negatively and elicit strong negative emotions. Conversely, an individual who is high in positive affectivity tends to see events more positively and elicit strong positive emotions. Returning to the fireman example, a fireman with high positive affectivity may see fire incidents as challenges to test his skills. He may feel accomplished for putting out fires and eventually be more motivated to come for duty. Conversely, a fireman with high negative affectivity may

see fire incidents as tiring and draining, and may eventually feel reluctant to come for duty even consider leaving the job permanently. The following section describes the concepts of the terms based on the AET and its provisions for conducting this research.

3.2.1 Affective events, affective reactions and affectivity

Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) defined an event as “an important happening that occurs in a certain place during a particular period of time” (p.31). Specifically, the definition referred to events that have affective significance that generate emotional responses amongst individuals. However, this definition did not take into the consideration of the perceivers (Basch & Fisher, 2000). According to cognitive appraisal theory (Lazarus, 1991), the same event does not always cause identical emotions across individuals and people are only likely to feel the same emotions if their appraisals of an event are the same. It is the evaluations and interpretations, rather than events per se, determine the emotion that is experienced (Roseman & Evdokas, 2004; Roseman, Spindel, & Jose, 1990).

Accordingly, the researcher adopted the definition offered by Basch and Fisher (2000) for this study. The authors defined an event as “an incident that stimulates appraisal of and emotional reaction to a transitory or ongoing job-related agent, object or occurrence” (p.3). This definition covers a larger array of factors capable of causing affective events (i.e., person, object and occurrence) and specifies clearly the outcome of affective events, i.e., emotional responses. For example, when an employee says that he was angry because “My boss did not approve my leave application,” he was appraising his boss as an agent (person) whose action triggered the anger. The employee who says, "Why the company relocates me? This is unfair!"

appraises the organisation as an object that caused the emotion anger. When an employee says that he is "optimistic about a promotion year-end," he is appraising an actual or anticipated occurrence (promotion) that triggers the optimistic emotion. This is suggested that in this study, any person such as top management, object such as organisation or occurrence such as implementation of a policy would be included as part of an event.

Compare to previous research on emotions (e.g., Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959), the AET stresses the distinction between moods and discrete emotions. The former is an overall background affective state, which is either positive or negative (may vary in intensity) and tend to be relatively stable and regular over time. As opposed to moods, discrete emotions are event-dependent and triggered, short-lived, rapidly changing and intense (Frijda, 1993; Parkinson, 1995). As a form of state affect, discrete emotions are believed to have unique relational themes, antecedents and outcomes from other emotions of the same valence[3] (Bunk & Magley, 2013; Cohen-Charash & Byrne, 2008; Grandey et al., 2002). For example, fear and anger are of negative valence but have slight distinctive characteristics. Fear is characterised by uncertainty, lack of control and existential threat based on the appraisal of an event that is anticipated to occur in the future (Briner & Kiefer, 2005; Lerner & Keltner, 2000). Meanwhile, anger is a response to a loss or lack of reward that is attributed to the causal action of another agent (Kaplan et al., 2012). The distinction between the emotions of fear and anger is significant because of the unique cognitive and behavioural motivations that follow. Fearful people make pessimistic judgments whereas angry people make optimistic judgments about future happenings

[3] Valence is an overarching concept covering both pleasantness (intrinsic valence) and goal congruence (extrinsic valence) which is the appraisal of an event as merely positive or negative (Scherer & Moors, 2019).

(Lerner & Keltner, 2000). Essentially, the AET emphasises the importance of studying specific events (rather than overall work environment) and the subsequent discrete emotions (rather than moods) (Ashkanasy & Dorris, 2017; Totterdell & Niven, 2014).

The variable affectivity is also part of the AET model. Affectivity is a habit or a tendency to act in a specified way. It is also called *trait affectivity* or *disposition*. Individuals with dissimilar affectivity react differently to affective events and environment. Researchers generally believe that affectivity predicts individuals' judgments through its influence on perception formation, meaning people high in negative affectivity tend to see the world in a more negative way (Barsky & Kaplan, 2007). In terms of emotional responses, individuals who are high in negative affectivity are more likely to report distress, discomfort and dissatisfaction over time, regardless of the situation, even without trigger from any overt source of stress (Watson & Clark, 1984). Additionally, it was reported that individuals with higher negative affectivity demonstrated slower return to baseline mood (Staw, Bell, & Clausen, 1986; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988).Watson and Clark (1984) pooled test-retest reliability data from a separate study and showed that (negative) affectivity remained stable for about six months, with some drop-off afterwards, but the reliability approximated 0.60 at one to two years later. Affectivity is relatively stable across time and situations (Watson, 2000).

3.3 Integrating perception of fairness to the AET model

The AET model postulates that emotion exerts a direct influence on work attitude. Relevant literature has shown that emotions have been good predictors of personal performance (e.g., Beal, Weiss, Barros, & MacDermid, 2005), judgment about

fairness (e.g., Barclay, Skarlicki, & Pugh, 2005; Paterson & Cary, 2002; Sinclair & Mark, 1991; Van den Bos, 2003), job outcome such as job satisfaction (e.g., Basch & Fisher, 2000; Todorova, Bear, & Weingart, 2014), and workplace deviant behaviour (e.g., Judge, Scott, & Ilies, 2006). However, the causal link of emotion-work behaviour has yet to be fully validated empirically (Ashkanasy, Härtel, & Daus, 2002; Barclay et al., 2005; George, 1991; Madjar, Oldham, & Pratt, 2002; Mignonac & Herrbach, 2005; Paterson & Cary, 2002; Staw, Sutton, & Pelled, 1994) and therefore, lacks a solid theoretical explanation how emotions influence work attitudes.

To shed light on the mechanism of the causal relationships between emotions and work attitudes, several studies integrating the AET and other theories were made (Ahmed, 2019; Ouweneel, Le Blanc, Schaufeli, & Van Wijhe, 2012; Pan, S., Xia, Y., & Lin, K. J., 2020). Among these studies, Ouweneel et al. (2012) integrated of Broaden-and-Build theory (Fredrickson, 2001) and the AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) in testing work-related hope as the mediator of the relationship between positive emotions and work engagement This model focused on a specific affective state acting as a mediator between emotions and work attitude. In a more recent study building on the AET and social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954), Ahmed (2019) tested the mediation role of work motivation in the causal relationship between benign envy and subjective career success. Considering that work attitudes consist of both affective and cognitive components (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012), the researcher proposed integrating a cognitive variable into the current AET model as a mediator to help clarify the nature about the causal relationship between affective responses and work attitudes (Mackinnon, Krull, & Lockwood, 2000).

Drawing from the organisational justice theory (Greenberg, 1990b), perception of fairness offers a cognitive perspective to explain the effects of affective responses on work attitudes. Additionally, the researcher took into consideration the scholarly works of organisational justice that argued that incorporating perception of fairness into the study of affect could yield new insights regarding the interplay amongst these constructs (Cohen-Charash & Byrne, 2008; Thoresen, Kaplan, Barsky, & Warren, 2003). An increasing amount of literature investigating both affects and perceptions of fairness together (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Harlos & Pinder, 2000) pointed to the viability of integrating the perception of fairness as a mediator to the relationship between affective responses and work attitudes. Essentially, the construct of perception of fairness is viable conceptually to be integrated to the AET model. The following section examines the importance and the role of perception of fairness in the context of the PM system, to further justify the inclusion of this construct to the current study.

3.3.1 The importance and relevance of perception of fairness to the PM system

Reactions to the PM system have shown to significantly influence the effectiveness and the overall success of the PM systems (Bernardin & Beatty, 1984; Cardy & Dobbins, 1994; Carroll & Scheier, 1982; Harrington & Lee, 2015; Murphy & Cleveland, 1991)**.** The notion of fairness has been identified as one of the most important aspects of ratees' reactions (Erdogan, 2002; Jawahar, 2007; Maharvi et al., 2014; Sharma, Sharma, & Agarwal, 2016). Studies have suggested that the more employees perceived their PM system as fair, the more they are likely to report higher levels of trust and satisfaction with the system (Gabris & Ihrke, 2000; Hedge & Teachout, 2000; Mani, 2002; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000).

A performance appraisal justice is a subsection of the broader concept of organisational justice that refers to the fairness of the entire job PM processes, including establishment of performance standards and goals, appraisal-related behaviours of raters within the PA session, determination of performance rating, and communication of the rating to the ratees (Gupta & Kumar, 2013). In the context of the performance appraisal, Folger, Konovsky and Cropanzano (1992)**'s** due process model demonstrates how the characteristics of a PM system pertain to fairness. The model consists of three key components: adequate notice, a fair hearing and judgment based on evidence. For job PA, providing adequate notice involves informing ratees about the procedures and implication of the outcomes (e.g., salary, promotion and training needs) that could affect their income and career development (Gupta & Kumar, 2013; Latham, Almost, Mann, & Moore, 2005; Phuong, 2018). Adequate notice also means that the ratees must be given performance feedback on a regular and timely basis (Clarke et al., 2013). If a PM process has such characteristics, it is more likely to be seen as fair, even if the ratee receives relatively poor performance appraisals (Schleicher, Baumann, Sullivan, Levy, & Barros-rivera, 2018; Taylor, Tracy, Renard, Harrison, & Carroll, 1995). In the PM context, a fair hearing typically means that the ratees have a chance to engage in a two-way conversation about the appraisals with the raters. A fair hearing provides the ratees with an opportunity to express their feelings about the appraisals, have their *voices* in the decision-making process and consequently, being heard and considered (Erdogan, 2002; Phuong, 2018). The third element of due process is judgment based on evidence. To meet this criterion, the raters need to demonstrate that their appraisal ratings are based on hard data (e.g., attendance, complaints from customers and output records) clearly related to performance, rather than on the prejudices or predilections (Erdogan, Kraimer, &

Liden, 2001). The objectivity and accuracy of such evidence help to ensure that ratings are perceived as valid and impersonal (Thurston & McNall, 2010).

A review conducted by Levy et al. (2015) concluded that there have been ample findings supporting the impact of fairness-related concepts on the PM processes and outcomes. For instance, Moliner, Martinez-Tur, Ramos, Peiro and Cropanzano (2008) summarised the harmful impact of injustice caused by the PM system into three main motives - instrument, relational and moral. First, the unfair implementation of PA criteria makes it difficult to differentiate the workers' performance. This unfair situation defeats the function of a PM system, in which it should measure actual job performance. Second, unfair treatment of a supervisor sends out a message that the worker is not valued by the team or the organisation. This can be detrimental to the work relationships. Third, the concept of justice is congruous with our moral practice; often the justification of certain events is wanted. Injustice, however, means a violation of norm (Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel, & Rupp, 2001). In light of its relevance to and critical role in PM system, it is therefore warranted to integrate the ratees' perception of fairness to the AET model.

Although job PA represents infrequent event(s) in the workplace, it has a huge impact on employees. Performance appraisals offer supervisors the opportunity to give performance feedback, agree on work goals, establish a basis for promotion and salary decisions, as well as discuss employees' career prospects. These activities, in turn, have strong implications for employees' compensations and career development in the organisations, which influences their work attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction) (e.g., Ogbechie & Adefisayo, 2018) and behaviours (e.g., counter work behaviours) (e.g., Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). Thus, a sense of fairness in relation to the PA is important for employees.

3.4 Theory of organisational justice

The perception of fairness in the current study was conceptualised according to the theory of organisational justice (Greenberg, 1986). Organisational justice refers to a worker's perception of fairness in organisations alongside associated cognition, emotions and behaviours. The most established organisational justice concepts are referred to three distinct forms of justice – distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001).

3.4.1 Distributive justice

Distributive justice refers to people's perceptions of fair distribution of rewards or resources. The rewards can be tangible such as money and non-tangible such as recognition. In the PA context, this dimension is related to the perceived fairness of performance ratings or rewards received by the employees.

Distributive justice is associated with "Did I receive a fair share of cake?" Adams' equity theory (1965) is the principal approach of distributive justice. Equity theory proposes that employees seek to maintain equity of output over input ratio (see Equation 1) by comparing against the others. The employees may compare themselves to specific co-workers, industry standards or oneself at earlier point in time. Through these comparisons, an individual may perceive that he or she is either under-rewarded or over-rewarded and thus, determine the level of fairness. Being under-rewarded can lead to negative emotions such as anger and distress (Tepper, 2001), whereas over-rewarded can lead to guilt (Hegtvedt, 1990). Due to this undesirable feeling, according to equity theory, the employees strive to change this imbalance by modifying their future efforts, performance and behaviour (Greenberg,

1990b). When an employee finds that he is inequitably overpaid or underpaid, he will increase or reduce his input or performance in the future.

$$\frac{\text{individual's output}}{\text{individual's input}} = \text{ratio} \quad (1)$$

(Adams, 1965)

3.4.2 Procedural justice

Another type of organisational justice is called procedural justice. Procedural justice is the perceived fairness of how outcomes are derived. Applying procedural justice to the PM system, procedural justice is defined as the perceived fairness of processes and procedures, which the organisations use to evaluate the employees' performance and hence, determine the PA outcomes (Greenberg, 1986). There are two important theories which explain the conceptualisation and importance of procedural justice theory.

Thibaut and Walker's control theory (1975) states that people have a desire to control what happens to them. The researchers conducted a series of studies to compare the subjects' desires to control in a dispute-resolution context. Thibaut and Walker found that the procedures that were perceived to be the fairest were the ones that granted the disputants the process control; although the outcome (verdict) was left to a third party such as judges or mediators. Further studies have demonstrated that workers perceive the situation to be more fair if they are given an opportunity to voice out their opinions in the PM system (Cawley, Keeping, & Levy, 1998; Folger et al., 1992; Greenberg, 1986; Korsgaard & Roberson, 1995; Shrivastava & Purang, 2011).

Although Thibaut and Walker's procedural justice model tells how people react to different processes of deriving outcomes, Leventhal's allocation preference theory tells what thinking process people will use to achieve justice (Leventhal,

Karuza, & Fry, 1980). Allocation preference theory raised six specific criteria to direct PAs in order to promote and increase the employees' perceptions of fairness (Heslin & Vandewalle, 2009). They were the rules of consistency (e.g., the process is applied consistently across persons and time), bias suppression (e.g., decision makers are neutral), accuracy (e.g., procedures are based on accurate information), correctability (e.g., appeal procedures exist for correcting bad outcomes), representation (e.g., all groups affected by the decision are heard from), and ethicality (e.g., the process is congruent with personal values and morality). Applying this theory to the PM system, it requires the procedures of PM are applied consistently, rely on accurate information, representative of the concerns of the workers, without biases, provide ways to modify the appraisal decision, and adhere to moral standards (Greenberg, 1986).

3.4.3. Interactional justice

Bies and Moag (1986) introduced the notion of interactional justice to explain how people who receive explanations in a respectful and dignified manner are more likely to perceive the process to be fair. Consequently, people will feel unfairly treated when they believe that these expectations have been violated, triggering feelings of moral outrage and righteous indignation. According to Bies and Moag, interactional justice has four essential rules including justification (e.g., explaining the basis for decisions), truthfulness (e.g., an authority figure being honest and open), respect (e.g., being polite), and propriety (e.g., refraining from improper remarks or prejudicial statements).

Greenberg (1993b) proposed that interactional justice consist of two factors-interpersonal and informational. Interpersonal justice involves treating subordinates

with dignity and respect by supervisors. Informational justice on the other hand involves giving subordinates a clear and thorough explanation about the procedures used to decide the outcomes. Although conceptually distinct, these two sub-dimensions are correlated (Colquitt, 2001).

In the organisational justice literature, there is a continuous argument about the independence of types of organisational justice. Some studies have revealed high correlations between the distributive and procedural justice, suggesting that they may not be distinctive in the minds of many people and may sometimes be overemphasised (Colquitt, 2001; Folger, 1987; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993; Welbourne, Balkin, & Gomez-Mejia, 1995). The construct discrimination between procedural and interactional justice, however, is debated to a greater extent. Bies and Moag (1986) originally presented interactional justice to be a third type of justice, but retracted their position in a subsequent review (Bies, 2001, 2005; Tyler & Bies, 1990). Taking into consideration of this view, researchers treated interactional justice as a social form of procedural justice (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). Nevertheless, later research demonstrated different correlations and independent effects, thus demonstrating the distinctiveness of procedural and interactional justice (e.g., Colquitt, 2001; Cropanzano, Prehar, & Chen, 2002; Moorman, 1991). Bies (2001) and Bies (2005) maintained the distinction between interactional and procedural justice and stressed that it is theoretically and analytically necessary to notice the distinction.

Researchers further questioned whether interpersonal and informational justice was conceptually different. Greenberg (1993b) suggested that interpersonal and informational justice should be of two facets because they were logically distinctive and had been shown to have independent effects. While informational justice is "providing knowledge about procedures that demonstrate regards for people's

concerns" (p.84), interpersonal justice is "showing concern for individuals regarding the distributive outcome they receive" (p.85). Nevertheless, Nicklin, McNall, Cerasoli, Strahan and Cavanaugh (2014) argued that often in the workplace, outcomes occur in a social environment might blur the lines among different types of justices, as the social environment would be included in the workers' fairness schemas. A corollary of this is that interpersonal and informational justice is heavily influenced by the sample and context. In the current study, the researcher adopted a four-factor organisational justice model, to begin with. This was made aligned with a meta-analysis done by Colquitt and team (2001), in which the results had suggested that different justice dimensions contributed to the incremental variance explained in fairness perceptions.

3.5 Interplay among emotion, work attitude and perception of fairness

Organisational justice is frequently examined within an affective event framework. The literature review has shown that basically there are three streams of research examining the relationships of these two constructs (Cohen-Charash & Byrne, 2008) . For the first stream of research, individuals formulate fairness perceptions by applying rules to events and affective responses occur afterwards, which in turn influence work attitudes or behaviours. The second stream of research focuses on studies in which affective responses and justice have been studied as an interaction that influences various work attitudes. The works of the third stream of research are based on a framework that individuals respond with affects to events before formulating fairness perceptions which subsequently influence their work attitudes.

The majority of the research examining the relationship between justice and affect looks at justice as a predictor of affective reactions (Cohen-Charash & Byrne,

2008). The literature has revealed that different types of justices (i.e., distributive, procedural and interactional) elicited different discrete emotions (Barclay et al., 2005; De Clercq & Saridakis, 2015; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985; Weiss, Suckow, & Cropanzano, 1999), and anger being the most common response to an act of injustice (De Clercq & Saridakis, 2015; Fitness, 2000; Mikula, 1986; Rupp & Spencer, 2006). For instance, in studying 845 adults who were recently terminated from their jobs, Goldman (2003) found that those who experienced low levels of distributive, procedural and interactional justice jointly expressed the highest level of anger. Subsequently, these feelings significantly predicted legal claiming action. Such fairness-affect relationship has also been examined in other major organisational cases such as layoff and downsizing. Paterson and Cary (2002) showed that interactional justice was a significant mediator in the relationship between change communication quality and trust in managers. In a similar context, Bohle, Chambel and Diaz-valdes Iriarte (2018) demonstrated a significant correlation between perception of procedural justice and negative and positive affect in an organisational downsizing activity from four organisations in Chile.

Studies on CWB is another field that has shown a significant correlation with perception of (in)justice (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997) and negative emotions (Matta, Erol-Korkmaz, Johnson, & Biçaksiz, 2014; Yang & Diefendorff, 2009). From a distributive justice perspective, CWB can be seen as reactions to perceived injustice, like when an employee changes his/her input to restore equity (Greenberg, 1993a). Thus, employees will develop negative attitudes towards the organisations or the doers of the injustice such as experiencing mistrust (Akremi, Vandenberghe, & Camerman, 2010), hostility (Judge et al., 2006) and greater anger (Fox, Spector, &

Miles, 2001). Such negative attitudes may eventually lead them to act against the organisation (Dailey & Kirk, 1992; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997).

The second stream of studies examined how interaction effects between affect and the perception of fairness influence various outcome variables. For example, Skarlicki et al. (1997) found that interaction between distributive justice, interactional justice and negative affectivity significantly predicted retaliatory behaviour. In another study on employee deviant behaviours, Aquino, Lewis and Bradfield (1999) tested a model linking unfavourable perceptions of distributive, procedural, interactional justice and negative affectivity to deviant behaviours. It was found that the interaction between interactional justice and negative affectivity was the strongest predictor of organisational deviant behaviour. In a study of semi-privatisation of public-sector organisation, Irving, Coleman and Bobocel (2005) found a significant interaction between negative affectivity and procedural justice on the relationship between procedural justice and job satisfaction, that was the relationship between procedural justice and job satisfaction was stronger for those who were low in negative affectivity than for those who were high in negative affectivity.

The third stream of research examines affect as an antecedent to perceptions of fairness and work attitudes. In other words, perception of fairness is a mediator between affect and work attitude. As described in section 3.3, the current study assumes this theoretical framework. The following sections describe and discuss the theoretical perspectives and the empirical studies of taking affective reaction as an antecedent of perception of fairness and work attitude. Accordingly, the rationale of placing perception of fairness as a mediator in the context of the PM system is explained.

3.5.1 Perception of fairness as a mediator between affective responses and work attitudes

Considerable research has supported the notion that people's affects influence their cognitions and judgments. For example, people's affective states influence their interpretations of information (e.g., Schwarz, 1990; Van den Bos, 2003), memory retrieval of associated cognitions (e.g., Bower, 1981), information processing (e.g., Forgas & George, 2001), attitudes (e.g., Petty, DeSteno, & Rucker, 2001), and fairness judgment (e.g., Sinclair & Mark, 1991, 1992) among the others. In these studies, it was presumed that individuals naturally and automatically experience affects and such affective responses catalyse appraisals of justice or injustice that can lead to subsequent appropriate behaviour in organisations (Folger, Cropanzano, & Goldman, 2005). As asserted by Scher and Heise (1993), "… that justice is not calculated unless the actor feels a justice-related emotion (anger or guilt)" (p.223). Several theories offer explanations on how affects can influence our cognition and judgment.

People's affects can influence their judgments in an affect-consistent direction either directly (Schwarz, 2012) or indirectly (Bower, 1981; Bower & Forgas, 2001). Research on affect-as-information theory has found that affects can directly influence people's judgments when they consult their current affective state to determine their appraisal of an event. Stated differently, affect serves as a source of information in forming an evaluative judgment (Schwarz, 1990; Schwarz, 2012). Supportive of affect-as-information theory, in a cross-sectional data collection, Byrne, Rupp and Eurich (2003) examined the effects of discrete emotions (happiness, anger, pride and resentment) on 504 students' perceptions of distributive, procedural and interactional justice. Results revealed that happy and proud participants rated all three forms of

fairness significantly higher than angry and resentful participants. Van den Bos (2003) experimentally manipulated affects and found that under the conditions of information uncertainty, the affective state that an individual experienced before an event indeed strongly influenced his judgment about justice. Individuals consistently rated procedures as more fair when in a positive affective state and less fair when in a negative affective state for individuals who were uncertain of the procedures. Bower (1981) and Bower and Forgas (2001) explained affect-congruent phenomenon from an information processing view. According to the researchers, people's judgment can be indirectly influenced by affective priming. The studies on affective priming topic explain that people's emotional states make certain perceptual categories and interpretations that are congruent with their emotional state. The mental representation then acts as interpretative filter and colours people's judgment.

The literature has also shown that affective state would influence the relative endorsement of egalitarian-based and equity-based justice. In the experiment conducted by Van den Bos (2003), participants who were in a positive affective state preferred equality and those in a negative affective state preferred equity rules of justice. Van den Bos's finding was consistent with Sinclair and Mark (1991), which found that people's affective states can bias their fairness judgments. Sinclair and Mark (1991, 1992) found out that affective states exert an influence on the participants' preference for equality versus equity when distributing resources, specifically being in a positive state showed more endorsement of egalitarian macrojustice than those being in a negative state. Inness, Desmarais and Day (2005) also supported the phenomenon that individuals in a positive affective state prefer equality and those in a negative affective state prefer equity rules of justice. Wiesenfeld, Swann and Brockner (2006), cited in Cohen-Charash and Byrne (2008)

investigated how two specific emotions, empathy and *schadenfreude* (i.e., being happy about someone else's bad fortune), influenced people's perception of fairness. It was found that when people empathised with the others, they perceived over-reward to the others as fair, but when people felt *schadenfreude* towards the others, they perceive under-reward to the others as fair. Mullen (2016) holds the view that people in a positive affective state tend to process information less carefully and differentiate less between individuals; therefore allocating resources equally. On the other hand, people in a negative affective state tend to process information more carefully and differentiate between individuals clearly; therefore allocating according to equity principles.

Similarly, affect infusion theory delineates such scenarios in terms of people's depth of information processing (Forgas & George, 2001). The affect infusion theory states that the influence of affective states on our judgments and behaviours depends on the kind of information processing strategies people adopt in a particular situation. Negative affect signals to people that there is a problem with an event or in the environment; therefore, leading people to engage in more careful, systematic processing of the situation. Furthermore, elaborate information processing is to be influenced by affect because affect selectively primes affect-related thoughts and memories to be used when constructing a response. Conversely, positive affect signals to people that everything is normal for them or in the environment; therefore, leading the people to engage in more spontaneous, heuristic, top-down processing of the situation, and rely more on their general knowledge structures. Henceforth, there is little or no influence by affect. In summary, several theories have been put forth by scholars supporting that affect precedes and influences formation of fairness perception, and explaining the mechanism of the influence. Various models have

highlighted the fact that influence of affect on cognition is particularly salient in situations that are complex yet incomplete information is available. As such, the decision-making processes in work settings are likely to be significantly influenced by the affective states of organisation leaders and employees alike (Ashkanasy & Ashton-James, 2005).

More recent research has extended our knowledge in the affect-justice field suggesting that negatively-valenced emotions vary in terms of how they influence information processing (Bodenhausen, Kramer, & Siisser, 1994; Cohen-Charash & Byrne, 2008; Desteno, Petty, Wegener, & Rucker, 2000; Lerner & Keltner, 2000; Tiedens & Linton, 2001). For example, although anger and sadness are of the same negative valence, they have been shown to have contrasting effects on people's information processing strategies. Specifically, anger has been associated with more heuristic information processing whereas sadness has been associated with more substantive information processing (Bodenhausen, Sheppard & Kramer, 1994). Relating these findings to the workplace, the causes and work outcomes associated with anger may differ from those outcomes associated with sadness (Van Katwyk, Fox, Spector, & Kelloway, 2000). Therefore, it was predicted that different discrete emotions would demonstrate different correlational relations with the work attitudes examined in the current study.

Moving to the relations with work attitudes, the results of empirical studies pointed to the direction that emotions catalysed appraisal of fair/unfair events and led to certain work behaviours. Thiel, Hill, Griffith and Connelly (2016) studied the constructs of affect and perception of fairness using AET framework. In this experiment, the researchers simulated sanctioned political acts vs. nonsanctioned political acts by leaders. It was hypothesised and demonstrated that the sanctioned

political act was correlated to distributive and procedural justice mediated by positive affect. Schaubroeck and Lam (2004) found that envy influenced promotee likability both directly and indirectly through perceived reward injustice (distributive injustice).

Prior research examining fairness as a mediator of the relationship between emotions and reactions (such as work attitudes) is comparatively limited, and the scarcity of such studies is surprising, given that philosophers, e.g., Solomon (1989) and researchers, e.g., Mikula (1986) described emotions as core components of the experience of injustice. In recent years, researchers have stressed the need to study more predictors of justice perceptions at the personal and organisation levels (Barsky, Kaplan, & Beal, 2010; Cohen-Charash & Byrne, 2008; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Mullen, 2016), and affective state appears to be a reasonable predictor. This can be seen in the case of employees coming to work with pre-existing emotions and then experience events which they need to appraise to be fair or unfair (Cohen-Charash & Byrne, 2008).

Although the direction of the affect-fairness relationship is still debatable, we can conclude that these two constructs are highly related. Neuroimaging evidence indicated the activation of emotionally relevant brain structures when people make fairness judgment (Greene & Haidt, 2002). Henceforth, adding perception of fairness into a theoretical model, conceptually and empirically are supported by theories and empirical studies. Furthermore, as briefed in section 3.2.1, although the AET model emphasises affective responses, work attitudes are made up of both affect and cognition components; thus the AET offers a useful framework to integrate affective responses and perception of fairness (a cognitive construct) into a single theoretical framework to understand workers' work attitudes.

The current study tested the plausibility of a model that integrates fairness perceptions in the AET framework to explain the relationship between emotions and work attitudes. The modified model (Figure 2) adapts the structure of the AET by including perception of fairness to represent the additional effect of cognition on work attitudes. The modified framework proposes that emotion influences perception of fairness, which in turn influences worker's work attitudes.

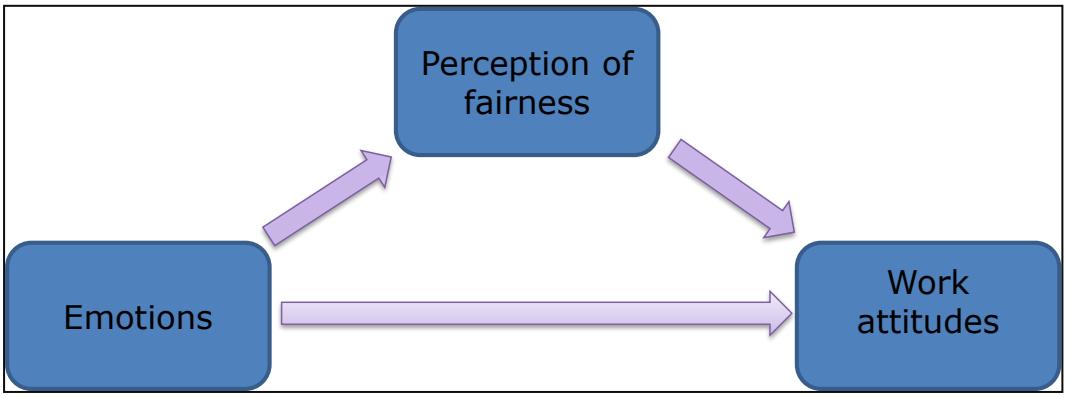


Figure 2. Proposed model of this thesis which includes perception of fairness

3.6 Chapter summary

The aforementioned review of the main theories, i.e., AET and organisational justice, has been instrumental in the development of the proposed conceptual model in the current study. In essence, the AET provides a framework to study the relationships between the constructs of affective event, emotion, perception of fairness and work attitude in the workplace. Organisational justice theory and relevant empirical studies strongly suggest the viability to study workers' perceptions of fairness using the AET model as a framework. Henceforth, the revised model examined both cognitive and psychological constructs simultaneously, attempted to expand knowledge of the said relationships.

CHAPTER 4 AFFECTIVE EVENT, EMOTION, WORK ATTITTUDE AND PERCEPTION OF FAIRNESS – A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

4.1 Chapter overview

Following the aforementioned research framework, this chapter progresses to discuss the constructs and the relationships of the revised AET model. The chapter begins with a review of the literature of affective events and associated emotions during PM processes. The relationships between negative emotion, perception of fairness and the studied work attitudes (acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention) are discussed. This is followed by a review of the literature surrounding the moderator (negative affectivity). The research gaps are identified as the review of literature unfolds. The chapter concludes with a brief discussion of the research objectives and hypotheses.

4.2 Affective events and affective responses during PM processes

By integrating the AET model and organisational justice theory, the researcher proposed that affective events related to PM system would elicit emotional reactions from workers which in turn influence their work attitudes via perception of fairness. The literature review will be introduced using the following order: (1) the relationship between event and affective response, (2) the relationship between affective response and perception of fairness, (3) the relationship between perception of fairness and work attitude, and (4) the direct relationship between affective response and work attitude. The relationships are represented in Figure 3. Since the relationship (2) has been discussed in Chapter 3, it will not be repeated in this chapter.

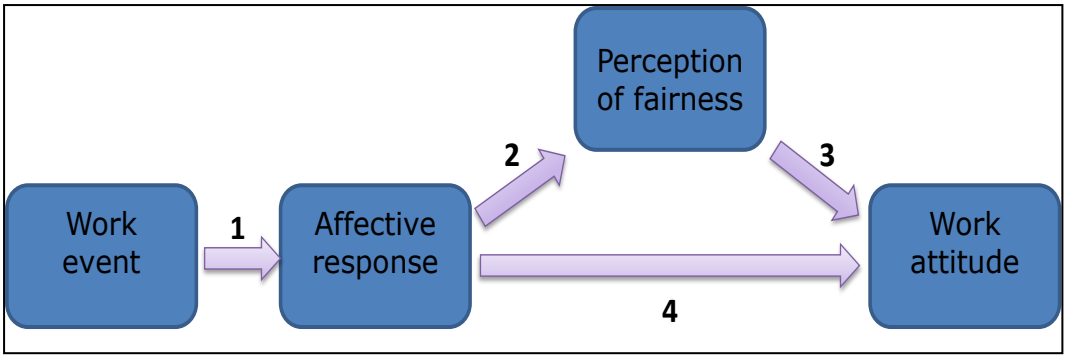


Figure 3. The revised AET model with individual path identified

Several published works have revealed PM system as a major source of affective events in the workplace (e.g., Basch & Fisher, 2000; Grandey, Tam, & Brauburger, 2002; Ilies, De Pater, & Judge, 2006; Lam, Yik, & Schaubroeck, 2002; Mitchell, 2010b). In the seminal work by Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959), six out of 16 frequently quoted categories were directly and indirectly related to PM system. These included achievement, recognition, career advancement, problems with supervisor, company policy and compensation. Similarly, findings from Basch and Fisher (2000) have linked PM system to the attribution of affective events in the workplace. Using a sample of 101 hotel employees, they reported hundreds of positive and negative affective events that caused the respondents to experience 20 preselected emotions at work (10 negative and 10 positive emotions). Among those, the most frequently reported affective events were related to goal achievement and receiving recognition.

Findings from the workplace affect literature that focused on specific aspects of PM systems echoed the themes found in the earlier studies and further added insights to affective event scholarship. These aspects include performance feedback (e.g., David, 2013; Mitchell, 2010a), leader-subordinate interaction during performance appraisal (e.g., Glasø & Einarsen, 2006; Tschan, Semmer, Messerli, & Janevski, 2010) and goal achievement/progress/setting (e.g., Bouskila-Yam & Kluger,

2011; Zohar, Tzischinski, & Epstein, 2003). In terms of performance feedback, studies have pointed out that this aspect is a difficult, delicate and emotional process (Baron, 1988; Geddes & Baron, 1997; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). Upon receiving performance feedback, workers' first reaction is likely to be emotional rather than cognitive (London & Smither, 2002). This is especially true when the feedback is narrative rather than numerical, given that narrative is more detailed and personal in nature (Brutus, 2009). Generally, negative valence feedback would evoke negative feelings (David, 2013; Kernis & Johnson, 1990; Sargeant et al., 2008). Using appraisal theory, Mitchell (2010b) showed that different characteristics of feedback contents would engender different discrete emotions, and anger was commonly mentioned. Anger was also frequently reported in other studies of performance feedback (Baron, 1988; Brett & Atwater, 2001; Kernis & Johnson, 1990; Sargeant et al., 2008). However, Baron (1988) contended that negative feedback that was specific, delivered promptly, and considerate in nature was better accepted than feedback that was general, delayed, and did not allow external attribution. In sum, the literature concerning ratees' reaction, as well as characteristics and delivery manner of performance feedback have substantiated the role of performance feedback in elicitation of affective responses.

The literature around leader-subordinate interactions in PA setting has also revealed profuse affect exchange during PA processes (e.g., Amabile et al., 2004; Dasborough, 2006; Pichler, 2012; Tschan et al., 2010). In an early work on stressful events in the workplace, Parkes (1986) reported that the main source of interpersonal stress for first-year student nurses was getting reprimands from the senior nurses. In a study on leadership behaviours, Amabile et al. (2004) also reported several events related to PA causing distress among the subordinates. These events included

“changing objectives too often”, “inadequate understanding of subordinates’ capability” and “providing non-constructive negative feedback on work done”. In a similar study that examined leaders’ behaviours by Dasborough (2006), the most common negative events revolved around cases of inappropriate communication in providing feedback. This was further supported by Matta, Erol-Korkmaz, Johnson and Biçaksiz (2014) who found that the acts of management (supervisors) were a main source of affective events and ultimately negative affective responses from the employees. They identified negative work events such as those involving interactions with supervisors (e.g., “my supervisor criticised me and blamed me for poor performance") were most frequently reported (almost 30.0% of total events) and elicited the strongest level of negative affect. The authors also found out that about 70% of the negative work events were associated with interactional fairness (involving the supervisors).

Researchers have advanced that superiors’ authority to appraise subordinates’ performances and to decide on reward distribution and promotion outcome could trigger negative emotions such as envy, especially if their decisions are perceived to be unfair (Dunn & Schweitzer, 2006). Additionally, the significance of the supervisors’ role in PA process being likely to trigger emotions which are related to being evaluated and judged, is particularly probable (e.g., fear and embarrassment) (Tschan et al., 2010). Other common emotions resulting from leader-subordinate interactions in the PA context include anger, annoyance, disappointment and frustration (Amabile et al., 2004; Dasborough, 2006; Tschan et al., 2010). In sum, the literature has suggested that leader behaviours related to the PM processes are able to trigger affective responses from the subordinates. However, it is also noted that these studies tend to focus on a few pre-selected emotions and hence, limited the collecting

of affective responses from the participants. The current study enhances the methodological procedure by employing a qualitative approach.

Goal achievement/failure is another aspect of PM system that has been studied and linked to employee affective responses (e.g., Bouskila-Yam & Kluger, 2011; Zohar et al., 2003), In line with Locke and Latham (1990, 2002)'s goal setting theory, the AET says that events are initially appraised in terms of whether they are helpful or harmful towards progress on relevant goals. If an event satisfies or is in congruent with an individual's goal, then a positive affective response is experienced. Conversely, if the event is going against an individual's goal, then negative affective response would be experienced. For instance, Basch and Fisher (2000) suggested that perceived goal progress or achievement was associated with positive affect amongst the employees. Similarly, Zohar et al. (2003) found that goal-disruptive events were followed by negative emotion while goal-enhancing events were followed by positive emotion.

Cognitive appraisal theory suggests that broad "good" vs. "bad" appraisal is followed by a secondary appraisal that considers additional details about the event (Lazarus, 1991), for example, "who is responsible for it? Is the situation getting worse or better?" Subsequently, more discrete emotions such as anger, fear and joy are formed. This could be illustrated by Tschan et al. (2010), in which it was reported that enthusiastic as a popular emotion that existed in the dyadic relationship between the supervisors and subordinates when engaging in activities related to goal attainment or when goals were achieved. These studies serve as cues for inferring the salience of goal setting in identifying affective events in the context of PM system.

The prevailing view of affective event literature has pointed out that events related to PM system are proximal causes of affective experiences (Bouskila-Yam &

Kluger, 2011; David, 2013; Tschan et al., 2010). Studies that focused on specific aspects of PM system have provided some useful but fragmented representation of the affective events related to PM system and the elicitation of emotions due to these events. What seems to be lacking, however, is a work that provides a systematic and comprehensive view on types of affective events and associated affective responses which might arise from PM processes. Therefore, the current study contributes to the corpus of literature by systematically identifying and compiling a more complete list of affective events and corresponding emotions, emphasising the Malaysian context. Moreover, the findings of the current study further add knowledge to workplace affective events and emotions research.

4.3 The relationships of acceptance of PM system with negative emotions and perception of fairness

In recent years, I/O psychologists have shifted focus to social context based research on PM system, as part of the realisation of the importance of assessing worker acceptance of PM system (Cardy & Dobbins, 1994; Levy & Williams, 2004). Acceptance of PM system is a strong indicator of how well the workers are satisfied and accepting of the system (Hedge & Teachout, 2000), which eventually affects the effectiveness of the system (Carroll & Scheier, 1982; Jawahar, 2007; Levy et al., 2017; Murphy & Cleveland, 1991). The reaction of workers is said to be the best criterion to use in evaluating PM system (Cardy & Dobbins, 1994; Keeping & Levy, 2000; Kuvaas, 2006). Keeping and Levy (2000) claimed that even the most psychometrically-sound PM system would be ineffective, if ratees (and raters) perceived it to be unreliable and invalid in making important decisions such as those pertaining to promotion and reward. Workers who felt dissatisfied would most

possibly resist or reject the outcomes of the PM system (Maharvi et al., 2014). In contrast, if workers perceived the PM system to be accurate, administered fairly (Colquitt, 2001; Wallace, Stelman, & Chaffee, 2016), and congruent with their personal goals and values (Carroll & Scheier, 1982; Roberts, 1994), they were less likely to resist its outcomes.

4.3.1 Defining and measuring acceptance of PM systems

Based on an extensive review of the literature, various definitions and measurements of acceptance of PM system are employed by the scholars in HR management, I/O psychology and organisational studies. A common way to approach acceptance of a PM system is to use the assessment of a key component of PM systems to represent workers' acceptance levels, for example perception of fairness (e.g., Gabris & Ihrke, 2000; Kim & Holzer, 2014; Landy, Barnes-Farrell, & Cleveland, 1980; Landy, Barnes, & Murphy, 1978; Mayer & Davis, 1999; Murphy & Cleveland, 1995), accuracy (e.g., Reinke, 2003; Kavanagh et. al., 1985) and acceptance of PA forms (Hedge & Teachout, 2000; Taormina & Gao, 2009). Table 1shows the description and the example of questions used to measure acceptance of PM system.

For this thesis, Kossek (1989)'s definition of acceptance of PM system is deemed most suitable for the current study for the following reasons:
(1) The questions fit the intention of the current study as it focuses on workers' perceptions about a HR program (in this case, PM system) as an overall program, not assessing certain features of the program.

Table 1

Descriptions of acceptance/acceptability of PA/PM and the items of measurement proposed by researchers

	Kavanagh et. al. (1985)	Kossek (1989)	Murphy & Cleveland (1995)	Mayer & Davis (1999)	Hedge & Teachout (2000)	Gabris & Ihrke (2000)	Reinke (2003)
Acceptance/ acceptability of PM system is described as…	Overall attitude can be described by seven factors	Employees' favourability of the system	Valid and fair appraisal	Influenced by accuracy and distributive fairness	(focuses on rating form) Influenced by six aspects of the format	Influenced by procedural and distributive fairness	Influenced by validity and distributive fairness
Items being assessed	1 Fairness and accuracy of PA 2 trust on supervisor to make accurate appraisal 3 Clear performance standards	1 Familiarity with the program 2 & 3 Importance of the system to an individual 4 Is the system well run?	1 accuracy of rating to reflect true performance 2 Fair recognition or reward for good performance	1 Accuracy 2 PA outcome (reward) acceptability	1 Facilitates identification of performance differences among employees 2 Facilitates capturing the true picture of job performance	1 Procedural fairness 2 Distributive fairness 3 Instrument validity	1 Adequacy of the system to measure employees' performance 2 System rewards good performance

Table 1 (continue)

Descriptions of acceptance/acceptability of PA/PM and the items of measurement proposed by researchers

	Kavanagh et. al. (1985)	Kossek (1989)	Murphy & Cleveland (1995)	Mayer & Davis (1999)	Hedge & Teachout (2000)	Gabris & Ihrke (2000)	Reinke (2003)
	4 Adhere to procedures 5 Co-worker input 6 (Dis)liking of PA 7 Use of other means of appraisal, e.g., job knowledge tests	5 Like the way the system was designed? 6 Prefer the system to continue? 7 Effectiveness of communication 8 Supervisor's support of the system	1 accuracy of rating to reflect true performance 2 Fair recognition or reward for good performance	1 Accuracy 2 PA outcome (reward) acceptability	3 Overall acceptability of the form 4 Ease of use and understanding 5 Facilitates confidence in ratings 6 Facilitates fair evaluation of employees	1 Procedural fairness 2 Distributive fairness 3 Instrument validity	1 Adequacy of the system to measure employees' performance 2 System rewards good performance

(2) The risk of concept and measurement confounding is lower as Kossek defined the construct of *acceptance of a HR program* clearly in the article, and the measurement scale proposed measured the definition of the construct directly (Bellavia & Frone, 2005; Harrison, 2002)[4]. Acceptance of a PM system is construed as an individual worker having a favourable attitude towards a PM system, and using a Likert format the questions assess the worker's level of favourability. No measurement of proxy is required.

(3) Kossek's measurement scale taps into the cognitive aspect (four out of six questions) and affective aspect (two out of six questions), in which they are the two main components of forming an attitude (Frese & Fay, 2001; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

4.3.2 Acceptance of PM system as a consequence of perception of fairness

Research on the relationship between fairness and reaction to job PA was encouraged by the finding of Lawler (1967) that employees' reaction towards a PA system was an important influence on the ultimate success of any PA system, and one such reaction was the perceived fairness of the PM system (Bretz et al., 1992; Erdogan, 2002; Sharma et al., 2016). Subsequent literature has established significant correlations between fairness perception and acceptance of PM system in general. Previous studies asserted that workers' acceptance of PM systems could be determined by the extent to which workers perceived their performance was fairly evaluated (Gabris & Ihrke,

[4] Conceptual or measurement confounding occurs when one or more survey questions that is used to measure a variable is repeated in another questionnaire to measure a different variable (Dalal et al., 2008). Using the current study as an illustration, if the participants' perceptions of fairness were to represent acceptance of PM system, similar questions would be asked in assessing the participants' perception of fairness as well as their acceptance level of the PM systems. This condition could inflate the correlation between these two constructs (Martinko, Harvey, & Mackey, 2014).

2000; Greenberg, 1986; Reinke, 2003; Sharma et al., 2016). In a survey involving more than 2000 US Air Force employees, Hedge and Teachout (2000) carried out a factor analysis to examine what constituted employees' perceived acceptability of PM system and affirmed that perceived appraisal fairness was a component of acceptability of PM system.

In relation to the theory of due process (section 3.3.1), the concept suggests that process characteristics are associated with perceived fairness of PM systems (Schleicher et al., 2018). Previous research supports the positive correlations between perception of fairness and acceptance of PM system (Narcisse & Harcourt, 2008; Pettijohn, Pettijohn, & d'Amico, 2001; Williams & Levy, 2000). For example, Pettijohn, Pettijohn and d'Amico (2001) found that open discussion and clear explanations of PA processes provided more opportunity for the salespersons to determine their pay rates, which in turn invoked the employees' feelings of interaction justice leading to a positive perception about the process of reward allocation. Similarly, adequate notice was described as important in Williams and Levy's (2000) study of 128 employees from three US banking institutions. The study found that perceived PA system knowledge, the goals of the PA system and the appraisal standards predicted perceptions of procedural fairness and favourability of the appraisal process. In another study by Narcisse and Harcourt (2008) among public service employees, they found support for judgement based on evidence criterion. Employees who felt dissatisfied reported that their PAs were unfair because they perceived the appraisals to be based on biased and inaccurate information. In contrast, employees who had more confidence in the PA system felt that way because they perceived the appraisals to be based on accurate data resulting from frequent meetings and frequent communications with their managers.

Another category of fairness-acceptance in the PM system relationship studies focuses on the acceptance of specific aspects of PM systems (Schleicher et al., 2019) such as acceptance of objective (e.g., Kanavagh, 2007), acceptance of goals (e.g., Shrivastava & Purang, 2011), and acceptance of feedback (e.g., Erdogan et al., 2001; Gupta & Kumar, 2013; Leung et al., 2001). Previous research findings were consistent with those examining the overall acceptance of PM system mentioned previously.

Kavanagh et al. (2007) gathered aspects of PM system from previous studies (e.g., ratee participation, knowledge of system and resource adequacy) and correlated them to ratees' perceived fairness of PA system. It was found that acceptance of objectives correlated strongly with perceived fairness. The finding supported the process control theory (Thibaut & Walker, 1975) which suggests that fairness perceptions are driven by the level of control that employees have of the PM systems. Likewise, Shrivastava and Purang (2011) compared the employees' fairness perception of PM system between the Indian public and private banks. The results showed that good practices related to goal were most frequently brought up by the employees in the private sector, and the private sector bank employees reported greater fairness and favourability with their PM systems as compared to the employees in the public sector bank.

In another study by Leung et al. (2001), fairness was correlated to acceptance of supervisory feedback. They investigated the relationships between the constructs of interpersonal fairness, procedural fairness, critical supervisory feedback, dispositional attribution of supervisor and feedback acceptance in two separate studies - an experiment and an applied workplace-based study. The studies demonstrated that

unjust interpersonal feedback and unjust formal procedure correlated negatively with feedback acceptance.

In summary, studies on general acceptance of PM system and acceptance of specific aspect of PM system have consistently showed significant relationships between employees' perceptions of fairness and acceptance of the system. Henceforth, the researcher expected to observe a strong positive relationship between the workers' perceptions of fairness and acceptance of PM system in the current study.

4.3.3 Acceptance of PM system as a consequence of emotions

A good number of studies have been published to examine on the emotion-acceptance of PM system relationship (e.g., Brett & Atwater, 2001; Sargeant, Mann, Sinclair, Van Der Vleuten, & Metsemakers, 2008; Watling & Lingard, 2012). Generally, the literature of performance feedback has suggested that negative feedback can evoke negative feelings and influence its acceptance (Brett & Atwater, 2001; Sargeant, Mann, & Ferrier, 2005). For instance, Sargeant et al. (2005) and Sargeant et al. (2008) interviewed family physicians' responses to a multisource feedback pilot program and found that respondents who perceived feedback as strongly negative felt angry, discouraged and/or surprised. Furthermore, the respondents perceived the feedback as inaccurate and incredible, negating any useful effect of such feedback. In line with feedback intervention theory (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996), receiving negative performance feedback can elicit negative emotional reactions which can interfere with feedback acceptance and use. In another study by Brett and Atwater (2001), they found that negative affective reaction (angry, judged, confused, examined, criticised and discouraged) were negatively related to perceived usefulness of feedback. The studies abovementioned have established a relationship between (overall) negative

emotions and the acceptance of feedback; thus provided a basis to test the revised AET model in the current study.

On the other hand, Reinke and Baldwin (2000), Gabris and Ihkle (2000) and Reinke (2003) examined how *trust,* as a discrete emotion had influenced the acceptance of PM system. In a survey of 125 professional employees of a county government in the USA, Gabris and Ihkle (2000) found that trust-based relationship with their immediate superiors increased employees' acceptability of the PA process as well as making the superiors' feedback of good quality. Similarly, using sample of county employees, Reinke (2003) observed the effect of trust on employees' acceptance of PA. It was found that trust was the most significant predictor, explaining 25% of the variance of employees' acceptance of PM system.

Consistent with Gabris and Ihkle (2002) and Reinke (2003), Reinke and Baldwin (2000) surveyed 595 active duty US Air Force captains and found that trust in one's superior was associated with perception of quality PA feedback. The authors explicated that trust-based relationships between superiors and subordinates are critical to achieving quality feedback sessions whereby subordinates are comfortable in dialogue about their problems, needs and emotions.

In sum, empirical studies on emotion, perception of fairness and acceptance of PM system indicate significant relationships among the constructs. Although limited discrete emotions, the observations are in line with that of overall negative emotion (e.g., Brett & Atwater, 2001) which justify the researcher's hypothesised relationships.

4.4 The relationships of work engagement with negative emotion and perception of fairness

Many researchers have sung the praises of work engagement as a key driver of individual attitudes, productivity (May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004), employee financial performance and customer loyalty (Bates, 2004; Macey, Schneider, Barbera, & Young, 2009). Engaged employees are highly energetic, self-efficacious and persistent when confronted with challenges at work (Bakker, 2017). Organisations are keen to drive their employees towards engagement because work engagement has been shown to lead to higher levels of performance (Bakker, Van Emmerik, Geurts, & Demerouti, 2010; Gruman & Saks, 2011) and improved employee well-being (Johari & Omar, 2019; Sonnentag, 2003).

In a study among 572 Dutch employees, Langelaan, Bakker, Van Doornen, and Schaufeli (2006) reported that engaged workers were well able to respond adequately to changes in environmental demands and adapted quickly to new surroundings and switched easily between activities. Furthermore, they found that highly engaged employees were less likely to experience distressing emotions such as fear, depression, and frustration that is characteristic of neurotics. Bakker et al. (2008) argued that engaged employees were high in positive emotions and active, and that the combination of these experiences was most probably the most significant driver of engagement leading to good performance. In addition, engaged workers also reported better health outcomes. Crabtree (2005) found that engaged employees were better off in terms of physical health and psychological well-being.

On the other hand, the deleterious effects of having disengaged workers have also been highlighted by previous studies (e.g., Saks 2006; Aktouf, 1992; May, Gilson & Harter, 2004). Saks (2006) observed that disengaged employees demonstrated lack

of commitment and feelings of dissatisfaction with work. According to a survey done by Gallup (Adkins, 2016), it was estimated that the 17.2% of U.S. workers who were actively disengaged incurred 2.17 days of sick days as compared to 1.25 sick days reported by engaged employees. Additionally, actively disengaged employees aged 20 to 29 years old experienced higher sick days per month compared to engaged employees of 50 to 59 years old (1.82 days vs.1.57 days).

Multiple reviews and statistics also found a link between workers' engagement at business-unit (Harter & Schmidt, 2008) and organisational levels (Macey et al., 2009). Engaged employees are more productive and perform better (Bakker, 2014), allowing organisations to gain competitive advantage (Macey, Schneider, Barbera, & Young, 2009). In their study amongst 65 firms from different industries, Macey et al. (2009) found that firms that had highly engaged employees had a greater return on assets and profitability compared to those who had disengaged employees. This trend was supported by Gallup's annual survey reporting that organisations could work best in engaging their employees to achieve earnings-per-share growth more than four times that of their competitors. Compared with organisations in the bottom quartile, those in the top quartile of engagement realised higher productivity and profitability (Harter, 2018). Moreover, companies that were endowed with an engaged workforce could not only maintain a competitive advantage but also create a healthy and amicable working atmosphere within the organisation (Anitha, 2014).

Since work engagement is more influenced by management practices and work environments rather than by workers' demographics or personality (Anitha, 2014), organisations play the pivotal role to cultivate engagement among their workers (Richman, 2006). This is exemplified by the work undertaken by Mone et al. (2011) in a large corporation, in which PM processes were conceptualised as five

major activities and each of them was framed with a set of manager behaviours shown to drive work engagement such as setting performance goals, providing ongoing feedback and giving fair and respectful treatment. Likewise, Gruman and Saks (2011) proposed an approach to PM processes that built in the key drivers of employee engagement at each stage of the PM phases. It was argued that an engagement-oriented PM system could produce task performance by producing proximal outcomes including cognitive, affective and motivation which preceded changes in performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Gruman & Saks, 2011). In short, this enhanced approach to PM systems might foster performance improvement beyond that achievable through a conventional focus on performance itself.

4.4.1 Defining work engagement

The conceptual basis for work engagement was introduced by Kahn (1990)'s ethnographic study of a summer camp and an architecture firm. According to Kahn, (personal) engagement necessitated an employee be "present at work". When an employee is personally engaged, he employs and expresses himself physically, cognitively and emotionally to tasks and the others, thus investing positive energy into his tasks which in turn reflects in better job performance. Kahn further posited that three psychological conditions were required for an employee to be rightly engaged: meaningfulness (work element such as reward and recognition), safety (social element including management style, process, and organisational norms) and availability (physical and emotional energy and outside lives).

Since the publication of the original work by Kahn, more than 250 articles have been presented in scholarly journals across a variety of academic disciplines, reporting further development on engagement (Wollard & Shuck, 2011). This theory,

however remains as a strong foundation for the subsequent conceptualisation and empirical work of engagement (Wollard & Shuck, 2011). Nevertheless, Kahn's conceptualisation of engagement has a few limitations. Firstly, a theoretical conceptualisation of engagement has not been sufficiently addressed due to the lack of literature on employee engagement at that time (1990s) and a dependency on other psychological constructs (e.g., job involvement and commitment at work). Secondly, personal engagement in Kahn's context mainly focuses on the 'role' of the individual and certain elements of work while theoretical explanation of the construct engagement is less taken into account. Consequently, more research is needed to bridge these gaps.

Maslach and Leiter's work on burnout has inspired more contemporary research on work engagement (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008). According to Maslach and Leiter's theory of burnout (1997), when employees describe themselves as experiencing burnout, they experience exhaustion, cynicism (depersonalisation) and inefficacy (reduced personal accomplishment). Flipping the lens, Leiter and Maslach (1998) viewed engagement as the extreme positive side of burnout. They defined engagement as "an energetic experience of involvement with personally fulfilling activities that enhance a staff member's sense of professional efficacy" (Leiter & Maslach, 1998, p. 351). Engaged employees who were seen as energetic and took their work as a challenge appeared as the opposite of burnt-out employees who were stressed and perceived their work was demanding (Bakker et al., 2008).

Schaufeli and his colleagues however take a different approach to the concept of engagement (Schaufeli, Salanova, Bakker, & Gonzales-Roma, 2002). Schaufeli et al. (2002) regard engagement as a positive, fulfilling work-related state of mind that is

characterised by three dimensions - vigour, dedication and absorption. Vigour is characterized by high level of energy and mental resilience, willingness to invest effort in one's work, and persistence even during difficulties. Dedication refers to being strongly involved in one's work, and having a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration and challenge. Absorption refers to high levels of concentration in a worker who has difficulty detaching from work. The experience of being fully immersed in one's work and forgetting one's surrounding is evidence of the absorption dimension (Bakker & Bal, 2010).

In relation to Maslach and Leiter's theory of burnout, vigour and dedication are considered opposites of exhaustion and cynicism, respectively. The continuum that is spanned by exhaustion and vigour has been labelled as ''energy,'' whereas the continuum that is spanned by cynicism and dedication has been labelled as ''identification'' (Gonza´lez-Roma, Schaufeli, Bakker, & Lloret, 2006). Absorption is the third constituting dimension of work engagement that is not directly related to burnout (Bakker et al., 2008). Although Schaufeli and colleagues' conceptualisation of engagement is the antithesis of burnout and inversely related, there is no presumption that it is assessed by the opposite profile of burnout scale or scores. Maslach (2001) highlighted that burnout and engagement demonstrated different nomological characteristics in which burnout was particularly related to job demands (e.g., work overload, emotional demands), but engagement was particularly related to job resources (e.g., job control, availability of feedback, learning opportunities). Engagement is defined and operationalised in its own right (Kim, Shin, & Swanger, 2009).

The current study employs the definition of work engagement advanced by Schaufeli, Salanova, Bakker and Gonzales-Roma (2002). Schaufeli and colleagues'

view of engagement appears to be more coherent compared to other engagement constructs as it distinguishes engagement from other psychological states such as job satisfaction and job involvement (cf. Kahn, 1990). The construct is easy to comprehend as it is well elaborated by three distinctive dimensions, i.e., vigour, dedication and absorption, which entail a detailed scope of psychological traits describing an engaged behaviour (Abu Bakar, 2014). As such, the construct appears precise and comprehensive (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). Moreover, a widely-tested scale is available to measure engagement level directly (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Given these attributes, the researcher has chosen the concept of engagement conceptualised by Schaufeli et al. (2002) for the current study.

4.4.2 Measuring work engagement

Measuring work engagement can be difficult as it involves assessing complex feelings and emotions (Macey & Schneider, 2008). The choice of scale depends on the adoption of work engagement as a trait variable or state variable by a researcher. There are two schools of thought regarding the durability of experiencing engagement at work. Some researchers opine that work engagement is a transient psychological state, fluctuating according to daily ebb and flow of experiences in workplace or other aspects of personal life (Beal et al., 2005; Bledow, Schmitt, Frese, & Kühnel, 2011; Sonnentag, 2003). The issue of time for measuring a worker's engagement level is crucial. Additionally, the fluctuation of engagement within person (intra-person; state-like) is no longer treated as error of measurement.

Nevertheless, the other school of thought considers work engagement as a more persistent and pervasive affective-cognitive state (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004, 2010; Schaufeli et al., 2002; Sweetman & Luthans, 2010). Work engagement is

conceptualised as a relatively stable interpersonal different variable (between persons; trait-like). Using a broader literature on affects, a trait typically carries the idea of within-person stability over periods of at least several weeks or months. Treating work engagement as a stable consistent variable is analogous to trait in the research of affects (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Employees with high engagement possess high levels of energy and concentration and are continuously enthusiastic about their work, whereby time passes quickly (Bakker & Bal, 2010). Following that, intra-person fluctuation would be considered measurement errors.

As explained earlier, this study adopted Schaufeli and colleagues' concept of engagement, which implies stable level of work engagement. Work engagement has in fact been measured almost exclusively as a trait (Agarwal, 2014; Dalal, Brummel, Wee, & Thomas, 2008; Kulikowski, 2017; Macey & Schneider, 2008). Hence, the findings from the current study could be conveniently compared to other empirical findings. Further, treating work engagement as a relatively durable state renders the cross-sectional data collection method, which is overall consistent with the data collection plan for other constructs in this study. Accordingly, the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli et al., 2002) is used in the current study to measure the participants' levels of work engagement. The psychometric properties of the UWES have been assessed by researchers in Europe, North America, Africa, Asia, and Australia (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010).

4.4.3 Work engagement as a consequence of perception of fairness

Studies have shown empirical associations between fairness and engagement (e.g., Farndale, 2012; Zhu, Liu, Guo, Zhao, & Lou, 2015). This is exemplified by Maslach and Leiter (2008)'s survey that included measures of six areas of work life (workload,

personal control in workplace, reward, overall quality of social interaction at work, fairness and values) to study work engagement and job burnout among 400 business and administrative employees. The authors concluded that (un)fairness was the most critical incongruity among the six areas. If employees were experiencing issues related to fairness in the workplace, e.g., favouritism, they were likely to develop into burnout over time. In contrast, for those employees who did not experience fairness incongruity, the early warning patterns of burnout were likely to reduce over time, and might even develop into a pattern of engagement. Their findings showed that employees' perceptions of fairness were considered as an antecedent to work engagement.

The fairness-engagement connection can be explained from the viewpoint of Social Exchange Theory (Adams, 1965). When employees perceive that they are treated fairly in terms of distribution of rewards, procedures by which the decisions are made and whether their supervisors and co-workers display courtesy, warmth and support, they feel obliged to exhibit greater levels of performance. Conversely, if employees perceive a fairness imbalance, a low level of organisational justice will weaken their identification and sense of belonging with the organisation (Macey et al., 2009).

Research with different samples and contexts largely demonstrated significant correlations between fairness perception and work engagement. Using a sample of contact workers in Spanish hotels, Moliner et al. (2008) tested the three sub-dimensions of organisational justice (distributive, procedural and interactional justices) and work engagement (vigour and dedication). A positive relationship was found between the two constructs. Data from a non-Western setting also resulted in a consistent conclusion. Drawing from Social Exchange Theory, Agarwal (2014)

examined the relationship between perception of fairness and work engagement (and psychological contract fulfilment, trust and innovative work behaviour) among the Indian managers of pharmaceutical and manufacturing companies. The direct relationship between perception of fairness (procedural and interactional) and work engagement was significant. Likewise, Zhu et al. (2015) reported that for the Chinese nurses, perception of organisational justice positively correlated to work engagement.

While the findings of fairness perception-engagement relationship have been generally consistent, studies examining specific fairness dimensions and work engagement have shown some nuances (e.g., Farndale, 2017; Saks, 2006). Saks (2006) tested the effect of procedural and distributive justice on work engagement (and organisational engagement[5]) using 102 Canadian employees. Neither procedural justice nor distributive justice was associated with work engagement. However, Farndale (2017) showed that the relationship was dependent on types of justice and work culture. Farndale examined the relationships between perceived PA fairness (in relation to performance feedback and opportunity to participate) and work engagement (and organisational engagement) in two contrasting national contexts. Survey data were collected from 249 employees of a UK-based multinational organisation in the UK headquarters and the Indian branch. Similar to most of the empirical studies, PA fairness and engagement was found to be significant in both countries. However, specific findings appeared dissimilar between the UK and India samples. For the UK samples, interactional fairness correlated positively with job engagement but not procedural fairness. In contrast, for the Indian samples, procedural fairness correlated positively with job engagement but not interactional

[5] Organisational engagement is a positive attitude held by the employee towards the organisation and its values (Robinson et al, 2004, p.9). An organisationally-engaged employee is aware of business context and willing to cooperate with other employees for better organisation performance.

fairness. The author explained that India, having higher level of power distance might encourage the employees to feel the need for formal procedures so that they could be heard in the PA process. In contrast, there was no significant relationship between procedural justice and job engagement in the UK's low power distance culture. This was attributed to subordinate-supervisor relationship being less formal and involving more personal level interaction, potentially replacing the need for formal voice that is apparent in the Indian context. The study underscored the importance of culture on employees' perceptions of fairness and work engagement.

Given much of the research regarding engagement and its antecedents and consequences is based in the Western context (Bhatnagar, 2007), it is therefore important to explore these concepts and relationships in non-Western workplaces. The dearth of studies in non-Western contexts included that of Ghosh et al. (2014) on employees working in public banks in India, which found contrasting results to those of Farndale (2017). In Ghosh et al.'s study, only distributive justice and interactional justice were found to significantly predict work engagement. Procedural justice was a non-significant predictor. These contrasting outcomes demonstrate that besides culture, organisational environment and work groups could influence cognitive, affective state and work engagement too (Brutus et al., 2006; Farndale, 2012; Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008). Although mixed results were found on the correlations of different dimensions of fairness perception and work engagement among different industries and work groups, the researcher expected a significant positive relationship between the perception of fairness and work engagement among the Malaysian general workers. The main reason could be attributed to the fact that perception of fairness in general, had demonstrated significant association to work engagement (Zhu et al., 2015).

Since the publication of Kahn's seminal work on engagement, the interest in engagement has mushroomed (Bailey, Madden, Alfes, & Fletcher, 2017; Ghosh, Rai, & Sinha, 2014; Mone, Eisinger, Guggenheim, Price, & Stine, 2011; Wollard & Shuck, 2011). However, few studies have examined the relationship between fairness perception and work engagement in the context of PM system (Gupta & Kumar, 2013; Mone et al., 2011). The studies of Farndale (2012) and Gupta and Kumar (2013) were the pioneering efforts to link fairness and work engagement in the context of PM systems. Farndale (2012) investigated the relationship between perceived fairness of PA and employees' work engagement of a UK multinational company (MNC) operating in UK, India and China. Her findings confirmed that there were positive relationships between employees' perceptions of fairness and work engagement via the mediation of perceived line manager support across the three countries. Consistent with Farndale (2012), Gupta and Kumar (2013) found significant positive association between employees' perceptions of fairness related to PM system and work engagement especially distributive and informational justice, among the professionals working in Indian MNCs. The findings from both the studies revealed that how the employee actually experienced the PA was likely to influence the employees' level of engagement.

4.4.4 Work engagement as a consequence of emotions

As work engagement is characterised by high involvement of the self and the presence of positive work-related feelings (Kahn, 1990), it is theorised to be particularly dependent on affects (Schaufeli et al., 2002; Sonnentag, Mojza, Binnewies, & Scholl, 2008). According to broaden-and–build theory (Frederickson, 2001), positive affects such as happiness and enthusiasm (Schaufeli et al., 2002)

broaden individuals' momentary thought-action repertoires and leads to more global mode of information processing that allows a person to become absorbed in an ongoing activity and the environment. In contrast to positive affect, negative affect is associated with "narrowing" of mental processes, and limits to specific action tendencies; negative affect is not compatible with high work engagement at that given moment.

In one of the few studies conducted on emotion-work engagement relationships, Bledow and Schmitt (2008) argued that work events engendered emotions and subsequently influenced employees' levels of work engagement. Fifty-five engineers completed a survey about their work experiences, emotions and work engagement twice a day for nine days. Bledow and Schmitt's study conceptualised work engagement as a transient psychological state, fluctuating according to daily ebb and flow of experiences in the workplace. Results showed that negative emotions fully mediated the relationship between negative events and work engagement. Daily fluctuation in work engagement was predicted by work events and emotions. Similar to most of the studies on emotions, the affective events and emotions were generalised and analysed as overall positive or negative events and emotions; the results reported in Bledow and Schmitt (2008) were non-specific. Thus, knowledge about types of specific events and emotions correlating to work engagement was not identified. The authors acknowledged this limitation and provided research recommendation.

Supporting these findings, Clark, Michel, Stevens, Howell and Scruggs (2013) reported that work engagement was negatively associated with negative emotions (anxiety, anger, guilt and disappointment) in a study examining the mediating role of emotions between work engagement and work–home outcomes. Although the authors

did not provide much theoretical explanation, this work has provided valuable findings on the link between discrete negative emotions and work engagement.

In spite of an increasing trend in employee engagement in Malaysia since 2012, Malaysia ranked the third lowest in Asia Pacific region (63%) according to a recent survey done by Aon Hewitt ("2018 trends in global employee engagement", 2018) . The situation could be more serious for the general workers, as Schaufeli, Bakker and Salanova (2006) pointed out that blue-collar workers were less engaged compared to other work groups, e.g., managers, educators, and police officers. The authors explained that the blue-collar workers might draw less on job resources that were known to be positively related to work engagement. From a research perspective, the understanding of work engagement, especially its antecedents and operation under different multinational or multicultural environments remain underexplored (Wollard & Shuck, 2011). Moreover, the notion of fairness has been identified as one of the most important aspects of employees' responses to PA system and hence, stood out as a good candidate to be examined as an antecedent for work engagement (Bretz et al., 1992; Erdogan, 2002). However, few studies have examined the relationship between fairness perception and work engagement in the context of PM system (Gupta & Kumar, 2013; Mone et al., 2011). Taking into consideration these issues as a motivation to initiate a study, the researcher aimed to examine how affective response could have predicted work engagement through perception of organisational fairness for the Malaysian general workers. The findings from the current study would address the gap in the literature of examining fairness-work engagement relation in the PM context, particularly in an Asian setting.

4.5 The relationships of turnover intention with negative emotions and perception of fairness

Low employee involvement at work and high turnover are a few challenges that almost all organisations are facing nowadays (Rathi & Lee, 2015), including the Malaysian companies. According to a survey by a popular Malaysian online news site, 70% of the employers in Malaysia identified employee turnover as a serious issue in their business operations ("70% of employees plan to leave their jobs, says survey", 2014). Among various industries in Malaysia, manufacturing is one of the sectors that experiences high employee turnover, recording 24% of turnover rate in 2013 (Towers Watson Malaysia, 2013).

The double-digit turnover rates observed among the manufacturing workers for the past recent years could have attributed to the high mobility of young workers in general (Queiri, Wan Yusoff, & Dwaikat, 2015). For the past six years consistently, approximately 39.0% of manufacturing industry workers is less than 30 years old (Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019). According to Bernardin and Russell (2013), younger employees are in the stage of exploring opportunities and challenges offered to them at work. They will "search" and "hop" until they feel that it is irrational to change jobs anymore (Hooi, 2016). Furthermore, younger groups are more lifestyle oriented and they are also more demanding at work. As such, they placed higher priority on reward-related matters such as salaries and benefits, in ensuring their services in the present employment. Young people with little career direction, especially those who can also live for free with their parents, may fit this profile (Maertz & Campion, 2004). These workers do not see leaving the labour market posing any risk of financial hardship and thus may not have any alternative jobs (Steel, 2002). The claims made about the high mobility of young

workers are supported by a survey conducted by Johari, Tan, Adnan, Yahya and Ahmad (2012) in which 184 workers (majority below 30 years old) in manufacturing companies in the northern region of Peninsular Malaysia demonstrated that compensation and benefits had a positive impact on turnover intention.

Manufacturing companies also face intense recruitment competition for skilled and talented workers from service sector such as retail and F&B, which are easier work as compared to the manufacturing sector (Iranmanesh, Siti-Nabiha, & Sabbah, 2012). The SME companies of manufacturing sector are expected to be severely hit by the recruitment competition because unskilled or semi-skilled employees tend to use these companies as a stepping-stone to gain experience then move on to larger organisations which generally pay higher salaries (Abdullah et al., 2007; Hu, 2017).

High turnover rate is costly to an organisation (Barsade & Gibson, 2007). A study from Society of Human Resource Management (SHRM) has discovered that direct employee replacement costs reached around 50% to 60% of employee‘s annual salary (Neese, 2016). The costs involve direct costs such as replacement costs and transition costs, and the indirect costs relate to reduced performance, unnecessary overtime and low morale (Simons & Hinkin, 2001). As a result of losing manpower, organisations’ productivity and cost can be severely affected. Therefore, it is important for organisations to understand the employees’ intention to quit their jobs in order to plan and implement countermeasures.

4.5.1 Defining and measuring turnover intention

Turnover intention is defined as a conscious and deliberate willingness to leave the organisation (Tett & Meyer, 1993). An employee’s decision to leave an organisation is typically a progressive process. While it may be triggered by some kind of

dissatisfaction (Hom, Caranikas-Walker, & Prussia, 1992; Mobley, 1977), the decision involves a series of cognitive considerations (e.g., withdrawal cognition about leaving the current job) and progressive hierarchical-order manifestation of withdrawal behaviours before an employee actually terminates his employment with the organisation (Rosse, 1988).

Turnover intention, instead of actual turnover was chosen as the criterion variable in the current study for two reasons. First, measuring turnover intention is more amenable to research than measuring actual turnover because it is more time effective and more economic (Dalton, Johnson, & Daily, 1990; Hanisch & Hulin, 1990). Measuring actual turnover generally requires costly longitudinal design. Furthermore, actual turnover is a dichotomous variable, and it does not have the statistical properties of turnover intention which is easily scaled; it is methodologically more challenging (Dalton et al., 1990). Second, from a theoretical view, attitude theory generally supports the belief that expressed behavioural intention is the best predictor of actual behaviour (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino, 1979). Turnover intention is expected to be the strongest predictor of actual turnover behaviour (Hom et al., 1992; Hom, Katerberg, & Hulin, 1979; Hom & Hulin, 1981; Steel & Ovalle, 1984; Tett & Meyer, 1993).

4.5.2 Turnover intention as a consequence of perception of fairness

Employee's perception of fairness is central in defining whether the workplace is to be considered good or bad. Lack of trust in the organisation and feelings of hostility and anger increase employees' intentions to quit (Brown et al., 2010; Gupta & Kumar, 2013; Schleicher et al., 2019). Previous findings have shown turnover intention to be negatively related to employees' perceptions of fairness (e.g., Choong, Wong, & Tioh,

2010; Cohen-Charash & Byrne, 2008; Daly & Geyer, 1994; Hemdi, 2009; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000; Otaye & Wong, 2014; Phuong, 2018; Smollan, 2012)**.**

The effect of perception of fairness on employees' turnover intentions varies depending on the form of justice being measured. For example, Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) reported in their meta-analytic work that procedural justice and distributive justice were more strongly correlated with turnover intention ($r = -0.40$) than was interpersonal justice ($r = -0.24$). Procedural justice was considered to be a better predictor of turnover intention than interactional justice (Masterson et al., 2000). Procedural justice was related to turnover intention because procedural justice was indicative of the ways an organisation made decisions, which were beyond any specific outcome (Dailey & Kirk, 1992).

The differentiation of the correlation strength among the justice sub-dimensions could have been due to the contexts of the research topics. This can be illustrated in the case of the two studies involving important organisational events. Daly and Geyer (1994) investigated the role of fairness in facilities relocation of seven private organisations. Specifically, procedural and distributive justices were modelled as the mediators in the relationship between justification of the relocation decision and intention to stay. Both procedural and distributive fairness mediated the relationship between justification of relocation and intention to stay. However, in an investigation on employees' perceptions about company drug testing programme (Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991), only procedural justice was found significantly predicting the employees' turnover intentions and other work attitudes, but not outcome justice (distributive justice).

Alternatively, literature has revealed that the relationship between different forms of justice and turnover intention depends on job nature. Harris, Lavelle and McMahan (2018) investigated workgroup-focused fairness and client-focused fairness impact on turnover intention of the employees from nursing senior facilities. Workgroup-focused fairness referred to procedural justice when the group made decisions, and client-focused fairness referred to interpersonal justice between the employees and patients' families. In contrast to other studies, client-focused interactional fairness was more influential on the employees' turnover intentions. The authors explained that in service industry, the employees often had frequent interactions with the clients; therefore, conflicts with the clients might be treated with high importance. The review of literature has broadly revealed that perception of fairness predicts employees' turnover intentions, but mixed results about the relationship between different dimensions of fairness and employees' turnover intentions.

Several attempts have been made to examine how organisational justice correlates to employees' turnover intentions in different Malaysian work settings. Using professionals as sample, Poon (2004) found that employees demonstrated less job satisfaction and higher intention to quit their jobs when they perceived the performance ratings as manipulative and biased by the political interests of the raters. Working with the senior managers of multinational companies, Hooi, Sulaiman and Omar (2012) observed similar results and affirmed that perceived procedural injustice in promotion decisions intensified the intent to leave. In a study focusing on SME companies by Choong et al. (2010), the influence of distributive and procedural justice on employees' job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention was examined. The authors found that only procedural justice was

significantly predicting the employees' turnover intentions. The finding was partially consistent with findings of the past study by Hemdi and Mohd Nasurdin (2007) and Arshad and Sparrow (2010). The former indicated that distributive and procedural justices were linked to turnover intention (at a comparable strength) among the employees of the hotel industry in Malaysia, and the latter reported that procedural and interactional justice perceptions of the survivors of a downsizing event in a government-owned manufacturing company were correlated to their turnover intentions eight months later. All in all, previous studies that were conducted in different Malaysian contexts have shown that perception of fairness generally predict employees' turnover intentions, with differential correlational strengths between different dimensions of justice and turnover intention.

Recent studies suggest that the quality of PM system practices has an impact on employees' turnover intentions (e.g., Basher Rubel & Kee, 2015; Brown et al., 2010; Koon & Fung, 2015), specifically high quality PM practices being able to deter turnover intention while a low-quality PM system increases turnover intention. In Dailey and Kirk (1992), the respondents (professionals in IT industry) expressed that ineffective PA and planning systems had contributed to their perceptions of procedural unfairness of performance feedback and system planning, and such perception of unfairness appeared to be a stronger predictor of turnover intention than work attitudes (i.e., job involvement and organisational commitment). As perception of procedural justice in feedback decreased, employees were more likely to consider resigning. In another similar study conducted on Vietnamese white-collar employees, Phuong (2018) found that participative PA, PA training and trust in rater influenced the perception of procedural and distributive justice, which in turn, significantly influenced the employees' turnover intentions. In one of the few studies examining

the impact of interactional justice on turnover intention, Greenberg (1990a) provided evidence that employees were influenced by the sensitivity they were shown by their supervisors. When the management provided high level of information regarding the pay cut to the factory employees, and presented with repeated apologies and expressions of remorse, only 2% of the employees in this group resigned, as compared to 25% employees in the group with little explanation resigned. Studies have shown that PM system procedures and supervisors' communication style has an impact on the employees' turnover intentions. Building on Social Exchange Theory (Adam, 1965), Basher Rubel and Kee (2015) directly measured the Bangladeshi nurses' perception of fairness (interactional and procedural justice) towards the PM systems. Consistent with the finding in Greenberg (1990a) that based on organisational justice theory, a significant negative association was found between perception of fairness of PM system and turnover intention. Overall, the findings on the relationship between employees' perceptions of fairness towards the PM system and turnover intention provide positive indication to hypothesise perception of fairness as the mediator between workers' emotional response and their turnover intention for the current study.

4.5.3 Turnover intention as a consequence of emotions

Although quitting a job is often portrayed as a carefully considered decision culminating in an intention to quit (Mobley, 1977) and is expected to be more judgment-driven than affect-driven (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996)**,** several studies are found to support the association between affect and turnover intention or actual turnover (e.g., Barsade & Gibson, 2007; George & Jones, 1996; Grandey et al., 2002; Smollan, 2012; Spector & Jex, 1991; Thoresen, Kaplan, Barsky, & Warren, 2003). In

particular, negative emotions trigger psychological discomfort which motivates quitting (Maertz & Campion, 2004).

Using psychometric meta-analysis method, Thoresen et al. (2003) examined the relationship between positive and negative affects (affectivity, mood and emotion) and turnover intention. The analysis indicated significant correlation between affect and turnover intention. In a case study examining employees' negative emotional responses to a series of mergers, Kiefer (2005) found that employees who underwent frequent negative emotional experiences about job values, job security and organisational treatments were more likely to withdraw from the organisation. The author reasoned that participants' negative experiences were deemed as indicators of how much the organisation and the management (did not) care about the employees' well-being and contribution.

Similarly, in one of the few studies that investigated the link between discrete emotions and turnover intention, Spector and Jex (1991) found job characteristics, e.g., autonomy, correlated significantly with work frustration, anxiety and turnover intention. Additionally, turnover intention correlated significantly with frustration ($r = 0.41$) and anxiety ($r = 0.43$). Although no causality could be established from this observation, this early work on employee turnover intention did provide proof of the correlation between emotion and turnover intention. In another study, Grandey, Tam and Brauburger (2002) investigated the relationship between emotions and turnover intentions. The participants were 36 undergraduate students who had paid part-time employment completing surveys at two points in time and completing an event-contingent diary over two weeks. Event, intensity of emotions and turnover intention (only at the end of two weeks) were recorded. Negative emotions were aggregated to three main categories – anger, sadness, and anxiety. Results showed that the overall

negative emotion composite was positively related to turnover intention ($r = 0.27$, $p < 0.05$). Zooming in at the specific emotions, a high level of sadness was associated with higher turnover intention, but not anger or anxiety. Although there are limited studies describing the emotion-turnover intention relationship, the relatively high turnover rate experienced by most of the organisations (Rathi & Lee, 2015) might cue the occurrence of impulsive quitting[6]. That being said, understanding the relationship between workers' affective responses and their turnover intentions, with inclusion of fairness perceptions about PM system can shed light on how the turnover can be controlled.

4.6 Negative affectivity as a moderator between emotion, perception of fairness and work attitudes

A moderator is a variable that interacts with the predictor variable and modifies the direction and/or strength of the relationship between the predictor and criterion variables (Baron & Kenny, 1986). As proposed by the AET, an individual's affectivity influences how an individual responses to affective events. An individual who is high in negative affectivity (NA) is prone to view events more negatively and elicit stronger negative emotions than those with low NA (Ashkanasy, Härtel, & Daus, 2002; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). A good number of empirical studies support this view. In a study examining the links between affectivity, emotions and job satisfaction, Fisher (1998) found that NA was moderately related to negative mood and negative emotion. Based on the AET model, Fisher (2002) attempted to identify the antecedents and consequences of emotions. The author found that NA predicted negative affective responses. Similarly, Grandey

[6] Impulsive quitting is characterised by "no planning" or the absence of an alternative job offer at the time the quitting decision is made (Maertz & Campion, 2004).

et al. (2002) found that NA correlated significantly with negative emotions in self-reported experiences among the young part-timers.

Bledow et al. (2011) hypothesised that the relationship between negative emotion and work engagement was moderated by positive affectivity, such that the relationship was more negative for people low in positive affectivity. In support of the hypothesis, the authors found positive affectivity moderating the relationship between negative emotions and work engagement. The authors also suggested that individuals with high positive affectivity had a high baseline of positive mood, and they rebounded quickly to positive mood and high work engagement after experiencing negative events and emotions. On the other hand, individuals with low positive affectivity remained in a disengaged state of mind for a longer period of time because of their lower baseline of positive mood. Although not directly examining negative affectivity, this result revealed the plausibility of NA being a moderator of emotion-work engagement relationship. Review of the literature has also indicated that there is an absence of the moderation effect of affectivity on the relationships emotion-acceptance of PM system and emotion-turnover intention.

With regard to the moderating effect of negative affectivity on the indirect relationship between negative emotion and work attitudes through perception of fairness, Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) found that those who had high scores in NA tended to perceive a work event as more hostile and unfair and to behave more strongly towards it. Meanwhile, those who were low in NA might perceive a work event in a nonthreatening light and reacted in a more favourable manner as they regarded as fair (Barsky & Kaplan, 2007). This explanation has been frequently employed to study the relationships between justice perception and counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) in the workplace. In most cases, NA acted as a moderator of

the relationship between job stressors and CWB (Penney & Spector, 2005). Such moderation could be seen in a survey study conducted by Skarlicki and Folger (1997). The authors found a three-way interaction between distributive justice, interactional justice and NA, such that retaliatory behaviour was at its peak among high NA respondents experiencing high levels of perceived unfairness. In another study on employees' deviant behaviours, Aquino et al. (1999) tested a model linking unfavourable distributive, procedural, interactional justice and NA to deviant behaviours. The survey results showed that negative affectivity was the single strongest predictor of the deviant behaviours.

In one of the few studies examining the moderation effect of affectivity on perception of fairness and turnover intention, Lam et al. (2002) studied the effects of appraisal feedback on perception of fairness and turnover intention, with NA as the moderator. Using 329 bankers in Hong Kong as sample, the authors found NA significantly moderating the relationships between favourability of feedback and perception of fairness and turnover intention. Participants who had low NA and received favourable feedback reported increased perception of fairness and lowered turnover intention in the short run (less than three months); while the participants who scored high in NA and received favourable feedback reported increased perception of fairness and lowered turnover intention in the short run, but returned to baseline after three months.

In light of relevant literature, the researcher proposed to test the moderation effect of NA on the direct and indirect relationships between emotions and the work attitudes of the revised model. With the addition of this moderator, the final proposed model of the current thesis is shown in Figure 4.

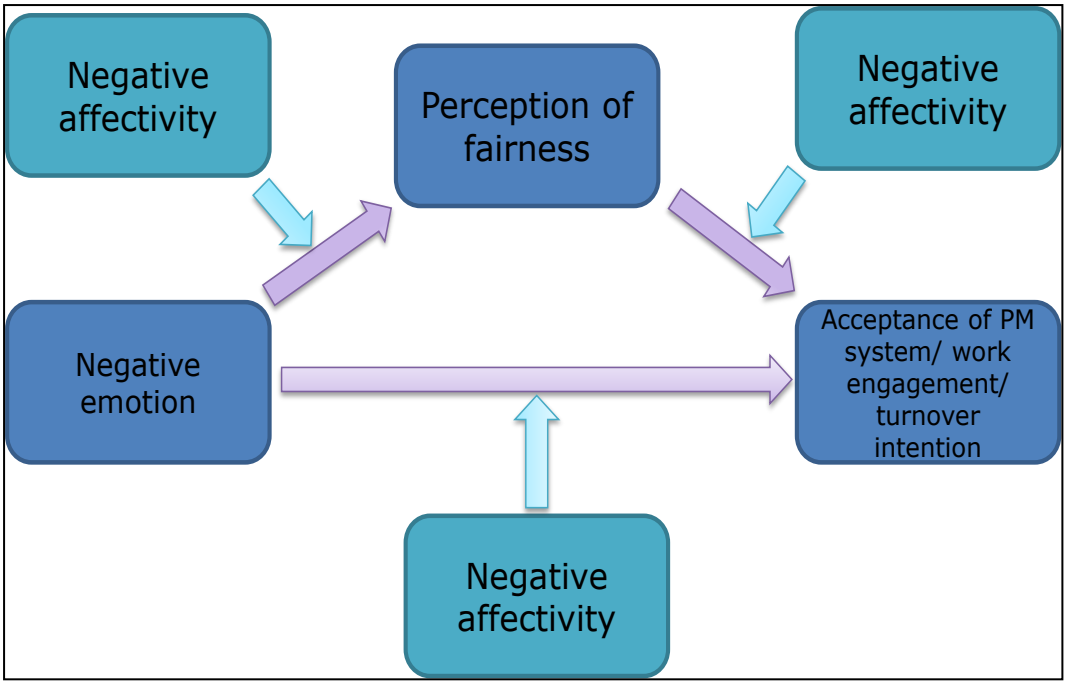


Figure 4. Proposed final model of this thesis

4.7 Research objectives and hypotheses

As stated in Chapter 1, the overall aim of the current study is to investigate emotional responses associated with the PM processes as the predictors of workers' work attitudes. In addition, perception of fairness is proposed as the mediator to explain the mechanism of this causal relationship. With this research aim in mind, the present study specifically examines the causal relationships between the negative emotions and three work attitudes, namely acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention, among the general workers of the manufacturing sector in Malaysia. A revised AET framework is derived in the current study. In addition, the construct of negative emotions is analysed as in two different conditions to gain more insights about the relationships – as an overall emotion and as 10 discrete emotions. These two scenarios are labelled as Model 1 and Model 2 respectively, and in accordance with the final model of this thesis (Figure 2).

In Model 1, the 10 major negative emotions that were derived from the qualitative phase are modelled as an overall construct and tested with other constructs (perception of fairness, acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention). The results would reveal the general observation about the predictability of the three work attitudes by negative emotion. On the other hand, in Model 2, the 10 major negative emotions were modelled as 10 discrete emotions and tested with other constructs (perception of fairness, acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention). The findings of Model 2 determined specific discrete emotions that predict the work attitudes. Accordingly, five specific research objectives and twelve hypotheses are developed and investigated, upon reviewing the relevant literature.

4.7.1 Research objectives one and two

Research objectives one and two are formed in response to the first and second research questions stated in Chapter 1. As revealed by the literature review, negative affective responses towards PM system lead to lower perceptions of fairness and subsequently lower acceptance of PM system, work engagement and (stronger) turnover intention. Additionally, no published work has been found to explore and identify a list of affective events related to PM system and the corresponding discrete emotional responses for each event in the Malaysian setting; thus, leaving a gap in the literature. Henceforth, the current study explores and identifies the negative events related to PM system and the associated negative emotions from the perspective of the Malaysian general workers. The results from the qualitative phase related to objective two are then used in the quantitative phase related to the research objectives three, four and five.

4.7.2 Research objectives three and five (Model 1)

Research objectives three and five are formed with regards to the third and fifth research questions stated in Chapter 1. In essence, the research questions inquire about the relationship between negative emotion and work attitudes, and the role of fairness perception in this relationship. Accordingly, this study aims to investigate the predictability of acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention by (overall) negative emotion and the mediation role of perception of fairness in this causal relation. Datasets about workers' affective responses, perception of fairness, acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention are collected from the Malaysian general workers working in manufacturing sector. Then, the datasets are synthesised to establish if significant links exist among the workers' emotional responses, perception of fairness and the work attitudes examined. In this regard, the researcher derived the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1: Overall negative emotion significantly predicts acceptance of PM system

Hypothesis 2: Overall negative emotion significantly predicts work engagement

Hypothesis 3: Overall negative emotion significantly predicts turnover intention

Hypothesis 4: Perceived fairness partially mediates the negative relationship between overall negative emotion and acceptance of PM system

Hypothesis 5: Perceived fairness partially mediates the negative relationship between overall negative emotion and work engagement

Hypothesis 6: Perceived fairness partially mediates the positive relationship between overall negative emotion and turnover intention

Hypotheses 1 to 6 are tested simultaneously in structural model of Model 1. The path diagram and the detailed description of Model 1 are presented in Chapter 8.

4.7.3 Research objectives four and five (Model 2)

Research objectives four and five are formed in regards to the fourth and fifth research questions stated in the previous chapter. The research questions basically inquire about the relationship between discrete negative emotions and work attitudes, and the role of fairness perception in this relationship. Similarly, this study aims to investigate the mediation role of perception of fairness in the causal relation between negative emotions and acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention. In like manner, datasets about emotional responses, fairness perception and work engagement are collected from the sample. Subsequently, the datasets are synthesised to establish if correlations exist among the workers' (discrete) emotional responses, perception of fairness, acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention. Six hypotheses corresponding with research objective four and five are formulated as below.

Hypothesis 7: Discrete negative emotions significantly predict acceptance of PM system

Hypothesis 8: Discrete negative emotions significantly predict work engagement

Hypothesis 9: Discrete negative emotions significantly predict turnover intention

Hypothesis 10: Perceived fairness partially mediates the negative relationship between discrete negative emotion and acceptance of PM system

Hypothesis 11: Perceived fairness partially mediates the negative relationship between discrete negative emotion and work engagement

Hypothesis 12: Perceived fairness partially mediates the positive relationship between discrete negative emotion and turnover intention

Hypotheses 7 to 12 are tested simultaneously in Model 2. The path diagram and the detailed description of Model 2 are presented in Chapter 9.

4.8 Chapter summary

This chapter provides a discussion on the relationships among affective events, affective responses, perception of fairness, acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention. First, a review of the relevant studies has revealed significant correlations among the constructs despite some nuances with specific contexts. The literature has also affirmed the viability of the revised AET model proposed in the current thesis and the selection of acceptance of PM system, work

unknowns are set to be determined from the current study because no exact model studying the same samples has been published so far. Therefore, the research questions, objectives and hypotheses are formulated around the gaps being identified, as well as the importance of the constructs to employee and organisation performance. Lastly, negative affectivity is included as the moderator in the revised AET model because of its interaction with the key constructs.

CHAPTER 5 METHODOLOGY

5.1 Chapter overview

This chapter first details the rationale for the research approach and research design chosen for the current study. This is followed by the sampling strategy, data collection procedure, data analysis procedure and finally, the ethical considerations.

5.2 Research design

As detailed in the previous chapter, there were five research objectives set for the current study. The first and second objectives were to explore and to identify the negative affective events related to PM system and the corresponding emotions from the perspective of the Malaysian general workers. The remaining three research objectives aimed to investigate the relationships between negative emotions and acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention, mediated by perception of fairness.

At the outset, a research approach must be decided. Research approach simply means a general orientation to conduct a research (Bryman, 2012). It involves the intersection of philosophical worldviews (e.g., positivism, constructivism, transformative and pragmatism), research design (e.g., experiments, ethnographies, explanatory sequential) and specific research methods (i.e., specific methods used in data collection, data analysis and interpretation) (Creswell, 2014), which in turn influences the overall methodology of a study. Identifying a study's research approach is imperative because it communicates information about key features of the study,

which can differ for different approaches (Harwell, 2011) and ensures high quality of the research (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, & Jackson, 2013).

5.2.1 Research approach - mixed methods

As Bryman (2008) suggests, the rationale of adopting a specific research approach for a study is task-driven. Therefore, it is necessary to review the research objectives in order to decide the selection of research approach.

The first and second research objectives intended to explore and to identify the major affective events and associated emotions of PM system in the Malaysian context. Considering that there had not been substantial studies being carried out on this topic in this setting, employing a qualitative approach was more appropriate and insightful of individuals' perceptions of specific significant experiences encountered at work (Narayanan et al., 1999). Furthermore, culture and organisation environment had a great impact on individuals' interpretation of events and affective responses and definition of appropriate behaviour (Farndale, 2012; Gu, 2013; Skarlicki, 2001), it was important to capture the underlying phenomenon in its naturalistic context. In general, qualitative approach would yield more rich and original information to the Malaysian context.

The second phase of the current study investigated the predictability of negative emotions on the acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention via mediation by perception of fairness. The overall purpose was to ascertain twelve hypothesised relationships. Hence, the second phase required a quantitative approach. In view of this, mixed methods approach was adopted because only this approach would enable such mixing of different methods of data inquiry and data analysis. By capitalising on the different inherent methodological strengths, validity

of the variables of interest and confidence of results could be enhanced (Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989). Moreover, the current study intended to make use of the results from the first phase (a qualitative study) to develop a measurement scale for construct negative emotion in the second phase, i.e., building on the results of one method with another method. This intention justified for a mixed methods approach (Greene et al., 1989). The following sections, therefore, move on to discuss the specific research designs of the two studies.

5.2.2 Strategy of inquiry – sequential exploratory

The current study fitted a sequential exploratory design, in which a qualitative study preceded a quantitative study (Creswell, 2014). Figure 5 illustrates the flow of a sequential exploratory design in general. In the current study, the views of the participants explored in the first phase (qualitative) were used to develop a measurement scale that best-fit the subject work group for the second phase (quantitative). With this research design, content analysis of the narratives from the participants were transformed to a measurement scale, and the resulted data were further analysed statistically (Caracelli & Greene, 1993; Harwell, 2011).

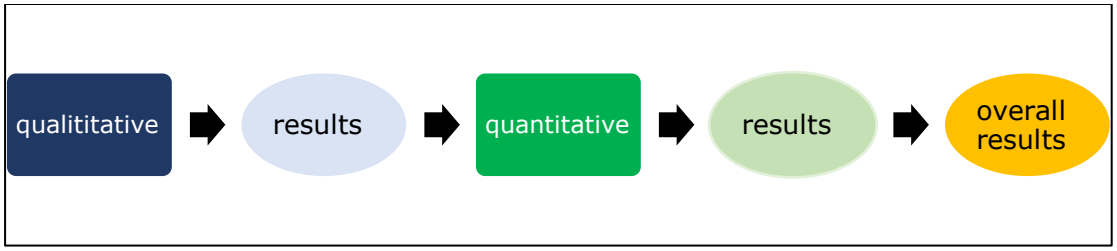


Figure 5. A typical sequential exploratory design
Adapted from: Creswell, J. W. (2013). Steps in conducting a scholarly mixed methods study. *DBER Speaker Series*. Paper 48.

The researcher treated both qualitative and quantitative parts with equal weight; both were equally useful in answering the research questions of the current

study. The qualitative results answered the first and second research questions, while the quantitative results answered the third, fourth and fifth research questions.

5.2.3 Data inquiry methods – interviews and survey

As the first phase of the current study aimed to explore the subject work group's experiences and perceptions about PM systems, the only way to know was to ask the participants (Aguinis, 2005). Therefore, the data inquiry method involved (individual) face-to-face interviews and focus group discussion (FGD). Interviewing is to engage a direct conversation with interviewees with the purpose to extract relevant information according to research objective (Silverman, 2011), or "to gather descriptions of the lifeworld of the interviewee with respect to interpreting the meaning of the described phenomena" (Kvale, 1983, p.3). Interview method is considered the most appropriate and helpful in determining the perceptions and attitudes of interviewees because of several reasons (Newman, 2003). Interviewing is interactive and flexible; interviewers can clarify and probe into any emerging topics which subsequently broaden the scope of understanding of investigated topic. In addition, the interviewing process is instantaneous. There is little time delay between questions and answers. This advantage of synchronous communication facilitates more spontaneous answers from interviewees (Opdenakker, 2006). (Face to face) Interviews also enable interviewers to obtain extra information which added to the verbal answers of the interviewees by referring to social cues such as body language.

FGD method was also employed in the first phase. A FGD normally consists of at least four participants selected purposively and interviewed by a moderator (or moderators) about their perceptions, beliefs and attitudes of a particular topic (Bryman, 2012; Coens & Jenkins, 2002). The discussion generally consists of one-

time meeting of persons who share a common experience (Carey & Asbury, 2012). The emphasis of the FGD method is upon interaction within the group and the joint construction of meaning (Bryman, 2012). Group interaction facilitates an exchange of ideas and information thereby stimulating individual participants to explore and to clarify their thinking and allowing participants to build on each other's ideas (Kaplowitz & Hoehn, 2001). A bandwagon effect often operates in a group discussion in that a participant's comment triggers a chain reaction from the other participants. Consequently, new definitions can be developed in ways that would be less easily accessible in an individual interview. By using interviews in conjunction with FGD, the researcher sought to reinforce the data-gathering process and to facilitate data cross-checking by tapping into the complimentary views that offered by triangulating these data sources.

The second phase of the study took on a quantitative method that involved the use of questionnaire in collecting data in a cross-sectional manner. The use of questionnaires is deemed appropriate for the current study because the information required from the participants is mostly about their perceptions, belief, attitude and behaviour (Boynton & Greenhalgh, 2004). Furthermore, questionnaire can provide high level of anonymity to participants as they do not have to reveal their identity (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). Overall, questionnaires are considered the most effective way at low cost for researchers to collect data from a large population.

In sum, the researcher employed mixed methods approach in the current study, specifically sequential exploratory design in which qualitative interview was conducted first to explore and understand the participants' experiences, followed by a questionnaire to collect large-scale data to test the hypotheses of the constructs of

interest. Figure 6 sets out the research design of the current study. Sections 5.3 and 5.4 detail how the interviews and the survey were executed.

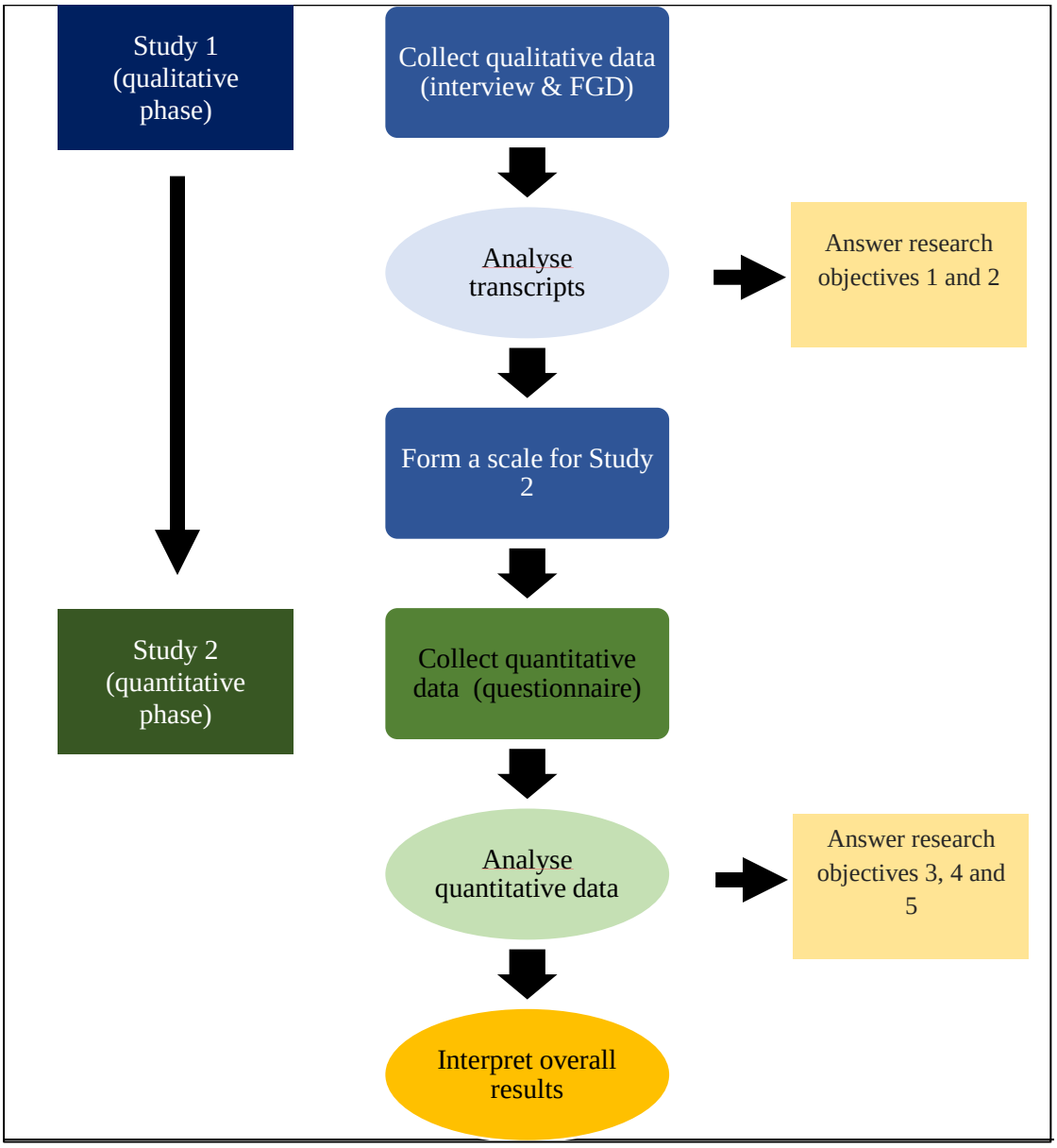


Figure 6. Research design of the current study

5.3 Study 1: Qualitative phase

In the qualitative study, semi-structured (individual) interviews and FGD were the main strategies of inquiry to collect data on participants' experience of negative affective events and their corresponding affective responses. Compared to the method

by which participants were to select matching emotions with the reported events from pre-printed list of emotions (e.g., Basch & Fisher, 2000; Matta, Erol-Korkmaz, Johnson, & Biçaksiz, 2014), interviewing showed several advantages. First, list of pre-printed emotions required translation from English to Malay language and was subjected to inaccurate translation. However, using interviewing method, the interviewer could conveniently clarify the participants' emotions during the interview sessions. Second, all emotions reported by participants could be captured by interviews. This could eliminate the risk of excluding emotions unique to this subject work group. Since the subject group consisted of workers of the lowest hierarchy of organisations, they tended to have less demonstration of their emotions (Drory & Ritov, 1997; Fitness, 2000; Hooi et al., 2012). Third, FGDs were used primarily to add depth to the data that were initially elicited by the individual interviews. Through FGDs, the group's similar backgrounds and experiences as well as their familiarity with each other facilitated active personal disclosures, and encouraged them to engage better with the moderator (Barbour, 2007).

5.3.1 Participants and sampling

The qualitative phase employed a purposive sampling approach to recruit the participants. Purposive sampling is deemed suitable for content analysis studies where a researcher tries to gather information from those who have the best knowledge concerning the research topic (Elo et al., 2014). To recruit participants (interviews and FGDs), several manufacturing organisations through personal contacts were contacted. The objective and methodology of the study and the criteria of the participants were made clear to the organisations. The participating organisations were then assigned the participants sharing the characteristics: Malaysian, confirmed worker and have

experience being appraised. A variety of participants from different age groups, gender, races, marital status and organisation tenure were purposefully selected from the participating organisations, in order to elicit contrasting views and to provide a wealth of information regarding to the research topic (Krueger & Casey, 2000; Xerri, 2018). A participant only took part in either individual interview or FGD.

Three manufacturing factories around central region of Peninsula of Malaysia participated in the current study - Company A, B and C. These three companies differed in terms of industry, headcount, history of implementing PM system and characteristics of their PM systems. All three companies were non-unionised. Table 2 summarises the company profiles. The main criterion of sample size in this qualitative study was reaching data saturation point, rather than generalisation of the results in a statistical sense.

Table 2

Profile of participating companies and the characteristics of PM systems

Company	Industry	Size	Head count	Owner-ship	History of PM system	Team goal	Personal goal	Performance feedback	Rewards
A	electrical and electronic	large	more than 500	foreign-invested	more than 10 years	yes	yes	twice per year	performance based
B	chemical adhesive	medium	about 100	foreign-invested	several years	no	no	once per year (not done systematically)	salary increment according pay grade
C	spices and seasonings processing	small	37	locally-owned	newly implemented	no	no	once per year (plus regular unofficial feedback)	fixed salary increment for all general workers (those who pass examinations will receive additional increment)

A total of 14 individual interviewees and eight FGD participants (four participants in each FGD session)[7] were recruited to share their experiences and emotional responses related to their PA experiences, as well as the PM systems in their organisations. Table 3 summarises the demographic information of the participants. The number of female and male participants was rather equal in this qualitative study (11 males vs. 10 females). Twenty out of twenty-two participants were of Malay origin. The age ranged from 20 to 47 years old, with 60.0% being between 20 and 29 years of age. Individual interviewees consisted of slightly older participants as compared to those in the FGDs (34.0 years old mean vs. 26.8 years old mean). Therefore, more individual interviewees were married. In terms of organisational tenure in current companies, majority of the participants (60.0%) have worked six to 10 years. The minimum year of service was three years, while four participants have worked nearly 20 years. The participants' educational background ranged from Form 3 (equivalent to Year 9 of British education system) to Form 5 (equivalent to Year 11).

[7] All eight FGD participants came from Company A. To avoid disruption to production line, each group was limited to four participants. Additionally, having two highly homogenous focus groups placed the findings on firmer ground when making conclusions (Xerri, 2018; Barbour, 2007).

Table 3

Participants' profiles of the interviews and the FGDs

Demographic variable	Category	Frequency (percent)		
		Individual interview	Focus group 1	Focus group 2
Gender	Male	6 (42.9)	2 (50.0)	3 (75.0)
	Female	8 (57.1)	2 (50.0)	1 (25.0)
Age group (years old)	20-29	6 (42.9)	3 (75.0)	3 (75.0)
	30-39	4 (28.6)	1 (25.0)	1 (25.0)
	40-49	4 (28.6)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Ethnicity	Malay	12 (85.7)	4 (100.0)	4 (100.0)
	Indian	2 (14.3)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Marital status	Single	2 (14.3)	2 (50.0)	3 (75.0)
	Married	12 (85.7)	2 (50.0)	1 (25.0)
Organisational tenure (years)	< 3	2 (14.3)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
	3-5	1 (7.2)	0 (0.0)	1 (250)
	6-10	7 (50.0)	3 (75.0)	3 (75.0)
	11-19	2 (14.3)	1 (25.0)	0 (0.0)
	>=20	2 (14.3)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)

5.3.2 Data collection procedures for qualitative phase

The same data inquiry procedures were used for both the individual interviews and FGDs. Semi-structured interview method was employed to inquire information on the participants' experiences with PM systems. An interview guide was made to ensure the conversations would stay on track with the research topic. The interview guide was developed based on the Critical Incident Technique (CIT) (Flanagan, 1954). This approach was considered to be highly appropriate in probing and discovering important events (Bitner, Booms, & Tetreault, 1990). Using the CIT framework, all the questions in the interview question guide were open-ended retrospective and asked for descriptions of events, perceptions and resulted emotions (see Appendix A). An example of question was "Can you talk about your latest experience of PA?" The combination of control and freedom offered by a semi-structured interview guide had facilitated a rich account of every participant's experience, affective responses and perception, while maintaining consistency with the tenor of the other session.

Basic information about the organisations' profile such as history, organisation structure, products, etc. was researched before the interview sessions. Upon visiting the organisations, communication sessions with the middle management were arranged to find out more information about the PM systems. This basic knowledge had facilitated the understanding of the participants' feedback during the interviews.

At the start of all sessions, a brief introduction was made by the interviewer (also the researcher) to state the purpose of the session to the participants. The interviewer also explained to the participants that they were selected based on the recommendation by their supervisors because they had met the participants' profile. In addition, the interviewer also explained the participants' right in taking part in the study and obtained consent from the participants (see Appendix A). In order to ensure

validity and practicality of the findings, on-site sessions were conducted. The participants were given time away from their regular duties to take part in the sessions.

Following recommended condition of CIT, 20 out of 22 participants had their interviews or focus group discussions within 24 hours after their appraisal sessions. The remaining two participants were interviewed approximately two months after their appraisal sessions (due to delayed process of achievement calculation, feedback session with the supervisors and reward distribution). All interviews lasted approximately 45 minutes to one hour. The interviews were conducted in Malay language. Using the interviewees' mother tongue allowed them to express themselves more eloquently about a topic (Xerri, 2018)[8]. As one of the strategies to maintain validity of the findings, event details and emotions uttered by the participants during the interview sessions were constantly being clarified by the interviewer. Otherwise, the researcher contacted the participants for clarification at a later time. Five participants were re-contacted after their interviews for clarification.

The FGDs were conducted concurrently with individual interviews. The advantage of this sequence was that the researcher was able to add codes and categories from both data collection sources as it went. A self-debriefing was undertaken by the researcher after the completion of each interview session to critically assess the researcher's own actions and to identify area for improvement for the following session. For instance, the researcher asked herself questions such as "How was my interaction with the interviewee?" and "Did I build rapport with the interviewee?" Such evaluation helped to ensure the trustworthiness of this qualitative study (Elo et al., 2014).

[8] For the two Indian interviewees, Malay was opted based on the consensus between the interviewees and the interviewer as the interviewer could not speak Tamil (their mother tongue) and the interviewees were able to express themselves without difficulty in Malay.

5.3.3 Data analysis procedures for qualitative phase

All the interviews and FGDs were video-recorded and transcribed verbatim. The researcher transcribed each interview or FGD before the next session was held. During the transcribing process, memos and notes were taken to record down insights, questions and ideas along the way. As recommended by Creswell (2009), this preliminary analysis provides a general overview of the topics of discussion and allows for a reflection on its overall meaning. Furthermore, it facilitates continuous reflection on the conduct of the research and identification of data saturation efficiently (Elo et al., 2014).

Since both the data inquiry methods intended to identify affective events and associated emotions among the participants, the fundamental data analysis procedure was the same. Inductive content analysis was the main approach to analyse the text data (transcripts of the interviews and the FGDs). Content analysis is a technique to systematically classify written or oral materials into identified categories of similar meanings (Moretti et al., 2011), and these categories can be explicit or inferred (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). Putting content analysis in this qualitative study, it means analysing the contents of an interview to identify the most frequently-reported affective events and emotions that emerge from the feedback given by the interviewees and grouping each event under overarching categories. Henceforth, content analysis deemed appropriate because this method prescribes counting of events, emotions and categories (Bryman, 2012). For this reason, the use of simple descriptive counting could provide useful information in terms of level of consensus, as well as the response patterns among the interviewees (Onwuegbuzie, Dickinson, Leech, & Zoran, 2009). Within a feedback loop, those codes and categories are revised, checked for reliability and eventually finalised. The basic steps of data

analysis in this study were (1) decided on the unit of analysis, (2) carried out coding and (3) categorised the codes (Creswell, 2014; Mayring, 2000).

The unit of analysis in the qualitative phase was the affective events and associated affective responses of the participants. Accordingly, the unit of observation was the events encountered by the participants, events encountered by their peers as reported by the participants, events from the participants' previous employment, events related to PM processes, routine praises and reprimands by the supervisors, emotions and latent emotions. The unit of observation could be single word or phrases.

Step (2) was the coding process. Coding is "the process of organising the material into segment of text before bringing meaning to information" (Rossman & Rallis in Creswell 2009, p.186). NVivo 11 was used to assist the coding process in this study. Keeping the research objectives in mind, the researcher examined the transcripts rigorously to find any content that was related to the aforementioned unit of analysis. Single word, phrases or section of the paragraphs deemed relevant would be selected and labelled under appropriate codes. Throughout the process of coding, new codes were being created, revised or deleted. Concurrently, labelling of contents was also constantly being modified. Coding of emotions was grounded on the list of primary, secondary and tertiary emotions from literature[9] (Shaver, Schwartz, Kirson, & O'Connor, 1987; Wilcox, 2001). This was to ensure only discrete emotions were coded, to reduce the chance of getting into emotion-laden judgment such as feeling satisfied and unfair. Additionally, emotions that were uttered by the participants in the interview sessions would be used directly as the labels of the

[9] Primary (basic) emotion is the first emotion a person feels consequent to an affective event. It carries utilitarian function and plays an important role in adapting to significant events (Scherer, 2005). Examples of primary emotions are anger, sadness and joy. Secondary or tertiary emotions appear after primary emotion, after more complex chains of thinking. Unlike primary emotion, secondary and tertiary emotion is learnt from parents and society.

codes. The researcher also referred to the event nomenclature in Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1959) and Basch and Fisher (2000). This would be convenient when making comparison of the findings from this study to literature.

In the process of defining and refining codes (and subsequently categorising), the researcher developed a qualitative *codebook.* It was first started as a matrix containing a list of predetermined codes with description which the researcher realised from reading through all the transcripts before starting the coding process. Further down the line, this codebook evolved and developed into a tabulation of all codes, respective meanings and remarks using new information learnt during the coding process as well as discussion with the helpers (see end of this section). Based on the researcher's experience, this codebook was useful because

1) It prevented drifting of definitions (Gibbs, 2007).
2) It provided a quick and effective way for checking. This had avoided redundancy of codes. As more codes were being created, the researcher would overlook the codes that already been created before.
3) It served as a guidebook for the helpers who verified the code assignment done by the researcher. The helper referred to this codebook to understand the definition of various codes and to look for alternative codes.

A similar practice was recommended by Creswell (2009).

In Step (3), owing to the sheer number of codes, negative affective event codes were sorted into categories based on similarity. The researcher intended to keep the category description simple and concise, but not sacrificing the richness associated with categories description, and more importantly, making the categories useful for answering the research questions eventually. Step (3) was only done on affective events not emotions, because the second objective of the current study was to identify

discrete emotions. For categories represented by only one affective event, they were combined to a miscellaneous category labelled as “Others”. Steps (2) and (3) were repeated until correct code and category labelling, codes/categories were mutually exclusive and exhaustive, and it became apparent that there were no more emergent categories (saturation point) (Cho & Lee, 2014).

The researcher realised that coding was a subjective process, which was prone to the researcher’s own preconception. To improve the reliability of the coding process, a total of seven individuals comprised of PhD students in Applied Psychology and Modern Languages, a graduate in Psychology, a MSc student in counselling, a professional in Marketing, a certified Chartered Secretary and Administrator and an electrical engineer by occupation reviewed the code assignment and event categorisation made by the researcher (Elo et al., 2014). An inter-rater reliability exercise was carried out. Percentage agreement (Miles & Huberman, 1994) and Krippendorff’s alpha (Freelon, 2013) was determined for each level of analysis. The results are shown in Table 4.

Table 4

The agreement percentage and Krippendorff’s alpha results

	Range of agreement percentage	Range of Krippendorff’s alpha
Code level	85 – 100	0.68 – 1.00
Category level	71 – 79	0.46 – 0.59

The results revealed high degree of agreement among the coders for code level. But, the process of assigning the events to their appropriate categories showed lower

degree of agreement. Discussions were then made among the coders to come to consensus about the assigning the right categories. The final stage was to interpret the results to identify the major events categories and emotions. This was done by counting the frequency of event categories and emotions. The results of Study 1 are presented in Chapter 6.

In the qualitative phase, individual interviews and FGDs were triangulated for the purpose of data completeness and confirmation (Halcomb & Andrew, 2005). Each method would bring out different yet complementary perceptions regarding affective events and corresponding emotional responses and contributed to a more comprehensive understanding of PM system among the Malaysian general workers (Carter, Bryant-lukosius, Dicenso, & Blythe, 2014). To analyse further on the participants' interaction of FGD, the codes and categories emerged from FGD and interviews were constantly being compared and contrasted (Onwuegbuzie, Dickinson, Leech, & Zoran, 2009; Sands & Roer-strier, 2006; Xerri, 2018). Also, quantitative information, i.e., frequency was computed and used to supplement description of codes (qualitative information) which would then provide a sense of consensus of the results from the FGDs (Guest, Namey, Taylor, Eley, & McKenna, 2017; Onwuegbuzie et al., 2009). Further, the researcher interpreted the "what" (e.g., complementary and argumentative comments) and "how" (e.g., the relationships between perceptions) of members' interactions among the FGD participants to obtain richer information and subsequently to enhance the meanings (Carter et al., 2014; Guest et al., 2017; Kitzinger, 1994; Xerri, 2018).

5.4 Study 2: Quantitative phase

The quantitative phase assessed the extent to which negative emotions were associated with acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention. Perception of fairness was also tested for its mediation role in this study. The results derived from the qualitative study were used to develop one of the measurement scales in this quantitative study. The following sections describe the sampling strategy, the measurement scales utilised, the data collection procedures and the data analysis techniques.

5.4.1 Participants and sampling

As discussed in Chapter 2, the current study focused on the manufacturing sector in Malaysia as scheduled in Section D (Manufacturing) of Malaysia Standard Industrial Classification 2000 (Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2000). The researcher contacted (emailed or phoned) potential organisations through personal contacts and by going through company directory of various associations of manufacturers of Malaysia. The objective and methodology of the study and the criteria of the participants were made clear to the organisations (see Appendix B for invitation email and briefing note to organisations). In the end, 17 organisations agreed to participate in this study. They were manufacturers from food products and beverages (Div. 15 according to MSIC 2000), basic metals (Div. 27), fabricated metal products except machinery and equipment (Div. 28), electrical machinery and apparatus (Div. 31), chemical and chemical products (Div. 24), paper and paper products (Div. 21) and rubber and plastic products (Div. 25) industries. Most of the participating organisations were concentrated around Klang Valley and central region of Peninsular

of Malaysia, where majority of the manufacturing factories were located (FMM, 2017).

Within each organisation, the organisation representative selected the participants among their general workers according to the criteria - Malaysian, permanent and confirmed workers, had been appraised before and had shown willingness to share their opinions. This (purposive sampling) technique allowed to get all possible cases that fit the profile of targeted participants (Boachie-Mensah & Awini Seidu, 2012; Dolores C & Tongco, 2007; Sholihin & Pike, 2013). The jobs that involved in the current study are listed in Table 5. Considering contract and non-confirmed workers might be subjected to different PM systems and consequently confounding the results, only permanent and confirmed workers were surveyed in this study.

Table 5

Examples of job title of the quantitative study participants

Classification	Example of job title
Group 4 - Clerical support workers	Production clerk, stock clerk, transportation clerk
Group 8 – Plant and machine operators and assemblers	Assembler, machine operator, metal processing operator, mobile plant operator, van/truck driver, quality checker/tester
Group 9 – Elementary occupations	Manufacturing labourer, transportation and storage labourer, cleaner.

Note. The job classification and examples are specified as per 2008 Malaysian Standard Classification of Occupation (3rd edition)

A total of 352 questionnaires were distributed and returned in several batches. Among the responses, 29 questionnaires were incomplete; only 323 questionnaires were usable (82%). Table 6 displays the demographics of the survey participants. Male participants consisted of 64.0% of the sample, and 36.0% were female. Participants aged between 18 and 73 years old. The largest age group (43.0%) was 30 to 39 years old, and the mean age was 35.8. As majority of the participants were middle-aged, most of them were married with children (63.0%). Majority (80.0%) of the participants were of Malay ethnic, and the remaining were Indian, Chinese and the aboriginal. The ethnic composition of the sample was representative of labour distribution of manufacturing sector in Malaysia, in which the majority were Malays (Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2018). In terms of employment tenure, the distribution was rather even with slightly more workers (25.0%) who have worked 11 to 19 years with the current companies.

Table 6

Participants' profiles of the quantitative study

Demographic variable	Category	Frequency (%)
Gender	Male	208 (64.0)
	Female	115 (36.0)
Age group (years old)	<20	5 (1.0)
	20-29	80 (25.0)
	30-39	138 (43.0)
	40-49	69 (21.0)
	>50	31 (10.0)
Ethnicity	Malay	259 (80.0)
	Chinese	18 (6.0)
	Indian	42 (13.0)
	Aboriginal	4 (1.0)
Marital status	Single	82 (25.0)
	Married with children	227 (63.0)
	Married without children	7 (8.0)
	Divorced/widowed	7 (4.0)
Organisational tenure (years)	<3 years	77 (24.0)
	3-5 years	53 (16.0)
	6-10 years	73 (23.0)
	11-19 years	82 (25.0)
	>=20 years	37 (11.0)

5.4.2 Measures

The data for the quantitative analysis were obtained by administering six questionnaires to the participants. The questionnaires were negative affectivity scale (Watson et al., 1988), negative emotion scale (developed from the qualitative results), the acceptance of PM scale (Kossek, 1989), Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES-9)(Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), turnover intention scale (Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991) and perception of fairness scale (Colquitt, 2001). Except for the negative emotion scale, the other five scales were adapted. Since the original scales were developed in other countries and languages, translation and cultural adaption was needed. Beaton, Bombardier, Guillemin and Ferraz (2000) five-stage cultural adaptation was referred to.

All scales were translated to the Malay language to satisfy the language and socio-cultural needs of the subject participants. The translation was first done by the researcher, back-translated by a Malay native speaker holding a certificate in translation and has been working in the manufacturing industry for more than 10 years. The researcher also consulted other translators and Malay native speakers on single word translation numerous times. Some items were modified to enhance the naturalism of the translations (Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008).

A pre-test was carried out to test the relevance and adequacy of the measurement scales in measuring the concepts, as the step to establish content validity of the scales. The measurement scales were sent to two industry HR managers (one of the managers holds a PhD in Psychology), a production department head and two supervisors for their comments. This step was taken to demonstrate that the scale items reflect the intended constructs and include theoretical and practical consideration (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). Concurrently, the

questionnaires were administered to eight Malaysian workers from two organisations to gain their feedback on readability and understanding of the questionnaire items.

Several changes were made as the result of the pre-test. In terms of adequacy of questionnaire, the main challenge was that the participants had showed difficulty in understanding the meaning of terms, instructions and questions, even with the Malay translation. The eight workers often asked for clarification and explanation from the survey administrator. For instance, they did not understand what "My performance appraisal results…" was referred to. Similarly, some workers could not understand the meaning of certain emotions (both English and Malay); and therefore took up to one hour (expected 30 minutes) to fill out the questionnaire, consent and demographics forms during the pre-test.

As a result, the researcher sought ways to improve the translation and added explanatory phrases to provide definitions for words. To further improve readability and simplicity of the materials, the questionnaire was revised to be monolingual (either English or Malay) instead of having both Malay and English versions together. The participants were given the choice to answer the questionnaire in either language. Using the revised questionnaire, a second set of pre-tests was conducted amongst four workers, and they were able to complete the questionnaires in less than 30 minutes.

The questionnaire was also modified in terms of how survey instructions were communicated to the participants. A small number of workers mentioned that the procedures were confusing. Thus, the researcher revised the briefing notes and incorporated diagrams and photographs to facilitate the explanation of the requirements of filling out the questionnaire. Sentences were shortened and instructions were made simpler.

All variables were measured by Likert scales with a minimum of five degree of frequency or level of agreement, meeting the requirement being interval data (Hair et al., 2010).

5.4.2.1 Negative emotions scale

There are relatively fewer scales measuring emotion as compared to measuring mood or affectivity such as the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) (Watson et al., 1988) and hedonic tone/pleasantness and arousal/activation (Russell, 2003). These mood measurement scales are deficient for (discrete) emotion measurement because the measurement items may be too unspecific with respect to triggering events and various distinctive positive and negative emotions that exist (Fisher, 1998; Van Katwyk et al., 2000). Hence, researchers develop their own emotion scales to suit their research needs.

The researcher referred to Wallbott and Scherer (1989) to devise a scale to assess emotions in the quantitative phase. In Wallbott and Scherer (1989), the participants were asked 15 questions plus 45 sub-questions, assessing their various emotional experiences (cognitive evaluation, physiological symptoms, verbal and nonverbal responses and control attempts). Instead of adopting all the assessment questions in Wallbott and Scherer (1989), only one question about feeling dimension (intensity) was included in the questionnaire because *feeling* was suggested by Scherer (2005) as the main dimension of emotion. Basically the Likert item asked for the level of intensity of each negative emotion with the anchors “1” (not at all) to “5” (extremely). This simplification was also done to avoid overly complex or onerous reporting task to the participants. Following Wallbott and Scherer (1989)’s practice, the participants were also requested to briefly describe the triggering negative events

in the questionnaire; the description was salient in assisting the participants to focus on the triggering events and the associated emotions (Totterdell & Niven, 2014). For the current study, 10 most-frequently occurred emotions from the qualitative study were assessed using this measurement scale in the quantitative phase (see Appendix B). The Cronbach's alpha was 0.958.

As emotion is short-lived, the timing to capture participants' emotions is a concern in data collection design (Gooty, Gavin, & Ashkanasy, 2009). Retrospective measure of emotion (recall of feeling over the past week or even months) is not recommended because emotion may be difficult to be recalled and reported accurately long after it has happened. As reported in Fisher (2002), studies have shown that people systematically and consistently overestimated the frequency and intensity of their emotion when reporting retrospectively compared to aggregate multiple real-time reports during the same period of time. To circumvent this condition, experiential sampling method (ESM) and its derivative methods such as ecological momentary assessment and diary recording, have been recommended in which participants would fill out the questionnaire at prescribed timing throughout a work day over a period of work weeks (Alliger & Williams, 1993; Fisher, Minbashian, Beckmann, & Wood, 2013; Tong, Bishop, Enkelmann, & Why, 2005). Emotions as well as other responses would be real-time. However, this method poses some problems to the subject work group of this study if followed completely. This method could place burden on the participants as they have to respond multiple times in a work day and possibly during inconvenient timing which could induce higher risks of occupational hazards. The reporting of events and emotions would most likely to be deferred; consequently, attrition of data might occur. In the end, data obtained might only reflect certain subgroup of the participants (Tong et al., 2005). Another problem

of adopting ESM could be that the frequency data recording of ESM might be overly frequent to capture affective events specifically related to the PM systems. Such events mostly happened during PA feedback sessions and reward announcement days, which deemed not to happen multiple times within a day. Hence, frequent reporting within a day was presumed unnecessary.

Having realised the importance of real-time reporting of emotions and the issues of adopting ESM method, the researcher attempted to balance the two. In the quantitative phase, the participants were requested to fill out the questionnaire once, within 48 hours upon the completion of their PA sessions. This 48-hour criterion was set to minimise the problem of memory recall, at least their recent memories were not totally unrelated to actual experiences (Mignonac & Herrbach, 2005; Wallbott & Scherer, 1989). This criterion also reflected the estimated period for the participants would need to fill out the questionnaire if they were to have off-work day right after their PA sessions (personal communication with the supervisors). To ensure this rule was being adhered, the approximate time gap between the PA session and the data reporting was noted. Those data which exceeded the 48-hour criterion would not be included in the hypothesis testing.

5.4.2.2 Acceptance of PM system scale

The acceptance of PM system was measured by an eight-item scale adapted from Kossek (1989). The participants were asked to rate their familiarity, significance, satisfactory, communication and perceived buy-in by the management towards the PM system of their organisations using a five-point Likert scale which ranged from “1” (strongly disagree) to “5” (strongly agree). Example items include “My performance

appraisal result reflects the effort I have put into my work". The Cronbach's alpha was 0.890. The scale is shown in Appendix B.

5.4.2.3 Work engagement scale (UWES-9)

Work engagement was assessed using the nine-item scale developed by Schaufeli and Bakker (2003). The scale consists of three subscales- vigour, dedication and adsorption, each of which is comprised of three items. Example items include "I feel strong and vigorous in my job" (vigour), "I am enthusiastic about my job" (dedication) and "I get carried away by my work" (adsorption). These items were rated on a seven-point Likert scale ranged from "0" (never) to "6" (always), and higher ratings indicated higher levels of work engagement. The Cronbach's alpha was 0.931. The complete scale is shown in Appendix B.

5.4.2.4 Turnover intention scale

In this thesis, turnover intention was measured by adapting a four-item scale originally developed by Konovsky and Cropanzano (1991) (see Appendix B). A reversed question is inserted in the scale to increase validity ("I intend to remain with this [company name] indefinitely"). Each item was measured using a seven-point Likert with higher score indicating stronger intention to quit from their current organisations, i.e., "1" being "strongly disagree" and "7" being "strongly agree". This scale was employed because it had been used on the workers from manufacturing industries previously (Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 1997; Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, & Birjulin, 1999); at least, there would be certain degree of

applicability of this scale for the manufacturing sector in Malaysia. The Cronbach's alpha was 0.896.

5.4.2.5 Perception of fairness scale

To measure perception of fairness, the researcher adapted the 20-item scale from Colquitt (2001) that assessed the participants' perceptions of distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice. The wording of the items was modified to reflect PM settings, as recommended by Colquitt (2001) and Greenberg (1993b) owing to its context-specific nature. For example, "Those procedures have been applied consistently" was modified to "Those procedures of performance appraisal have been applied consistently". These questions were rated on a five-point Likert scale. The full measurement scale is shown in Appendix B. The Cronbach's alpha was 0.932.

5.4.2.6 Negative affectivity scale

The translated version of the PANAS (Watson et al., 1988) was used to measure dispositional negative affectivity (NA). The participants were presented 10 negative adjectives such as nervous, afraid and ashamed. They were requested to indicate for each adjective ranging from "1" (not at all) to "5" (extremely) to what extent it reflected how they felt in general; the instruction was not constrained to any particular time. Generally, higher scores of negative affectivity indicated higher propensity to appraise events more negatively. The abbreviations of the items of the measurement scales can be found in section List of Abbreviation and Acronyms.

5.4.3 Data collection procedures for quantitative phase

The participants filled out the questionnaires in two rounds – before and after their PA sessions with their supervisors. Before the PA session, the participants filled out the consent form, demographics form and negative affectivity scale. The purpose of this round of data collection was to brief them about the research, get their consent and demographics, and assess participants' affectivity. The timing of administering this round of data collection was not strict; it was done anytime between few days up to few weeks before their PA sessions. In the second round of data collection, after their PA sessions, the participants filled out the rest of the scales (scales were packaged into one questionnaire) within 48 hours after their PA sessions.

About half of the questionnaires were administered directly by the researcher, and the rest were administered by the participants' respective supervisors or self-administered. For those administered by the researcher, groups or individuals were constituted in each organisation according to the workers' convenience. The researcher would start off by introducing herself, explaining the study, the confidentiality issues and their right as participant. Acknowledging that the Malaysian general workers tended to agree (or being acquiescent) with the questionnaire given by a higher authority (Harzing, 2006), an effort was also made to reassure participants that the current study was the researcher's thesis research and their organisations only helped the researcher out of goodwill. Additionally, the researcher consistently emphasised that there was no right or wrong answer, and that they should answer the questions as honestly as possible (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). In some occasions, the researcher provided immediate clarification to the participants which would eventually increase the response rate and validity (Sekaran & Bougie,

2013). The workers voluntarily and anonymously completed the questionnaires at their work places during working hours.

Some organisations did not allow an outsider to interact directly with their workers within their premises. For such cases, the questionnaires attached with cover pages explaining the survey and relevant instructions were distributed to the participants through the organisation representatives or supervisors (see Appendix B). Upon completion of the questionnaires, the organisation representatives were responsible to return them to the researcher. All the questionnaires were completed in three PA "seasons" – end of 2015 to early of 2016, mid of 2016, and end of 2016 to early of 2017.

5.4.4 Data analysis procedures for quantitative phase

The quantitative data analyses were undertaken in four main steps: preliminary data analysis which included data screening and exploratory factor analysis (EFA), followed by confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural equation modelling (SEM). Preliminary data analysis and CFA were necessary before the testing of the structural models using SEM analysis (Hair et al., 2010; Pallant, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). The method to estimate common method bias is discussed too.

5.4.4.1 Preliminary data analysis – data screening

Before performing any statistical analysis, it is imperative that all data are screened for missing data and outliers and examined for violation of statistical assumptions: linearity, heteroscedasticity, normality and multicollinearity. The issue of sample size needs to be addressed too. Table 7 provides an overview on the methods of

examination, the acceptance requirements and the actions taken in the data screening exercise of this study. IBM-SPSS ver23 was used to carry out the data screening.

Table 7

Methods of examination, levels of acceptance and remedy actions used in screening the quantitative data

No.	Issues	Methods of examination	Level of acceptance	Actions used in this analysis
1.	Sample size	-	100[a] 200[d]	-
2.	Missing data	SPSS MVA function Visual inspection	-	Excluded pairwise[a] Substituted by personal means
3.	Outliers	Boxplots[b] (univariate) Mahalanobis distance[cd] (multivariate)	- none of the p1 p2 pairs showing 0.0 value	Removed data Rescored to a less extreme rank Rescored to mean

Table 7 (continue)

Methods of examination, levels of acceptance and remedy actions used in screening the quantitative data

No.	Issues	Methods of examination	Level of acceptance	Actions used in this analysis
4.	Normality	ZSkewness, Zkurtosis[b]	±1.96	Referred to actions in 3.
		Histogram[b]	Resemble bell-shape	Employed bootstrapping procedure
		QQ Plot[b]	Data points are close to the diagonal line; no obvious curve	
		Skewness, kurtosis[c]	±3.0; ±7.0	
5.	Linearity and heteroscedasticity	Selected bivariate graph[bc]	Data points should appear in straight line, not curve	Referred to actions in 3.
		Residual plot[c]	Data distribution does not show "funnel" shape	
6.	Multicollinearity	Determinant value[a]	> 0.00001	Combined variables
		Correlation[c]	< 0.9	Removed variables

[a]For EFA only. [b]univariate. [c]multivariate. [d]For SEM analysis only

The steps to manage missing data described in Hair et al. (2010) were followed in this study. The researcher used missing value analysis (MVA) in SPSS to identify missing data. Participants with missing data of one or more set of subscales were excluded from further data analyses (assumed incomplete). Figure 7 presents the four-step process of identifying missing data and applying remedy.

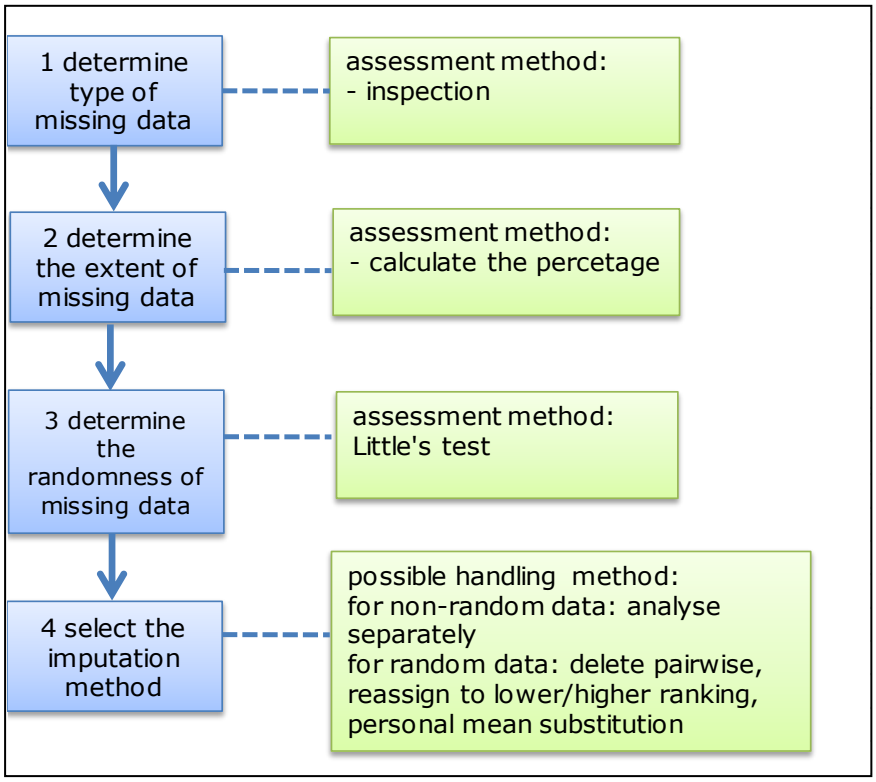


Figure 7. Steps to assess missing data and corresponding remedy

The first step of assessing missing data was to determine type of missing data – *ignorable* or *nonignorable* by estimating the extent of missing data. Missing data under 10% for a case and occurred in a random manner could be practically ignored, i.e., be removed or imputed using any method. For cases with more frequent missing data, Little's test (in SPSS MVA function) was recommended to ascertain the randomness of missing data (Hair et al., 2010). For non-random missing data, the missing data had to be analysed separately. For random missing data, few remedies

were possible – pairwise exclusion, personal mean substitution approach and reassign to a lesser extreme ranking. In pairwise exclusion, only cases with missing data on variables selected for an analysis were excluded. For the personal mean substitution approach, the missing value could be replaced with the mean of the non-missing responses of the items within the same scale. Such manner of value substitution deems acceptable because attitude or perception scales are generally constructed such that items are correlated to each other (Downey & King, 1998).

In assessing outliers, Aguinis, Gottfredson and Joo (2013) and Hair et al. (2010) was referred to. Figure 8 depicts the process flow of identifying and handling of outliers in this study. The first step of the assessment involved identifying *error outliers*. Error outliers are illegitimate outliers such as errors in typing, recording or collecting from a different population. For this study, boxplot method was used to detect univariate outliers in EFA; while for the SEM analyses, Mahalanobis distance was referred to in identifying multivariate outliers. The actions included rescoring (to a lesser extreme ranking or rescoring to means), correcting, removing or simply taking as it was.

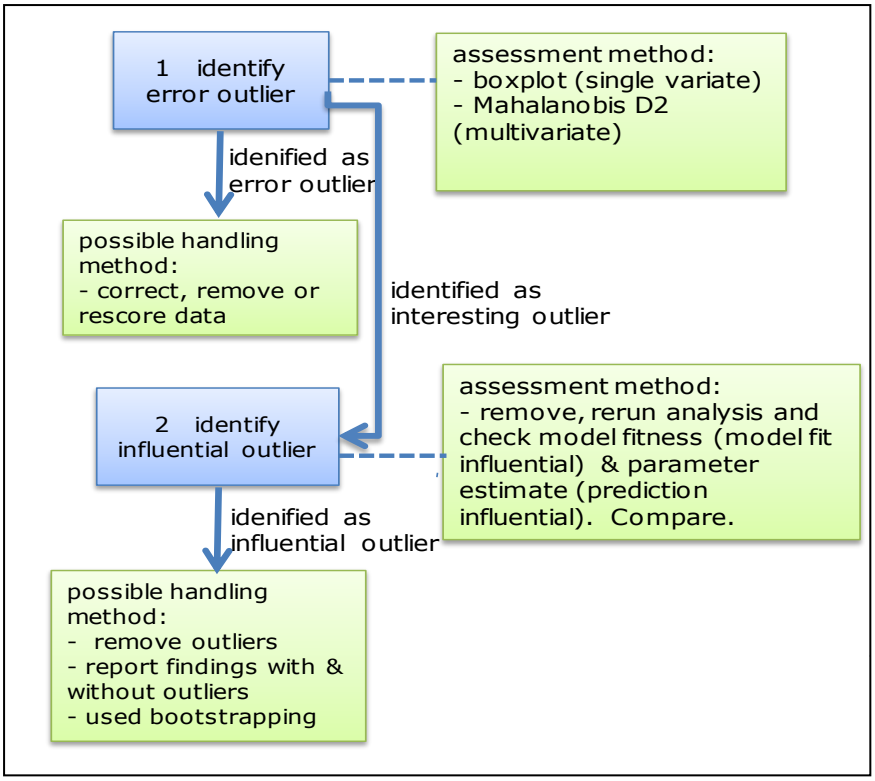


Figure 8. Decision-making and handling steps for defining, identifying and handling outliers in the context of SEM

Outliers which are not error outliers are extraordinary cases that are true outliers which lie at a distance from the other data points. They may be special cases with known reasons such as personal conflicts with the superiors, or without any known reasons. It is named *interesting outlier* (Aguinis et al., 2013). When interesting outliers are detected, subsequent data analyses are to be conducted with and without the interesting outliers. The practice of removing interesting outliers without examination is discouraged as they may contain valuable information (Aguinis et al., 2013; Hair et al., 2010; Osborne, 2014). By comparing the results, the impact of the outliers could be concluded, whether influencing model fit, influencing parameter estimates, influencing both or non-influential at all. For the current study, the change of the model fit of a model with and without the outliers would reveal the influence of the outliers. Accordingly, the researcher decided on the subsequent actions. The recommended remedies included removing the outliers, using the bootstrapping

method and reporting the findings with and without outliers. The step of managing interesting outliers was only applicable to SEM and regression analyses, i.e., not for EFA.

Univariate normality of data was assessed via two methods – the statistical method (skewness, kurtosis, Zskewness and Zkurtosis) and graphical method (histogram and QQ plots). For multivariate normality, again, skewness and kurtosis was referred to, but the acceptance level was different than those of univariate (see Table 7). The actions to improve the normality of data were similar to those of correcting the outliers because non-normality was often the result of outliers (Hair et al., 2010).

Linearity and heteroscedasticity was assessed roughly by inspection of bivariate scatterplots and residual plots between pairs of variables. With the help of software, the researchers added trendlines with correlation coefficients to each (bivariate) plot to assist the comparison of linearity and polynomials. If variables did not show a problem with heteroscedasticity, the distribution of data would look rather oval in shape (Field, 2013; Hair et al., 2010). More attention was given to variables which seemed "problematic" such as with outliers, high skewness or kurtosis and non-normal QQ plots in assessing linearity and heteroscedasticity. To improve heteroscedasticity and non-linearity the remedies for non-normality of data could be applied (Hair et al., 2010).

Multicollinearity happens when the predictor variables are highly correlated to one another (Hair et al., 2010). Although multicollinearity does not have any negative impact on the reliability of the model, it could influence the parameter estimates of the individual predictor variables. In this study, multicollinearity was detected by inspection of correlation matrix (variable pairs with >0.9 correlation indicated

multicollinearity) and the determinant of the correlation matrix (determinant is smaller than 0.00001 indicated multicollinearity) (Field, 2013).

It was expected that some variables would barely meet the requirement of normality or having data distribution skewed because this phenomenon was rather common in social science research (Pallant, 2011). Transformation of data was not opted in this study because the parametric test such as EFA and SEM had been reported robust enough to tolerate the violation of normality (Norman, 2010; Pallant, 2011; Sullivan & Artino, 2013). Instead, bootstrapping procedure was incorporated in the SEM analyses of this study. Bootstrapping assessed the stability of parameters and reported more accurate results (Byrne, 2016).

Given that the data collection technique employed in the present study is cross-sectional self-reports and tapping the affective domain (Organ & Green, 1981), the threat of common method bias exists. Common method bias happens when the common variance which is "attributable to the measurement method rather than to the constructs the measures represent". It is regarded by a number of scholars as a potential threat to the study of human behaviours (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003, p.879); it may inflate and deflate the relationships obtained. To minimise common method bias, the researcher actively carried out several procedural remedies. First, one open-ended question (requiring some description) regarding affective event would minimise pattern bias linked to Likert. Second, the sequence of the predictor variable and the criterion variable scales was reversed, i.e., the questions about emotions (predictors) were placed at the end of the questionnaire. This was to avoid context-induced mood bias of the participants if the questions about negative emotions were to be set right from the beginning. Similarly, one question in the questionnaire was reverse coded. This remedy induced psychological separation in the

participants and controlled for priming effect as well. Third, relating back to section 5.4.3, negative affectivity data were collected at a different timing with the rest of the variables. This created a temporal (time lag) separation among the measurement scales. Last but not least, the researcher's affirmation about anonymity, no-right-or-wrong answer and non-stake holding role of the organisations could reduce the participants' evaluation apprehension. Harman's one-factor test was used to examine the common method bias in this study. This test is one of the most popular and simple technique which is adopted to assess the bias.

5.4.4.2 Preliminary data analysis – exploratory factor analysis

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is a multivariate statistical procedure that is commonly used for condensing a large number of variables into a smaller sets of factors, establishing underlying dimensions between measured variables and latent constructs (Hair et al., 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014; Thompson, 2010). Since the scales used in the current study were mostly developed in Western countries and they were translated and modified, this validation step was important to ascertain whether the revised scales remained correctly tapping into the intended constructs as reported in the literature.

Regarding the issue of sample size for EFA, several guidelines have been recommended by the scholars. For example, rule of thumb in terms of ratio of sample size to number of variables 3:1, 6:1 or 10:1 (Cattell, 1978; Nunnally, 1978). Another form of recommendation includes the influence of communality and factor loadings. Tabachnick and Fidell (2014) comment that for low communality, few factors, and less than four items per factor, at least 300 data are required to have a stable factor analysis. MacCallum et al. (1999) show that sample of 100 to 200 is acceptable for

factors with loadings larger than 0.8 and communalities about 0.5. Similarly, Hair et al. (2010) suggest minimum 100 data are needed for EFA. A sample less than 100 is only acceptable if high communalities (all larger than 0.6) and high loading factors are obtained (may have computational risk of fail of the solution to converge) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). Basically, impact of sample size reduces as communalities increases (Hair et al., 2010; Hogarty, Hines, Kromrey, Ferron, & Mumforf, 2005; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). In the current study, 140 data were apportioned for factor analysis. This sample size was modest and seemed barely meeting requirement. The researcher referred to communalities and number of items per factor extracted to justify this sample size selection during the following data analysis step.

The steps to conduct factor analysis are summarised in Figure 9. After the data were being screened, the researcher confirmed the internal reliability of all scales using Cronbach's alpha. Reliability is the measure of the degree to which a set of items of a construct measure the same concept (Hair et al., 2010); it reflects stability and consistency among its items to measure a same construct. A high Cronbach's alpha value indicates the items of the measurement scales are highly interrelated and measure the same construct. Item(s) that is found not internally consistent with the rest would be deleted. The requirement of Cronbach's alpha is at least 0.7 (Nunnally, 1978).

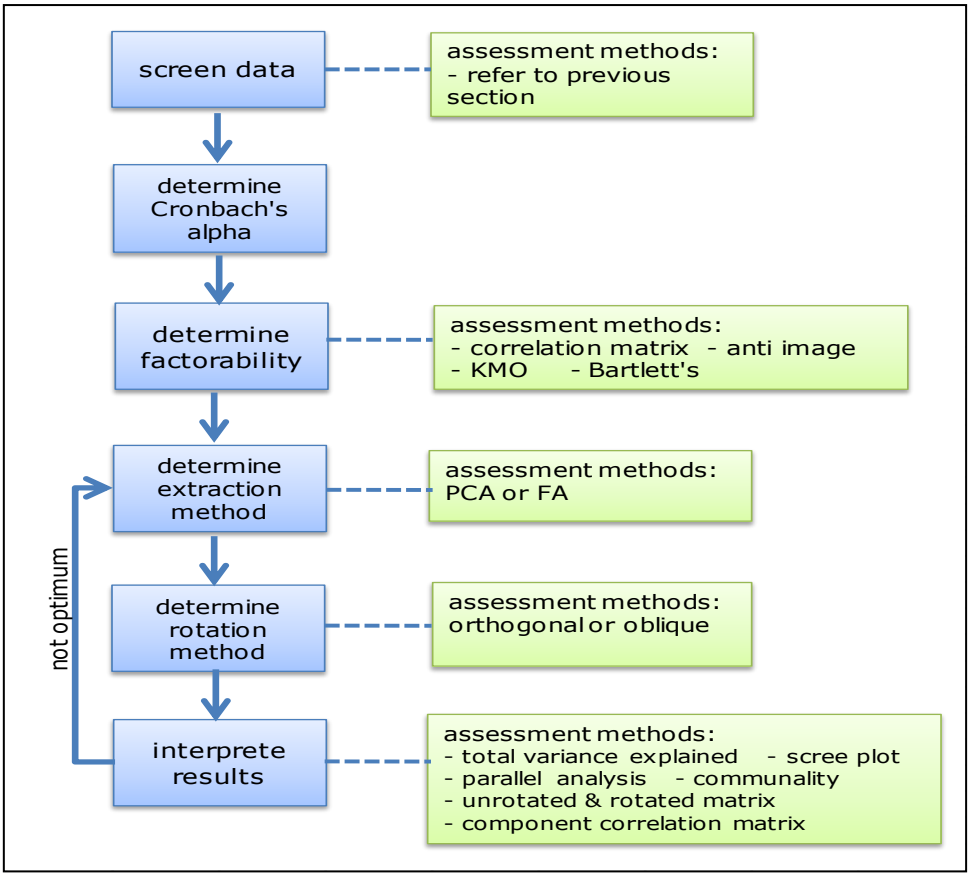


Figure 9. Steps to run factor analysis in this study. Adapted from Hair et al. (2010)

The next issue addressed concerns the factorability of the variables. This issue was assessed by inspecting correlation matrix, anti-image, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) and Barlett's test of sphericity. Assessment about factorability of the variables could be made by inspecting the correlations provided in correlation and anti-image matrixes. Alternatively, KMO and Barlett's test of sphericity are statistical tests to assess the factorability of the variables. Table 8 lists the tests for factorability and the requirements.

Table 8

Tests for factorability and the requirements

No.	Tests	Criteria of factorability
1.	Correlation matrix	Few pairs with correlation >0.3, but <0.9
2.	Anti-image	>0.5
3.	KMO index	>0.5 (the higher the better)
4.	Barlett's test of sphericity	Significant

In this study, principle component analysis (PCA) was mostly employed for the measurement scales because the main purpose was to determine minimum number of components to represent the dataset; except for **Accpt** and **Turn** scales, principle axis factoring (PAF) was used because no factor analysis was reported in the references. Regarding factor rotation, oblique rotation method was used in this analysis because this rotation method was reported producing more accurate results for research involving human behaviours (Costello & Osborne, 2005).

The last step of the factor analysis was to interpret the results. Three main techniques were employed to interpret the number of components within the items – eigenvalue rule (Kaiser's criterion), parallel analysis (Horn, 1965) and Scree test (Cattell, 1966). The interpretation guideline of each method is tabulated in Table 9. Given the choice and sometimes confusing nature of factor analysis, no single criteria should be assumed to determine factor extraction (Williams, Brown, & Onsman, 2012), and majority of the researchers typically used multiple criteria (Hair et al.,

2010). In this study, on top of the three approaches abovementioned, the researcher also referred to total variance explained, communalities, rotated component matrix and component correlation matrix to decide the number of factors to retain or to remove.

Table 9

Interpretation guidelines of eigenvalue rule, parallel analysis and Scree test

No.	Method	Interpretation
1.	Eigenvalue rule	factor with eigenvalue ≥ 1.0 can be considered a significant factor
2.	Parallel analysis	actual eigenvalue larger than its random ordered eigenvalue can be considered a significant factor
3.	Scree test	count the number of factors when curve becomes horizontal

The theoretical factor structure from literature for the five measurement scales (acceptance of PM system, work engagement, turnover intention, perception of fairness and negative affectivity) are shown in Table 10. This information serves as the basis for comparison and discussion in the Results and Discussion chapters. The results of factor analysis, i.e., number of factors, were employed to create the SEM models. In addition, the results also provided additional information about this subject work group.

Table 10

List of the scales and their theoretical factor structures from literature

No.	Questionnaire	No of item	Theoretical factor structure from literature
1.	Acceptance of PM system	8	Not known
2.	Work engagement	9	three factors – vigour, dedication, absorption
3.	Turnover intention	4	one factor – turnover intention
4.	Perception of fairness	20	four factors- distributive, procedural, interactional, informational
5.	Negative affectivity	10	one factor- negative affectivity

5.4.4.3 Structural equation modelling analysis

Structural equation modelling (SEM) is a set of statistical techniques to test the relationships among multiple observed and latent variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). A complete SEM analysis consists of two primary processes: the measurement model (section 5.4.4.3.1) and the structural model (section 5.4.4.3.2). The first process, measurement model specifies the (observed) indicators for each (unobserved) latent construct. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is the validation procedure used in testing the measurement model. The results of CFA inform how well the indicators combine to explain the hypothesised underlying constructs. The second process, structural model specifies the relationships among the latent constructs, and other observed variables that are not indicators of any latent constructs as theorised in the

study. Analysis on structural model informs the significance and direction of the hypothesised relations among the constructs.

SEM analysis was deemed suitable for the current study because of several reasons. Firstly, SEM allowed the specification and testing of non-directional and directional relationships among all constructs in a model simultaneously. Other alternative statistical methods such as correlation, regressions and PROCESS[10] are unable to provide information as comprehensive as SEM within a comparable duration (Hayes, Montoya, & Rockwood, 2017). Secondly, unlike the other general linear models, in which a construct might only be represented with one summated score and measurement error was excluded from the model, SEM allowed for the use of multiple indicators to represent a construct and addressed the issue of indicator-specific measurement errors. This feature enabled construct validity of the model to be estimated (Hoyt, Warbasse, & Chu, 2006). In addition, SEM analysis identified weak indicators, thus suggesting possibilities to improve construct validity and subsequently, model fitness. SEM output also provided modification index (MI). Statistically, MI is the amount of overall $\chi 2$ value would be reduced by freeing a path that is not currently specified in the model (Hair et al., 2010). MI is a useful tool which suggests potential cross-loadings (indicators which can be explained by on multiple latent constructs) that could exist if specified. As such, users could assess the extent of model misspecification without estimating many new models (Hair et al., 2010).

Thirdly, SEM offered goodness-of-fit indices of a model which indicated how well a proposed model fit a set of observations, in terms of their covariance (Hair et al., 2010). From these indices, comparison between different models could be made.

[10] PROCESS is a computer software for path analysis-based moderation and mediation analysis. It is written by Andrew F. Hayes, http://www.afhayes.com

Lastly, an auxiliary advantage of adopting SEM analysis was the availability of powerful and user-friendly software specifically developed for SEM. AMOS provided an easy-to-use graphical interface with an advance computing engine for SEM. Instead of writing programming codes, users only needed to convert schematic diagram of a model to AMOS graphic. The users could conveniently modify a model by adding, deleting and moving the constructs, indicators or paths in AMOS graphic without worrying about proper programming syntax. Visual representation of a model helped the understanding of a model. Through the same interface, users could perform SEM analysis just by "pointing and clicking" the relevant icons. Therefore, analysing and testing a model could be effectively and efficiently done. In this quantitative study, IBM SPSS AMOS ver23 was used to carry out the SEM analysis.

As regards the sample size for SEM analysis, as recommended by Hair et al. (2010), the model complexity and measurement model characteristics was taken into consideration. Following that, a sample size of 200 was deemed sufficient for the current study. A total of 212 data were used for CFA and SEM analysis. The data were also being screened for missing data, outliers and statistical assumptions according to the procedures prescribed in section 5.4.4.1.

5.4.4.3.1 The measurement model

The measurement model illustrated the nature and relationship between indicators and respective underlying latent constructs. The six constructs were measured using single or multiple indicators in a questionnaire as per described in section 5.4.2. CFA was then carried out on the measurement models to assess how well the indicators represented their underlying constructs. The measurement model was considered valid if its goodness-of-fit indices achieved three model fit categories, namely absolute fit,

incremental fit and parsimonious fit (Awang, 2015). In addition, CFA also assessed reliability (construct reliability), validity (convergence and discriminant validity) and unidimensionality of the measurement model. The following paragraphs briefly discuss the definitions and requirements of goodness-of-fit indices, reliabilities and validities adopted in this study.

One of the components of being a "good" model is the fit between the sample covariance and the estimated population covariance model (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014), and this is indicated through certain goodness-of-fit indices. In this study, four goodness-of-fit indices were referred to conclude the model fitness, i.e., $\chi 2/df$ ratio, comparative fitness index (CFI), non-normed fitness index (NNFI) and root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA)(Schreiber, Stage, King, Nora, & Barlow, 2006). The threshold and its respective index are given in Table 11. To optimise model fitness, the researcher employed two procedures – removed the indicators with low loadings (< 0.6) or covaried the error terms as per suggested by MI. Hence, indicators which were having large MI values (indicating a pair of redundant indicators in the model) and relatively low loadings were good candidates to be excluded from the model.

Table 11

The description and acceptance level of goodness-of-fit indices and factor loadings

Name of category	Description[a]	Name of index	Level of acceptance	Reference
Factor loading	correlation between indicator and latent constructor	standardised regression weight	> 0.6	Hair et al. (2010)
Parsimonious fit	index relative to complexity i.e., better fit with simpler and fewer estimated parameter paths	$\chi 2/df$ ratio	< 3.0 good >3.0 to <5.0 acceptable	Tabachnick & Fidell (2014)
Incremental fit	assess how well a model fits relative to null model	CFI NNFI	>0.95 >0.95	Hu & Bentler (1999)
Absolute fit	direct measurement of the goodnes of fit for the measurement and structutal models	RMSEA	< 0.07 good 0.08 - 0.10 mediocre > 0.10 poor	Hooper, Coughlan & Mulen (2008)

[a]From Hair et al. (2010).

Other than goodness-of-fit indices, model reliability, validity and unidimensionality were also assessed in the CFA. The construct reliability value (CR) was computed to assess the internal consistency of a construct, i.e., how well the indicators measure the same construct. Relatedly, the validity of a scale refers to how correctly it represents the concept of what it is supposed to measure (Hair et al., 2010). For the current study, content validity, convergent validity and discriminant validity were measured. Content validity of the measurement scales had been addressed by a few subject-matter experts in the pre-test (see section 5.4.2), and needed not be assessed again in the SEM analysis. Relatedly, convergent validity is defined as the extent to which the indicators of a specific construct share the proportion of common variance (Hair et al., 2010). Convergent validity can be verified by referring to factor loadings, and computing the CR and average variance extracted (average percentage of variance explained by the indicators of a construct) (AVE). Discriminant validity tells the extents to which a construct is distinctive from other constructs (Hair et al., 2010); it can be achieved when the square root of AVE is larger than the correlations, as the construct should explain more of the variance of its indicators than it shares with another construct (Awang, 2015; Hair et al., 2010). Being unidimensional means that a set of indicators can only be explained by one construct; one indicator can only load on one construct. Unidimensionality is achieved when all indicators have acceptable factor loadings (> 0.5) for the respective constructs and without any cross-loadings of error terms. Table 12 summarises the measurement methods and the requirements for reliability and validity in CFA.

Table 12

The measurement methods and requirements for reliability and validity in CFA

Reliability/validity of a construct	Types	Measurement method	Requirement	Reference
Reliability	-	CR	>= 0.6	Hair et al. (2010)
Validity	Convergent	CR	>= 0.6	Hair et al. (2010)
		AVE	>= 0.5	
		standardised factor loadings	>= 0.5	
	Discriminant	compare AVEs to square of correlation coefficient between 2 constrcuts	AVEs > r^2	Fornell & Larcker (1981)
		correlations among any 2 exogenous constructs	< 0.85	Kline (2011)
Unidimensionality	-	standardised factor loadings	>= 0.5 no cross-loading between latent	Hair et al. (2010)

Note. CR = construct reliability. AVE = average variance extracted.

5.4.4.3.2 The structural model

Once the CFA was completed and all values meeting the requirements of validity and reliability, the subsequent process was to assemble the constructs into the structural model. The structural model illustrated the causal relationships (in terms of nature and magnitude) among the constructs according to *a priori* hypotheses stated in the theoretical framework. It was through SEM analysis that the validity of the proposed model was determined. Similarly, the structural model was specified in AMOS graphic in order to execute SEM analysis.

From the SEM analysis output, the researcher examined the significance, strength and direction of standardised and unstandardised path estimates to make conclusions about the hypotheses. In addition, goodness-of-fit indices and the standardised residual covariance were inspected to assess the model validity. The optimisation steps to obtain acceptable model fitness were similar to those in running the CFA. Following the suggestions by Hayes and Preacher (2014), the researcher tested the significance of the indirect effect using a bootstrapping approach. Resampling method such as bootstrapping was touted to give the best combination of low Type I error rates and power to defect effects in mediation models (MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002). As pointed out in section 5.4.4.1, bootstrapping has an added advantage of being a remedy for outliers. In this study, the 95% bootstrap confidence intervals were obtained using 500 resampling. Lastly, the control variables were included to the optimised model, and SEM analysis was re-run to partial out the impact from the control variables on the hypothesised relationships.

5.4.4.4 Analysing the control variables – gender and age

Control variables are variables that researchers include in their research models to rule out alternative explanations for their findings and to increase statistical power (Becker, 2005). Certain variables may be associated with the criterion variables and may distort the results of the research (Spector & Brannick, 2011). For example, it could affect the strength or the presence or absence of a correlation. One of the ways to deal with the problem while seeking to establish causal relationships is to include the variable in the research model testing together with other predictor variables, i.e., it is under "controlled" or "monitored" for its impact with other variables (Becker, 2005).

This tactic mathematically partials the effect of control variables from the other variables included in the analyses.

The variables gender, age, marital status and years of service (at the current organisation) were the demographic information collected in the first round of data collection step. Only gender and age were introduced in the data analysis as controls so as to partial out their influences on the outcomes. Some studies have found gender differences in emotional experiences (e.g., Fujita, Diener, & Sandvik, 1991; Narayanan, Menon, & Spector, 1999), perceiving fairness (e.g., Dulebohn et al., 2016; Inness, Desmarais, & Day, 2005; Lee, Pillutla, & Law, 2000), acceptance of PA system (e.g., Kim, 2014), work engagement (e.g., Mostert & Rothmann, 2006) and turnover intention (e.g., Ko & Hur, 2013). Age was also reported correlating to fairness (e.g., Chen, Chen, & Xin, 2004) and work engagement (e.g., Carse, Griffin, & Lyons, 2017; Mostert & Rothmann, 2006). In addition, age was considered as a proxy for the participants' marital status and years of service because of their high correlations, 0.53 and 0.45 respectively.

The control variables were represented as observed variables in AMOS graphic. They were included to the models for analysis after optimisation of the fitness indices.

5.4.4.5 Analysing the moderator – negative affectivity

According to review of the literature, negative affectivity moderates two relationships – between perception of fairness and the work attitudes (acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention), and between negative emotions and the work attitudes (acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention). The moderator effect was tested by using moderated multiple regression method

(Aiken & West, 1991). The standardised predictor variable (z-scores) in a relationship was multiplied with the moderator; this new variable would then be tested for its significance with the dependent variable. For example, in testing a relationship between X and Y moderated by M, a new variable called **Zscore_X x Zscore_M** was created to represent the product of standardised **X** and standardised **M.** This variable was tested for correlation to **Zscore_Y**. Figure 10 shows the AMOS representation of this example. The significance of regression coefficient would indicate the presence of moderation effect. In addition, the sign of the regression coefficient would reveal the direction of the moderation. A positive coefficient would enhance the relationship between the predictor and criterion variables, while a negative coefficient would weaken the relationship.

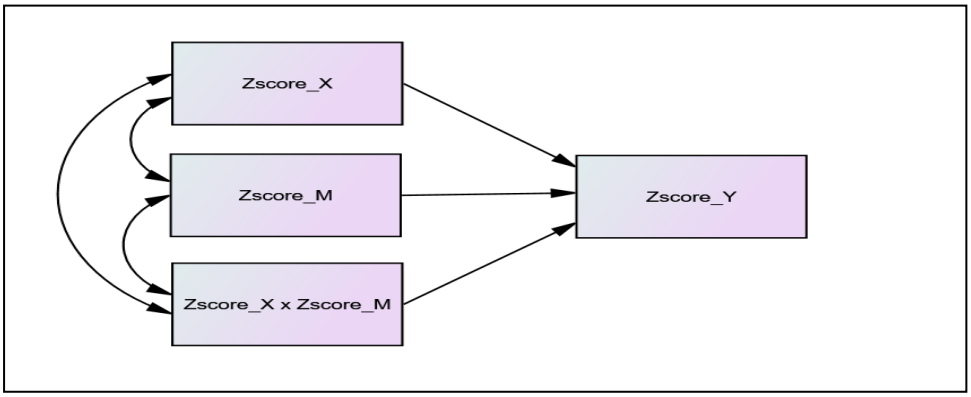


Figure 10. An example model in AMOS for testing M as moderator

5.6 Research ethics compliance

Two separate ethics applications were filed before conducting the interviews and collecting survey responses. The current study has sought to comply with the University of Nottingham Research Code of Conduct and British Psychological Society's Code of Ethics and Conduct. Approvals were granted by the Faculty of Arts and Social Science Research Ethics Committee- University of Nottingham Malaysia Campus.

According to University of Nottingham classification, the current research was Level B -participant contact study. The ethical issues required consideration were related to vulnerability, physical and psychological harm, deception, informed consent, confidentiality and anonymity of participants, duration of test and risk to the researcher. Special attention was given to the following two areas:

(a) Sensitivity of the research topic - To mitigate the sensitivity of the research topic, the researcher explained to the participants that the study as a requirement of the researcher's PhD programme which intended to explore the issues related to PM system from general workers' views. The study was not initiated nor sponsored by their organisations; therefore, the raw data would not be made accessible to the organisations. In addition, the researcher avoided directing the participants to sensitive issues such as actual salary figures, actual performance rating, religion and racial issues (for the qualitative phase).

(b) Interviews were video-recorded – means of recording was made clear to the participants when getting their consent. Records were saved in the researcher's personal laptop protected with password; only the researcher had access to the records.

5.7 Chapter summary

In this chapter, the specific research design, measurement scales and techniques deployed are discussed with justifications of the choices made. Based on the research objectives, the current study adopted sequential exploratory mixed methods approach. Interview and FGD methods were employed to explore the Malaysian general workers' experiences of PM system in the qualitative phase. Content analysis method was used to identify the major negative affective events and the associated emotions from the transcripts. Ten major negative emotions were then used to develop a scale to measure the workers' affective response levels in the quantitative phase. The workers' perceptions of fairness and work attitudes (acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention) were also surveyed. The EFA and SEM analyses were used to analyse the data, upon meeting the required statistical assumptions. The key ethical issues associated with the current study are duly explained at the end of this chapter.

The sequential exploratory design also enabled result confirmation between the qualitative and the quantitative findings. The comparison of the event categories and emotions obtained from both the methods would reinforce the validity and trustworthiness of the findings. Moreover, the researcher sought to reinforce the data-gathering process and to facilitate data cross-checking by tapping into the complimentary views that offered by triangulating the interviews and the FGD data. Specifically, triangulating the interviews and the FGD data would enable gathering of a more complete account of affective events and associated emotions from the participants as each method identified several event categories that were unique to each other.

The next chapter presents the results from the qualitative study (Chapter 6) followed by the quantitative study results in Chapters 7, 8 and 9.

CHAPTER 6 INTERVIEW AND FGD RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

6.1 Chapter overview

Using 14 semi-structured interviews and two focus group discussions (FGD) in a sample of Malaysian general workers from manufacturing sector, the first study in this thesis was designed to explore and identify major negative affective events related to PM system and the corresponding negative emotions associated with it. Data were analysed using content analysis. Transcripts were initially coded for events and emotions. The codes were then sorted into meaningful categories that were relevant to the research objectives.

The results and discussions presented in this chapter aim to answer the following research questions. What are the major negative events related to PM system among the general workers in manufacturing industries in Malaysia? What are the major negative emotions associated with the major negative events?

Parts of this chapter are previously published in Hoh, Ramos and Hooi (2019).

6.1 The major negative event types and categories

The purpose of this study was to identify the major negative events related to PM system and the associated emotions among Malaysian general workers. In total, twenty-two participants reported 264 negative events, averaging 12 events per participant. The 264 reporting was coded into 52 types of negative events. Rounds of formulation and revision of the inductive categories based on similarity among the events were then carried out. Consequently, 12 major negative categories emerged. Table 13 provides a summary of number of events, event types, major categories and

emotions identified from each data source. Appendix C (Table C1) lists all the 12 negative event categories with their corresponding event types and example quotes. For ease of reading in the following sections, names of event categories derived were placed inside quotation marks (“ “), while the emotions were *italicised.*

Table 13

Number of event type, major category and emotion generated from the individual interviews and the FGDs

	Interview	FGD	All participants
No. of events reported	179	85	264
No. of event types	43	30	52
No. of major category	12	10	12
No. of emotions identified	29	20	29

Among the 12 categories, “Negative acts of management” (mainly supervisors), “Negative acts of co-workers” and “Organisational policy restricted my reward” and “Not satisfied with monetary reward” were most frequently highlighted by the participants; constituting more than 50.0% of negative events. The ranking of significance of the negative event categories was set by referring to the frequency and extensiveness the category being brought up. Table 14 shows the frequency of the categories.

Table 14

Frequency of the negative event categories

No.	Event category & description	No. of times this event category was brought up	maximum participants reported this event category
1.	Negative acts of management	56	9 (45.0%)
2.	Negative acts of co-workers	35	7 (35.0%)
3.	Organisational policy restricted my reward	28	7 (35.0%)
4.	Not satisfied with monetary reward	27	4 (20.0%)
5.	Additional workload	24	3 (15.0%)
6.	Problems with goal setting	21	6 (30.0%)
7.	Others	19	4 (20.0%)
8.	Failed to achieve goal or upgrade	17	5 (25.0%)
9.	No standardisation among different supervisors or departments	13	4 (20%)
10.	Not aware of the PA criteria	10	4 (20.0%)
11.	Problems related to PA criteria content	10	3 (15.0%)
12.	External stressors	4	4 (20.0%)

It was noted that “Additional workload” might seem irrelevant to PM system and outside the scope of this study. However, “Additional workload” was significant especially to workers whose PA included a component of team performance. According to the participating organisations in this study, team output was aggregated daily to calculate the group incentive for all the team members. In order to enjoy the group incentive, team members were obliged to produce more parts to support co-workers who were less productive, less skilful or absent. Moreover, similar issue such as manpower allocation and worker sick leave were repeatedly highlighted by the participants.

Shift-work pattern (8-hour morning, afternoon and night shifts) was reported occasionally causing the participants work-family conflicts. The participants, especially the mothers were forced to take emergency leave or absent from work and subsequently, affecting their work performance. They felt *worried* and *physically tired* juggling between work attendance and taking care of their families. “We have to consider many aspects. How will it be like at home? How will it be like at work? If unable to come out with a solution, (I will) feel angry”. The affective event type may be unique to work groups that follow or maintain shift work schedule.

6.1.1 Triangulating interview and FGD results

As shown in Table 13, the aggregated negative events generated from the 14 individual interviewees contained 179 items, representing an average of 13 events per interviewee. The two FGDs (eight participants) generated a list of 85 negative events, thus averaging 11 events per participant, comparable to that of individual interviews. In addition, 22 out of 52 event types were reported in both the inquiry methods, confirming certain degree of convergence of the central characteristics of negative

affective events related to PM system across the individual interviews and the FGDs; hence, reinforced the validity and trustworthiness of the findings (Lambert & Loiselle, 2008).

In terms of unique event types reported by each inquiry method, 22 event types were reported by the individual interviewees while nine event types were reported by the FGD participants. The unique event types reported by the individual interviewees were basically related to personal experiences such as “Failing an examination”, “I have reached the final grade - no more upgrading”, and “PA is held in an open office where third party could hear the conversation”. Compared to the FGD participants, the interviewees were more willing to talk about events related to monetary reward. (More than 50.0% of the interviewees mentioned 22 negative events related to monetary rewards, while only 25.0% FGD participants mentioned five negative events related to monetary reward.) Basically, personal experiences and monetary issues were more talked about during the one-to-one sessions. On the other hand, the FGD participants added nine negative events to the list specifically concerning supervisors and management, for instance “Supervisor plays favouritism” and “My department PA practices are more stringent than other departments”. The unique events resulted from the two different inquiry methods demonstrated the advantage of using data triangulation to obtain a more complete list of the affective events of PM system among the Malaysian general workers.

As expected, evidence of bandwagon effect was observed from the FGD sessions. The discussion below demonstrates broad agreement among the participants that customer complaint was the most difficult target to achieve. Such a view was an emergent product of the group interaction, with each participant building on the preceding remark. (Note: names were made up to protect the participants’ anonymity.)

Moderator: For you, which section is most difficult to score in this evaluation?

Ali: Customer complaint. For my team, we have often lah! Because "play" with *Ziela* (machine name), *wavy* (defect), *oxidised* (defect) inside. We don't know.

Farhan: Customer complaint always comes midyear, always happens in the middle of a product … Sometimes night shift, insects come to touch and this could cause *blister* (defect) or something… We don't know with *blister* or not because it is running non-stop. That's why we get customer complaint.

There were also cases in which an issue eventually converged to a new "definition" after exchange of opinions among the participants. The conversation excerpt below describes the discussion between three participants about the criteria of getting a salary upgrading, and illustrates how the participants' perception of upgrading changed from points-contingent to department/supervisor-contingent.

Moderator: Back to you Aini, you expected to get the (salary) upgrading?

Aini: Yes, I expected to get.

Moderator: But you did not get it …

Samad: Even though points enough, didn't get it!? QA boss really difficult. Bosses from different departments are different. Followed mood … hmm... followed err... how should I say it? My wife used to work in QA. She said it was really more difficult.

Aisyah: Sometimes, some bosses played favouritism. You know? When I was working downstairs, I was OK. In fact my attendance was OK. "Ah, you were not qualified for upgrading!"

Samad's first statement revealed his understanding of "point requirement" being the main criterion of an upgrading. But after listened to Aini's case, he spontaneously

related to (and acknowledged) his wife's experience about getting an upgrading in the QA (Quality Assurance) Department. Aisyah further added that approval of an upgrading was dependent on the supervisor, specifically the relationship between the supervisor and the worker. This discussion among the FGD participants had brought about the affective events of "My department PA practices are more stringent than other departments" and "Supervisor favouritism", which were not reported in the individual interviews.

Contrasting viewpoints among participants of the focus groups provided enlightening results. In the sample snippet below, disagreements among the participants provided them an opportunity to revise opinions or to think more about the reasons why they held the views that they did. Rosita perceived that her department (QA department) was more stringent in approving salary upgrading compared to other departments. However, after she listened to Farhan's explanation regarding why his department seemed to approve upgrading more leniently, she did not deny that nature of the job could be a factor in deciding whether salary upgrading was warranted but still maintained her perception that management was the main factor of her unsuccessful salary upgrading.

> Moderator: After you listen to the stories from all these brothers, how do you feel?
>
> Rosita: I don't want to talk. I follow department. They said Department X is really easy to get (upgrading). QA is really difficult.
>
> Farhan: Department X work is tougher. Not (because of) supervisor, I guess… difficult to upgrade, like Department X has to 'play' with chemical, emulsion, etc.

Moderator: Will you consider type of work of Department X and cause easy upgrade? Yet your work “look-and-see” “look-and-see” easy work cannot upgrade?

Rosita: Don’t know. My other factor is the Supervisor and Head of Department lah!

Moderator: You feel that it is very difficult for upgrading because the Supervisor and Head of Department are very strict? Compare to Department X. Not the problem with procedure lah! Human issue?

Rosita: Management (‘s problem)

Moderator: Not the system problem?

Rosita: If follow the system, (upgrade) every two years, right? If everything OK (and) everything average (shrugged). That’s what happened.

Rosita’s perception about salary upgrading echoed the finding of Pooyan and Eberhardt (1989) who found that the strongest determinant of perception of a PA system for nonsupervisory respondents was their relationships with the supervisors.

In this qualitative study, the individual interviews and FGDs have produced similar yet also distinctive affective event information. On the one hand, interviews have provided more personal descriptions such as salary and outcome of promotion or upgrading. On the other hand, FGD is good in stimulating more detailed description of issues which involved comparison among the participants, such as different appraisal standards practised by different supervisors or departments. Worth pointing out is that this data triangulation analysis has showcased the empirical evidence on the comparative data-generating potential of both methods, which is scarcely been reported in the literature (Guest et al., 2017). It is also worth mentioning about the concurrent sequence in the conduct of the individual interviews and FGDs. The

researcher could conveniently cross-checked the data gathered from the FGDs in the subsequent individual interviews, vice versa. This comparison of information had facilitated the data triangulation analysis between the two inquiry methods. When all findings were taken together, a more complete picture of how Malaysian general workers responded to PM systems was captured.

6.2 The major negative emotions

The participants revealed 29 negative emotions associated with the negative events of PM processes. Since the FGD reported fewer event categories than interviews (10 vs. 12 categories), the associated emotions reported by the FGD participants were fewer than those of the individual interviewees. Nevertheless, the types of emotions reported were similar. The 10 most frequently revealed emotions from the FGDs and the interviews were approximately 80% similar. These event types and corresponding emotions are listed in Appendix C (Table C2).

The results also indicated that different people appraised the same events differently and elicited different discrete emotions. This was in line with the cognitive appraisal theory which suggested that similar events might generate different discrete emotions because of variations in how individuals perceived such events (Lazarus, 1991). For instance, “Senior workers do not get the benefits from minimum wage policy” engendered varying negative feelings across three individuals - one felt *resentful* (towards the management), while another felt *envy* (towards the co-workers) and *self-pity*. Figure 11 displays the negative event-emotion matrix constructed from the 12 major event categories and the corresponding 10 major emotions. The 10 major emotions that had been revealed by the participants were *resentment, anger, disappointment, inadequacy, acquiescence, worry, frustration, the feeling of*

grievance, no appreciation and *scepticism.* The most-frequently mentioned categories, i.e., “Negative acts of management”, “Negative acts of co-workers” and “Organisational policy restricted my reward” and “Not satisfied with monetary reward” generally caused *resentment, anger*, *disappointment*, *no appreciation* and *acquiescence*.

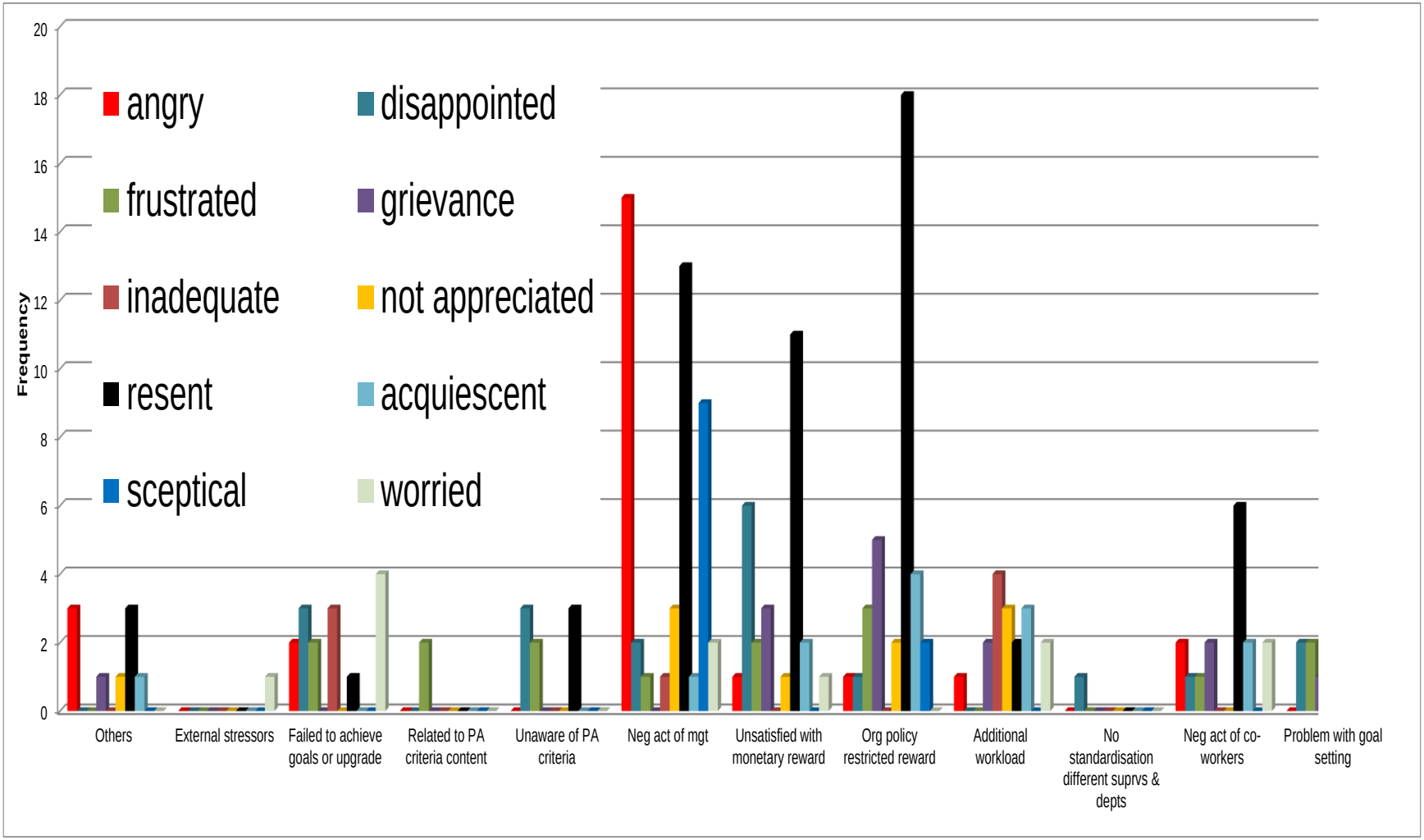


Figure 11. Frequency of emotion vs. negative event categories

In the current study, emotions were either self-reported by the participants or identified by the researcher. They were not limited to a pre-printed selection of emotions. The emotions amassed from this study were rich, original and particular to the Malaysian setting (Totterdell & Niven, 2014). This was exemplified by the emotion of *acquiescence*. *Acquiescence* that was identified in this study did not fit exactly the meaning of neither acquiescence nor quiescence as defined in Pinder and Harlos (2001); it carried additional components of helplessness and accepting what was given by management, supervisors or even fate/God. This emotion appeared to be culturally-unique.

It is interesting to note that the female and the male participants responded differently to affective events. For 10 out of 12 negative event categories, female participants reported more negative affective events compared to male participants, especially for the event categories "Negative acts of management", "Negative acts of co-workers" and "Additional workload". Consequently, more negative emotions were also highlighted by the female participants. In addition, the female participants tended to express emotions that were regarded as *scared* and *sad,* i.e., *apathetic, helpless, inadequate, acquiescent, sceptical* and *tired (physically*) (Wilcox, 2001). This finding is in line with previous literature that found females to report more frequently about interpersonal relationships or conflicts than males (Lee et al., 2000; Narayanan et al., 1999).

6.3 The major event categories and associated emotions

The events categories "Negative acts of management", "Not satisfied with monetary rewards", "Negative acts of co-workers" and events related to goal setting were frequently highlighted by the participants; constituting more than 50.0% of the

negative events. The following sections discuss these events and the associated emotions in greater detail.

6.3.1 Negative acts of management

Interactions with management, particularly those with supervisors emerged as the most significant trigger of emotional responses amongst the participants of the study. This finding is consistent with the findings of Dimotakis, Scott and Koopman (2011), who established an association between interpersonal interaction and affective states in general. "Negative acts of management" category (12 event types were identified) were associated with the emotions of *resentment, anger* and *disappointment*. These emotions, especially *anger* is consistent with findings from previous literature (e.g., Fitness, 2000; Basch & Fisher, 2000, Mignonac & Herrbach, 2004).

Supervisors' communication skill and style was reported more frequently compared to other events in the category of "Negative act of management". Three out of twelve event types were related to communication such as "Supervisor uses rude verbal and unreasonable explanation" and "Management is not willing to listen". Supervisors who used rude words or gave unreasonable explanations triggered workers feeling *upset, angry* and *resentful*. These findings resonate with earlier findings of Dasborough (2006) and Grandey et al. (2002). Dasborough (2006) found that inappropriate communication by the leaders such as yelling at subordinates was associated with employees' frustration, disappointment and anger. Similarly, Grandey et al. (2002) observed that 25% of workplace anger incidents were consequences of personal attacks or incivility instigated by supervisors.

Drawing from a recent review paper by Schleicher, Baumann, Sullivan and Yim (2019), the most common employee reactions to negative performance feedback

is generation of negative affective responses, and the commonly-reported negative emotions are anger, frustration and discouragement. Similar results were found in this study. In terms of feedback content and delivery manner, the participants commented favouring feedback that was clearly explained and based on accurate information, while detesting the supervisors for "giving unreasonable reasons", "did not verify data properly" and "not clear about my work quality". The participants reported feeling *resentful and sceptical* by such acts. The participants also wished for a two-way communication during their performance feedback sessions so that they could express their points of view. When participants perceived management as closed and unwilling to listen (i.e., "Management that is not willing to listen"), they tended to lead to feeling *apathetic* towards the system.

In terms of frequency of getting performance feedback, events such as "Supervisor did not inform worker's mistake promptly" reflected the participants' preference to receive prompt feedback. This finding reflects the recent year cases of organisations such as ADOBE (Morris, 2016), GE (Birt, 2017) and Cargill (Miller, 2015) revamping their PM systems to institutionalise more regular and informal feedback sessions between supervisor-subordinate dyads.

The present findings about communication style and frequency of feedback support literature on performance feedback (e.g., Baron, 1988; Brett & Atwater, 2001; Chory & Kingsley Westerman, 2009; Mitchell, 2010b), and expand the corpus of literature by adding several specific aspects and associated affective responses of performance feedback. Additionally, the present findings could be extrapolated to suggest that conversational dynamics during PA sessions such that supervisors' relation-oriented statements (e.g., providing encouragement and active listening) would invite workers to actively contribute to the appraisals (Hoh et al., 2019).

A possible explanation as to why feedback has an impact to workers' psychological and behavioural responses might be that the feedback event is viewed somehow fair/unfair. The perception of fairness may emanate not only from the valence of the feedback itself, but also the manner in which the feedback is communicated (Chory & Kingsley Westerman, 2009). Interactional justice explains this phenomenon (Bies & Moag, 1986). Interactional justice involves conveying and receiving sufficient information in a dignified and respectful manner. If subordinates feel they are being unfairly treated when their supervisors interact with them, this would trigger anger (Jacobs, Belschak, & Den Hartog, 2014; Krings, Jacobshagen, Elfering, & Semmer, 2015), hostile (Geddes & Baron, 1997), moral outrage and righteous indignation. The following words from a participant relate to interactional justice:

> When we fight back, he said 'Oh! I already submitted to HR, can't withdraw'. That's how he answered! We could discuss lah… This supervisor straight away (said) 'XXX, you got a minus point.' No discussion!

This specific event was associated with the negative emotion *resentful*. The violation to PA interactional justice could be attributed to the supervisors not aware of how their words and actions would affect their subordinates. Previous research also suggested that supervisors were less interested in the interpersonal issues surrounding PA sessions compared to subordinates (Reinke, 2003). Relatedly, Krug (1998) reported that many managers were poorly trained in giving feedback to subordinates according to a research done by the American Management Association (as cited in Harms and Roebuck, 2010). After all, many of the organisations hire supervisors or managers for their technical expertise rather than managerial acumen (Lake & Luong, 2017). Nevertheless, supervisors ought to be made known to be mindful of the

contents of their words, the tone of voice when they speak and the importance of clear and concise communication. Bringing effective communication to a higher level, supervisors could even make seemingly mundane events meaningful by infusing them with emotional substance (Kaplan et al., 2012; Kaplan, Cortina, Ruark, Laport, & Nicolaides, 2013).

The findings of this study are generally in line with literature of affective event and leader-subordinate relationship that found decisions and acts of superiors' were the main sources of affective reactions (Dasborough, 2006; Matta et al., 2014; Thiel et al., 2016; Totterdell & Niven, 2014). The large number of the affective events from this study revealed the need to emphasise on (supervisors' and workers') behaviours that matter daily, on top of focusing on the formal procedures (Kanner, Coyne, Schaefer, & Lazarus, 1981).

6.3.2 Unsatisfactory rewards

Several scholars have suggested the importance of workers' salary in determining employees' satisfaction with PM systems or organisations (e.g., Choi, Tan, Wan Ismail, & Abdul Rashid, 2013; Frese & Fay, 2001; Nada et al., 2012; Sudin, 2011). The PM system would be a source of dissatisfaction if the system (or organisation) does not recognise the effort of employees despite achieving goals (Choi et al., 2013). Unsurprisingly, receiving rewards, especially monetary reward was identified as a major affective event category in this study. Participants felt happy and enthusiastic when they received satisfactory rewards.

However, monetary reward could also be a double-edged sword. The participants in this study frequently highlighted not being satisfied with their monetary rewards. They felt *disappointed*, *resentful* and *feeling grievance* towards the

organisations. These groups of workers came from a lower income bracket, and lived on a tight budget. In addition, 85.0% of the participants in this study were married with children; the financial burdens on these working parents were presumably heavy. The stress from monetary matters would be intense. As one participant put it:

> For those who have worked long, like me, already married, still had to (continue) to work because need to add more money, add more children, have to provide financial. 'Pop'! Didn't get, even more disappointed! For us, expenses get more with time, so we are more hoping that (upgrading) lah!

This finding is consistent with those of the classic study by Patchen (1961), in which blue-collar workers of an oil refinery factory reported strongest level of dissatisfaction towards their earning among six category of occupations (e.g., manager, professional and clerical) within the same organisation.

The most striking observation emerged from the category of "Unsatisfactory rewards" was the extent of comparison revealed by the negative events. For example, "I have more work load than other workers, yet my monetary reward is less" (compare workload and reward to peers) and "My effort is not commensurate with monetary reward" (compare to own expectation and effort-reward proportion). According to social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954), people tend to compare to others who are close to or similar to them (e.g., co-workers holding the same positions in the same department or co-workers having the same salary scale but from other departments). People would feel discontented when they realise that they receive less of what they believe themselves to be entitled to compared to those around them (Folger & Martin, 1986). Patchen (1961) revealed that 75.4% of respondents felt dissatisfied when they compared to co-workers who earned more compared to them despite being in the same or even lower job positions. Interestingly, however,

participants expressed less emotional (more accepting) despite perceiving their salaries as unsatisfactory, as long as their peers received approximately the same amount:

> The 1% (increment) of course not satisfied, but everyone was liked that. What could we do, right? If only we were the only people who got 1%, the rest of the people got 10%, end of the year would be unsatisfied! But if everyone got the same, want or don't want, just accept lah!

The significance of monetary reward was previously highlighted in the seminal work of Herzberg et al. (1959). The authors found salary to be one of the major events which resulted in dissatisfaction with the work environment. The criticality of rewards was also emphasised in the study of Nada et al. (2012) which revealed remuneration as a source of occupational stress for workers from a polymer manufacturing company in Malaysia.

Organisational policies in relation to PM systems were frequently related to rewards. The event "Senior workers do not get the benefits from minimum wage policy"[11] especially, is one single affective event that has accounted for the most number of negative affective responses from the participants. This policy had caused the participants who had worked in the companies for several years feeling highly emotional. Apart from evoking comparisons between themselves and more junior co-workers, this policy also evoked comparisons across groups and departments. One participant felt *angry* that a foreign co-worker was receiving a salary that was almost comparable to his: "About the RM900, they are no longer foreign workers; they are same standard as the locals. How can it be?" Another participant compared his

[11] exclusively refers to the minimum monthly wage RM900 policy imposed by the Malaysian government in 2013 (1USD approximately equals to RM4)

compensation to those of his friends' from other companies and as a result, he felt *unappreciated* by his own company:

> Some factories... the new ones came in at RM900 and those already working were added (salary) also… (the new ones) added RM100. Those who already worked long, added RM50, let them felt the increment as well, their work was appreciated.

The participants also revealed that some organisational policies evoked feelings of *resentment, envy* and *grievance*. It is worth mentioning about the prevalence of the emotion of *envy* among the workers when it came to unsatisfactory rewards. Although *envy* was not one of the 10 major emotions identified from the qualitative study, it was the second most frequently-mentioned emotion in the category "Unsatisfactory rewards", after *resentment*. As highlighted earlier, extensive social comparisons with different groups such as the co-workers from other work units, friends from other organisations and foreign workers triggered the emotion of *envy*. Following that, the emotion of envy would have ignited unfair sentiment among the workers (Dogan & Vecchio, 2001; Veiga, Baldridge, & Markóczy, 2014) and potentially sparkled tension between the local workers and the foreign workers (Ang, Van Dyne, & Begley, 2003; Hooi, 2016). Although PA is the core of a PM system, the performance of employees and eventually the performance of an organisation depend heavily on organisational policies and practices of an organisation (Anitha, 2014).

As for non-monetary rewards such as recognition and small gifts, interestingly, only one case of not receiving non-monetary reward was reported leading to the feeling of *not appreciated*. This observation shows remarkable contrast to the emotional responses to receiving monetary reward. The finding concurs with Basch and Fisher (2000) in which the lack-of-receiving-recognition event only constituted 1%

of all the overall negative events. A plausible explanation for this result might be that workers did not expect giving praises or recognition being part of the supervisors' responsibility; it was rather treated as 'good-to-have' leadership trait. Nevertheless, encouraging words from supervisors had shown to promote emotions of enthusiasm, trusting and thankfulness among the general workers (Hoh et al., 2019)

6.3.3 Problematic goals

The topics of achieving goals and goal setting were frequently mentioned by the participants. As described by a participant, "This year I want to reduce sick leave. It tells whether I am better than last year". For this participant, goals directed her attention and effort towards goal relevant activities (Shrivastava & Purang, 2011). Having clear goals also includes well-explained goals and their appraisal guidelines by the supervisors; this can be represented briefly by "To me, it is clear. Boss mentioned before that the candidates will be upgraded are workers without MC (medical leave). So, I understand why I was not upgraded". In this example, the participant appeared to be accepting for passing over for a salary upgrading; the feeling of confident and trusting was expressed by this participant. The findings fully support one of the principles of goal setting theory whereby clarity of goals is the tenet (Locke & Latham, 1990).

The participants also acknowledged their negative experiences in relation to how their performance goals were being set and executed. Among all the negative event categories, there were at least four categories (amounting to at least 11 events) relating to goal setting and goal attainment, i.e., "Problems with goal setting", "Not aware of appraisal criteria", "Problems related to appraisal criteria content" and

"Failed to achieve goal or upgrade". The resulting emotions reported were diverse – *inadequate, worried, frustrated, helpless* and *disappointed.*

Goals are commonly tied to monetary reward and therefore, this would increase the sensitivity and criticality of goal setting and goal attainment. Locke and Latham (2009, p.18) argued that "… downsides of goal setting are frequently confounded by monetary incentives..." As a whole, the finding about the category "goal setting" in this qualitative phase is in line with several empirical studies which have concluded that events related to goal progress and goal attainment are significant and highly affective (e.g., Alliger & Williams, 1993; Basch & Fisher, 2000; Cron, Slocum, Jr., VandeWalle, & Fu, 2005; Tschan, Semmer, Messerli, & Janevski, 2010; Zohar, Tzischinski, & Epstein, 2003). Emotions such as disappointment, unhappiness and fear have been reported as a result of lack of goal achievement.

The high frequency of the negative events related to goal setting and attainment of this study indicated that many aspects of goal setting and attainment could go wrong and leaving the workers feeling dissatisfied. For instance, a mismatch between performance goals and core tasks could cause ambiguity and distrust towards the organisations among the workers (Dahler-Larsen & Pihl-Thingvad, 2014). In addition, the finding of this study sends a clear message regarding the criticality of setting and implementing smart goals in organisations, even for general workers.

6.3.4 Negative acts of co-workers

Goals were found indirectly influencing the relationship among the workers as well. While some participants considered sharing goal (performance) was every team player's responsibility and feeling enthusiastic, some participants complained that shared goals lowered their performance due to other members' mistakes and thus they

subsequently felt *resentful* and *scornful*. Sample phrases to highlight these emotions include “I have to bear other members’ or other departments’ mistakes” and “Free riders in my team”. With the increasing use of permanent work teams in organisations (Brown & Warren, 2011), and therefore shared team goals, this finding makes a noteworthy reminder to organisations about the affective side of team goal setting.

According to the participants, positive acts of co-workers that led to positive emotions include acts of helpful and supportive behaviours. This scenario was especially poignant to the junior workers who felt nurtured when helped by senior workers (Hoh et al., 2019). Conversely, negative interpersonal relationship such as “Team members talk bad about me” triggered the emotions of *annoyance* and *frustration* among the participants. This was well-represented by one of the participants’ statement: “That’s the reason I got summoned! Because they complained I chitchat!” Similar issue about acts of the co-workers was also reported in several other studies (Basch & Fisher, 2000; Grandey et al., 2002; Matta et al., 2014; Mignonac & Herrbach, 2005; Morgeson & DeRue, 2006; Spector & Jex, 1998).

Negative emotions among co-workers should not be taken lightly. Through emotion contagion mechanism (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994), workers ‘‘catch’’ emotions consciously or unconsciously through automatic imitation (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995) and eventually developing a homogeneous affective reaction (Brief & Weiss, 2002). This implies that negative emotion could lead to a contagion of effects in teams that could subsequently promote other negative outcomes. Hence, it is important for organisations to prevent negative emotions from occurring and spreading among the work teams.

6.4 General discussion of the qualitative results

Generally most of the findings are consistent with literature. Nonetheless, there are several unique findings about this study worth highlighting. Firstly, there was a sense of "I do not understand the PM system" echoed throughout the interviews and FGDs. A good number of event types identified in the data reflect this impression, for instance "I am not informed of the assessment criteria change", "Frequent changes of appraisal criteria" and "My supervisor says guidelines are decided by HR; HR says it is up to supervisors".

This lack of understanding about the PM systems among the Malaysian samples might be attributed to ineffective communication. Apart from ineffective communication between supervisor-subordinate dyads, the top-down information flow pattern commonly practiced among the Malaysian companies might have worsened the communication between management and workers. Being a high power distance society, Malaysian organisations frequently follow top-down mode of communication, wherein supervisors speak and subordinates listen (Iranmanesh, Siti-Nabiha, & Sabbah, 2012; Shrivastava & Purang, 2011). This manner of communication poses a risk of miscommunication which may render the consequence of "I do not understand the PM system", as the complete flow of information from top management until general workers go through several management levels. The miscommunication problem is exacerbated when organisations impose frequent changes, as negative organisational changes such as structural, process or social system tend to associate with negative affective responses among the employees (Kiefer, 2005). Specifically, the more changes, the more negative experiences employees reported. Drawing upon the cognitive appraisal theory (Lazarus, 1991) and supported by the empirical finding, Kiefer (2005) contended that frequent changes

were inherently emotional owing to the increased likelihood of experiencing challenging and potentially threatening issues felt by the employees. The results also revealed that frequent change was associated negatively to trust in organisation.

Another plausible explanation was that the participants lacked understanding of how the criteria were being measured. For example, calculating average reject percentage of monthly production required an understanding of computing average and conversion to percentage. Due to lower educational training (Abdullah, 2009), not all general workers were able to comprehend the computation of this criterion (or other calculations). Without clear understanding, the workers would feel *confused* and *frustrated*; subsequently, they might fully rely on their affective responses to make judgment and react (Schwarz, 2012). This scenario was reflected in the following quotes:

Eni: I felt that 1 month (bonus)…

Interviewer: What was your feeling?

Eni: Felt angry also

Interviewer: Wasn't Management already updated why? Sales not so (good)

Eni: For us, we could not understand sometimes! We only looked…

Secondly, affective events identified in this study reveal that positivity or negativity of an event is often conveyed more by how something is done rather than what is done. This could be seen in the case of providing workers' performance feedback. Some supervisors were motivational by using professional words and accurate data, but some were abhorred for being rude or giving unreasonable explanation. Therefore, creating awareness about emotional sensitivity and educating effective communication among the supervisors could reduce the occurrence of negative events. One may argue however, the same event does not always elicit an

identical emotion amongst parties involved (Lazarus, 1991). For instance, "Added responsibility" made some participants feeling proud and confident, while others reported feeling *fearful* and *worried*. These results indicated that the participants appraised the same event differently and thus elicited different discrete emotions. Hence, one may further question the necessity to identify the affective events since appraisal of the events solely depends on individuals; there is little supervisors can do to avoid negative events. Though this may sound as helpless as it seems, this phenomenon indirectly alerts supervisors of the importance of establishing a good relationship with their workers. Hempel (2008) studied a sample of Chinese professionals and found that the quality of supervisor-subordinate relationships influenced how employees perceived their performance feedback. Specifically, poor performance feedback was attributed to the poor relationships between the supervisors and the subordinates, rather than the poor performance itself. This is consistent with the findings of Gabris and Ihrke (2000), which reported that low quality supervisor-subordinate relationship tended to be associated with a worker's perceived lack of legitimacy of performance appraisal. Additionally, Erdogan (2002) contended that since PA involved ongoing interaction between supervisors and workers, the quality of the relationship influenced the workers' perceptions of fairness, i.e., within the context of interactive relationship and performance appraisal, high quality relationships between supervisors and workers increased workers' perceptions of fairness.

Malaysian norms might have influenced how the workers interacted with their supervisors and co-workers. Being a collectivist society, the workers place a high value on (harmonious) relationship (Kennedy, 2002; Shipper, Hoffman, & Rotondo, 2007). Therefore, harsh words are not congruent with the local value. Furthermore,

Malaysia is characterised by high power distance, and this suggests that the workers depend on their leaders to give directive instructions and to take care of their well-being (Farndale, 2017; Kennedy, 2002; Li & Cropanzano, 2009). Failing to live up to this expectation could cause negative affective and behavioural consequences among the workers.

6.5 Chapter summary

This chapter presents the major affective events related to PM system and the associated emotions reported by the general workers of manufacturing industries in Malaysia. In total, 264 negative affective events were gathered and subsequently, 52 events types and 12 negative event categories were derived. The major event categories were "Negative acts of management", "Unsatisfactory rewards", "Organisational policy restricted my reward" and "Negative acts of co-workers", triggering emotions of *resentment, worry* and *acquiescence.* An event-emotion matrix was successfully developed to show the pairing between various affective events and various emotions. Triangulating individual interviews and FGD data enabled gathering of a more complete account of PM system from the participants' perspectives. The participants spoke of sensitive issues with strong affective tone of voice, and this showcased their trust and willingness to share their stories with the researcher. The implications of the qualitative findings are discussed in Chapter 10 (General discussion, implications, limitations and recommendations).

As delineated in the research design, the 10 major emotions identified in this qualitative study (*resentment, anger, disappointment,* a*cquiescence, worry, frustration, scepticism, no appreciation, feeling of grievance and inadequacy*) were developed into a measurement scale for the subsequent quantitative phase of the thesis.

CHAPTER 7 PRELIMINARY DATA ANALYSIS – EFA AND CFA

7.1 Chapter overview

In the quantitative study, data on emotions, perceptions of fairness and work attitudes (acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention) were collected from the Malaysian general workers using a questionnaire. The data were analysed using EFA, CFA and finally SEM analysis.

This chapter presents the findings of the EFA and CFA analyses. The chapter begins with the data screening results for the EFA dataset, which consist of missing data, outliers, linearity, heteroscedasticity, normality and multicollinearity. Following that, the results of EFA of the measurement scales are discussed. The chapter then proceeds with the findings of the CFA, including the data screening results for the CFA dataset. The chapter ends with a brief discussion on the findings regarding common method bias.

7.2 Data screening results for EFA dataset

In this preliminary data analysis, 140 questionnaire data were used. Out of these, 12 questionnaires were removed; thus leaving 128 usable data. This sample size met the minimum requirement of 100 in order to obtain reliable results for factor analysis (Hair et al., 2010; MacCallum et al., 1999). Table 15 displays the demographics of the participants. Majority of the participants were male (70.0%). The largest age group (52.0%) was 30 to 39 years old. Sixty-three percent of the participants were married with children. Majority of the participants were of Malay ethnic (93.0%). In terms of tenure, many of the participants were experienced workers, with 11 to 19 years of

Table 15

Participants' profiles of the EFA study

Demographic variable	Category	Frequency (%)
Gender	Male	90 (70.0)
	Female	38 (30.0)
Age group (years old)	< 20	0 (0.0)
	20-29	36 (28.0)
	30-39	66 (52.0)
	40-49	20 (10.0)
	> 50	6 (5.0)
Ethnicity	Malay	119 (93.0)
	Chinese	4 (3.0)
	Indian	5 (4.0)
	Aboriginal	0 (0.0)
Marital status	Single	29 (23.0)
	Married with children	81 (63.0)
	Married without children	14 (11.0)
	Divorced/widowed	4 (3.0)
Organisational tenure (years)	< 3 years	17 (13.0)
	3-5 years	14 (11.0)
	6-10 years	38 (30.0)
	11-19 years	47 (37.0)
	≥ 20 years	12 (9.0)

tenure with their current organisations. For clarity within the text, the labels of variables and their items are typed **bold.** The data were screened and cleaned up to ensure they met the assumptions of univariate/multivariate statistics in accordance with the procedures described in section 5.4.4.1.

7.2.1 Missing data

To examine for missing data, the SPSS MVA function was used and followed by visual inspection. The missing data were at most 2.3%. Due to its low proportion, the missing data were treated using pairwise exclusion, in which cases were excluded only when the missing response involved a particular analysis (Hair et al., 2010).

7.2.2 Outliers

Boxplot was used to detect (univariate) outliers during the preliminary analysis. The researcher detected and corrected a few error outliers. Among all the variables, only the variable of acceptance of PM system (**Accpt)** had the most (six) outliers. The outliers were left as they were because they did not seem to affect the normality of **Accpt.**

7.2.3 Linearity and heteroscedasticity

Linearity and heteroscedasticity were assessed by inspecting the residual plots and the bivariate scatterplots between pairs of variables. Trendlines (of bivariate plots) were also added to assist in the assessment. All variables did not show significant problem with linearity and heteroscedasticity.

7.2.4 Normality of data

The distribution of data was checked using statistical (Zskewness and Zkurtosis) and graphical methods (QQ plot and histogram). Three out of six variables, i.e., negative affectivity (**NegAff),** turnover intention (**Turn**) and perception of fairness (**Fair**) showed moderate level of kurtosis. However, no severe abnormality of data distribution was detected.

7.2.5 Multicollinearity

The correlations of the 10 discrete negative emotions were examined for multicollinearity. As mentioned in earlier chapters, due to their intertwined relationships with other affective responses, some emotion pairs showed high correlation values (e.g., **frus** and **dsp**). The determinant of the correlation matrix of the 10 emotions (2.15E-5) was just meeting the minimum requirement (>0.00001) (Field, 2018). Table 16 summarises the outcomes of the data screening of the EFA dataset. There was no serious violation of the assumptions.

7.3 Exploratory factor analysis results

Exploratory factor analysis was performed to empirically estimate the number of factors of the variables of interest (negative emotions, acceptance of PM system, work engagement, turnover intention, perception of fairness and negative affectivity) for the study's Malaysian sample. Before carrying out factor analysis, the researcher confirmed the factorability of all variables by examining correlation values, the KMO, the Barlett's test, the anti-image and the Cronbach's alpha according to the requirements detailed in Chapter 5. IBM-SPSS version 23 was used in this exercise.

Table 16

Summary of assessing the statistical assumptions for preliminary data analysis

No.	Variable	Missing value (%)	Outlier	Normality	Linearity	Heteroscedasticity	Multi-collinearity
1.	**NegAff**	max. 2.3	0	Low positive skewness; moderate negative kurtosis	-	-	-
2.	**NegEmo**	max. 0.8	0	Moderate positive skewness	Linear	Homoscedastic	High correlations for five emotions
3.	**Fair**	max. 0.8	1	Moderate positive kurtosis	Linear	Homoscedastic	-
4.	**Accpt**	0.0	6	Normal	Linear	Homoscedastic	-
5.	**Engage**	0.0	0	Normal	Linear	Homoscedastic	-
6.	**Turn**	0.0	0	Low negative kurtosis	Linear	Homoscedastic	-

Note. **NegAff** is a moderator; the assumptions of linearity, heteroscedasticity and multicollinearity is not applicable

7.3.1 PCA of negative emotions

The negative emotion scale consisted of 10 items; each measuring the intensity of a discrete emotion. Inspection of correlation matrix revealed that all correlation values were larger than 0.30. The results also showed the value for Barlett's test was significant (p-value < 0.05), and the measure of sampling adequacy by KMO was 0.932 which was higher than the minimum requirement of 0.5. In addition, the diagonals of anti-image matrix were larger than 0.5 (The off-diagonals showed many small values too.). The results fully supported the factorability of the variable. The Cronbach's alpha was 0.958. Appendix D compiles the results generated by IBM-SPSS.

The EFA procedure using the PCA extraction was carried out on this scale. Kaiser's criterion method (eigenvalue method) revealed only one component with eigenvalue above 1.0. An inspection of Scree plot revealed a major change of slope between the first and second component; Scree plot suggested to retain one component. The researcher proceeded to use parallel analysis (Watkins, 2006). Parallel analysis also showed one component with eigenvalue larger than corresponding randomly generated eigenvalues. This single-component solution explained 72.9% of total variance of the underlying component and exceeded the requirement of 60.0% (Awang, 2012; Hoque, Awang, Jusoff, Salleh, & Muda, 2017). In addition, the communalities ranged from 0.516 to 0.878, which was considered "excellent" (Comrey & Lee, 1992). More analyses were carried out using different combinations of extraction and rotation methods, the yielded results were highly similar, thus supporting the single-factor factor structure. Since only one factor was extracted, the solution could not be rotated.

7.3.2 PAF of the acceptance of PM system scale

The scale consisted of eight items measuring the levels of acceptance of PM system among the participants. In terms of factorability of **Accpt**, inspection of correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients larger than 0.3 (23 out of 28 correlations), except item **a3**. The KMO value was 0.844 and the Barlett's test was statistically significant. In addition, the diagonals of anti-image matrix were larger than 0.5. Cronbach's alpha was 0.877. These values reflected the current data were adequate to proceed to EFA.

Kossek (1989) did not indicate factor analysis on this scale. Hence, PAF extraction was selected as the first attempt to understand the underlying factors of this measurement scale. Also, oblique (direct oblimin) rotation method was selected because it was believed that these items correlated. PAF indicated the presence of one factor with eigenvalues larger than 1.0, so were Scree test and parallel analysis. The total variance explained was 49.4%. Communalities revealed strong loading on Factor 1, except **a3 (**0.136). Since only one factor was extracted, the solution could not be rotated.

The first attempt of PAF revealed that **a3** did not load well on the extracted factor. Item **a3** pertained to the question "The outcomes of performance appraisal give impact to my career". This question appeared to assess the importance of a PM system of an organisation, rather than the acceptance level towards the PM system of the participants. To improve the total variance explained, the researcher removed **a3**.

Upon the removal of **a3**, the extracted factor remained one. The total variance explained cumulated at about 54.6%, which had increased by 5% but slightly below the 60.0% requirement. Communalities ranged from 0.43 to 0.63 and considered "very good" (Comrey & Lee, 1992). The Cronbach's alpha remained similar without

item **a3** (0.890). Another post hoc analysis was run to "force" the number of factors to two factors, to increase the total variance explained percentage. The results showed two-factor structure provided additional 9.0% total variance explained, but caused three cross-loadings (**a2**, **a4** and **a6**). For the interest of simple solution, the one-factor structure was adopted. The PAF results of **Accpt** are presented in Appendix E.

7.3.3 PCA of work engagement

For this study, work engagement was measured using the UWES-9. It consisted of three subcomponents: vigour, dedication and absorption (Schaufeli et al., 2002). In terms of factorability of the variable of work engagement (**Engage**,) all correlation pairs in the correlation matrix showed coefficients larger than 0.3. The KMO value was 0.896 and Barlett's test was statistically significant. As revealed by the anti-image matrix, the diagonals were larger than 0.5, and many of the off-diagonals showed small values. These results supported the factorability of the correlation matrix. The Cronbach's alpha was 0.926.

Since UWES-9 scale was known to be comprised of three highly-correlated components, the researcher employed PCA with oblique (direct oblimin) rotation method for the initial attempt. An examination of the Scree plot and eigenvalues revealed that one factor solution was sufficient to describe the covariance structure accounting for more than 66% of the variance. The communality values were high, with a minimum of 0.439 (item **ab3**). Since there was only one component extracted, the solution could not be rotated.

As item **ab3** showed relatively low communality, an attempt was carried out to examine the outcome without **ab3.** Item **ab3** pertained to the question "I get carried away by my work". This question appeared to be less applicable to the general

workers. With the removal of **ab3,** the Cronbach's alpha remained comparable (0.926 vs. 0.931). Removing **ab3** also increased the total variance explained to 68.6%, with single component being extracted. All communalities were larger than 0.6, and all loadings were larger than 0.71, "excellent" according to Comrey and Lee (1992). The results for PCA of **Engage** are presented in Appendix F.

As evidenced by the high percentage of total variance explained, eigenvalue method, Scree plot and a high Cronbach's alpha, a single-component structure of **Engage** appeared adequately representing the conceptualisation of work engagement for the Malaysian sample. Although the outcome was not a three-component structure as per the original, this single-component structure of UWES was consistent with few studies such as Sonnentag (2003), which did not find a clear three-component structure in EFA and eventually used a single factor to represent work engagement. In a more recent study carried out by de Bruin, Hill, Henn and Muller (2013) on UWES-17, the results indicated that the three subscale scores overlapped each other so large that the "additional" information yielded by individual subscales was likely to be unreal. In a meta-analysis of work engagement research, Christian & Slaughter (2007) reported very strong correlation among the three subcomponents: 0.95 between vigour and absorption, 0.90 between dedication and absorption and 0.88 between vigour and dedication. The high correlations among the three subcomponents was also revealed through CFA and acknowledged in Schaufeli, Bakker, and Salanova (2006).

7.3.4 PAF of turnover intention scale

Turnover intention (**Turn**) was measured by adapting a four-item scale developed by Konovsky and Cropanzano (1991)**.** The factorability tests were performed and supported. All item pairs showed correlation larger than 0.3. The KMO value was

0.821 and Barlett's test was statistically significant. In addition, the diagonals of anti-image matrix were larger than 0.5. The Cronbach's alpha was 0.896.

Konovsky and Cropanzano (1991) did not indicate the application of factor analysis; hence, PAF was selected as the first attempt to understand the underlying factors of this measurement scale. Eigenvalues and the Scree plot revealed that one factor was sufficient to describe the covariance structure. More than 69% total variance was explained by one component. The communality values ranged from 0.466 to 0.891. The factor loadings were high, ranging from 0.683 to 0.944. No rotation was performed because only one component was extracted. The results clearly showed that only a single component underlying the items, namely turnover intention. Appendix G compiles the results generated by IBM-SPSS.

7.3.5 PCA of the perception of fairness

A 20-item of organisational justice scale was employed in this study to measure the participants' perception of fairness (**Fair**). This scale consisted of questions assessing four components of organisational justice – distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice.

The results of factorability showed that the dataset was adequate to proceed with EFA. The KMO value was 0.892 and Barlett's Test was statistically significant. As revealed by anti-image matrix correlations, all the diagonals were larger than 0.5, and many of the off-diagonals showed small values.

Since the literature clearly identified the components of this construct, for the initial attempt, the researcher employed PCA with oblique (direct oblimin) rotation method. In this first run, the eigenvalue method suggested three main components, while parallel analysis and Scree plot suggested two components. The communalities

and loadings were generally meeting minimum requirement (except item **p6**), but the resulted structure was not simple. According to pattern matrix, item **if2** cross-loaded on components 2 and 3. The three components were moderately correlated.

The researcher conducted additional runs to understand the relationships among the components and to obtain a simpler factor structure. Consequently, the optimum structure was achieved by removing **p6** (due to low communality) and **if2** (due to cross-loading), and replacing **it1** and **it2** with the average of both items (due to high correlation between **it1** and **it2**). Item **p6** pertained to the question "I have been able to appeal my performance appraisal result arrived at by those procedures of performance appraisal". Seventy-one percent of the participants "disagreed" or "neither disagreed or agreed" to this item; this indicated that most of the participants never had such experience, could not remember such experience or felt uncertain about the availability, the role and their right to appeal according to the PM procedures of their organisations.

A two-component structure with 17 items emerged as the finalised structure because it was a succinct structure which met all the requirements. The total variance explained was 61.5%, only about 6% less than that of the three-component structure. Pattern matrix showed strong loading of larger than 0.5. There was no cross loading of items. The two components were correlated at a level of 0.506. The Cronbach's alpha of the final 17 items was 0.932. The Cronbach's alphas of components 1 and 2 were 0.868 and 0.880, respectively. The results for the finalised PCA of the perception of fairness are presented in Appendix H.

The two components were termed **Structural** and **Social**, as they were related to the structural and social dimensions of PM practices (Greenberg, 1993c). The component **Structural** basically consisted of items of distributive justice and

procedural justice, while the component **Social** consisted of interaction justice with supervisors. This resulted factor structure did not demonstrate a clear pattern of the four components of organisational justice as reported by some literature (e.g., Alkhadher & Gadelrab, 2016; Gupta & Kumar, 2013). Apparently, this sample did not (or was not able to) make precise differentiation among types of fairness as seen in other groups. Two plausible explanations were offered by the literature. Research on cross-cultural role in justice perceptions explained that people's perceptions of fairness were based on the norms and values of the local culture (Brockner et al., 2001). The local norms and values prevail in different countries would account for differences in interpretation of justices such as voice (Farndale, 2017), thereby leading to the formation of different perceptions of fairness (Greenberg, 2001). Literature from organisational studies explained that in the workplace, events happened in a social environment, and other social factors such as (characteristics of) sample and context might blur the lines between different types of fairness (Flint, Haley, & McNally, 2012; Nicklin et al., 2014). In short, present findings demonstrated the context-dependent nature of organisational justice.

7.3.6 PCA of negative affectivity

The 10-item scale of negative affectivity was subjected to factor analysis. Inspection of correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficient values larger than 0.3. The KMO value was 0.844 and Barlett's test was statistically significant. In addition, the diagonals of anti-image matrix were larger than 0.5, and the off-diagonals showed many small values. The Cronbach's alpha was 0.881. These results supported the factorability of the correlation matrix.

According to the literature (Watson et al., 1988), the measurement scale composes of single factor – negative affectivity. For the initial attempt, the researcher employed PCA with oblique (direct oblimin) rotation method because the 10 items were believed to be correlated. PCA indicated the presence of two components and explaining about 63.0% of the variance. Scree plot also suggested retaining two components, and this result was validated by parallel analysis. The communality values ranged from 0.375 to 0.811, with three items lower than 0.45 (**ner, gui** and **hos**). According to the pattern matrix, components 1 and 2 showed strong loadings (0.468 to 0.94) with no cross loading. The component correlation matrix revealed a moderate correlation (0.532) between the components, justifying the use of direct oblimin. The results for this PCA are presented in Appendix I.

There were two issues requiring further optimisation on this two-component-ten-item model, that are three items with low communalities and the number of components extracted did not agree with the established structure (Watson et al., 1988) . The researcher simulated several runs to optimise and to reconfirm the factor structure of the data. Among the runs, two-component-seven-item remained yielding the highest communality (from 0.695 to 0.825) and the highest total variance explained (75%). Each component was named according to its common nature. Component 1 was named **Fear** (consisted of items **afr**, **sca**, **ash** and **jit**) and component 2 was named **Disgruntle** (consisted of items **irr**, **ups** and **dis**). The Cronbach's alphas for **Fear** and **Disgruntle** were 0.889 and 0.824, respectively; the overall Cronbach's alpha was 0.868. Table 17 summarises the factor structure for all the measurement scales in this study.

Table 17

Summary of the number of components and items and Cronbach's alpha of the measurement scales after EFA

No.	Scale	No. of component	No. of items	Items left for further analysis	Cronbach's alpha
1	Negative emotion	1	10	**res, ang**, **dsp**, **ina**, **acq**, **wor**, **fru**, **grv**, **notA**, **sce**	0.958
2	Acceptance of PM system	1	7	**a1**, **a2**, **a4**, **a5**, **a6**, **a7**, **a8**	0.890
3	Work engagement (UWES-9)	1	8	**v1**, **v2**, **de1**, **de2**, **v3**, **ab1**, **de3**, **ab2**	0.931
4	Turnover intention	1	4	**t1**, t2_**re**, **t3**, **t4**	0.896
5	Perception of fairness	2 (**Structural** and **Social**)	17	**Structural**: **d1**, **d2**, **d3**, **d4**, **p1**, **p2**, **p3**, **p4**, **p5**, **p7** **Social**: **aveit1it2**, **it3**, **it4**, **if1**, **if3**, **if4**, **if5**	0.868 0.880
6	Negative affectivity	2 (**Fear** and **Disgruntle**)	7	**Fear**: **ash**, **sca**, **jit**, **afr** **Disgruntle**: **ups**, **irr**, **dis**	0.889 0.824

Relating back to the issue of sample size, overall high communality values (42 out of 52 larger than 0.5) and having at least four items per factor further justified the sample size used for this EFA exercise.

7.4 Data screening results for CFA dataset

Similar to the EFA, the dataset used for the CFA was assessed for missing data, outliers, linearity, heteroscedasticity, normality and multicollinearity. A total of 212 data were sampled for this CFA analysis. Sixteen cases were excluded from the analysis due to extensive missing values involving the main constructs. This left 196 data to proceed further. Majority of the participants were male (74.0%). Majority of the participants aged from 20 to 49. Most of participants were married with children (67.0%). Similar to the sample for EFA analysis, most of the participants were of Malay ethnic (72.0%). In terms of tenure, this sample made up of slightly more junior workers (< 3 years tenure). Table 18 displays the demographics of the participants for the CFA (and SEM) analysis.

7.4.1 Missing data

Among the 196 data, less than 5% data was found missing. Because of low occurrence, Little's test as per described in Chapter 5 (Figure 7) was skipped. The missing data were replaced by imputing the personal mean of the completed items of the same scale.

Table 18

Participants' profiles of the CFA (and SEM) analysis

Demographic variable	Category	Frequency (%)
Gender	Male	125 (74.0)
	Female	71 (36.0)
Age group (years old)	< 20	5 (3.0)
	20-29	45 (23.0)
	30-39	72 (37.0)
	40-49	49 (25.0)
	> 50	25 (13.0)
Ethnicity	Malay	141 (72.0)
	Chinese	14 (7.0)
	Indian	37 (19.0)
	Aboriginal	4 (2.0)
Marital status	Single	54 (28.0)
	Married with children	132 (67.0)
	Married without children	6 (3.0)
	Divorced/widowed	4 (2.0)
Organisational tenure (years)	< 3 years	60 (31.0)
	3-5 years	39 (20.0)
	6-10 years	37 (19.0)
	11-19 years	36 (18.0)
	≥ 20 years	24 (12.0)

7.4.2 Outliers

Several univariate interesting outliers were detected with **Accpt** and **NegAff** (the construct of negative affectivity). Relatively more outliers, up to 14 outliers per indicator were detected with indicators **a1**, **a2** and **a3** of **Accpt**. However, since the overall construct **Accpt** did not demonstrate serious non-normal distribution, no action was taken on **a1**, **a2** and **a3** at the moment. This issue was revisited in the subsequent CFA analysis.

7.4.3 Linearity and heteroscedasticity

To examine linearity and heteroscedasticity (univariate and multivariate), selective bivariate graphs of the indicators and constructs were made. Indicators **a1, a2, a3, if3** and **it4** showed slight univariate non-linearity and heteroscedasticity (**if3** and **it4** only). However, the indicators did not cause multivariate non-linearity and heteroscedasticity, as revealed by the bivariate graphs among the constructs. No remedy was taken on these indicators at the moment (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014).

7.4.4 Normality of data

All five constructs revealed moderate level of skewness and thus, slightly non-normal (Construct **Turn** showed slight heteroscedasticity when plotted against other constructs.). Since the level of non-normality was not severe and SEM techniques were robust enough to tolerate certain degree of non-normality (Sullivan & Artino, 2013), no remedy was done on the data.

7.4.5 Multicollinearity

Similar to the EFA finding, this set of data showed high correlations among the discrete emotions, for instance, **res** (*resentful*) correlated 0.84 with **ang** (*angry*) (The complete correlation matrix is presented in Table 19.). The determinant of the correlation matrix of the 10 emotions (3.39E-5) was just meeting the minimum requirement. Table 20 shows the summary of data screening results and Cronbach's alpha for each construct. All Cronbach's alphas were meeting the requirement of 0.7.

Zero-order correlations among the constructs are tabulated in Tables 21 and 22 to provide glimpses into the relationships among the constructs. **NegEmo** was significantly correlated with **Accpt, Engage, Turn** and **Fair**, at medium strength (r ranged from 0.16 to 0.44). Stronger correlations could be seen between **Fair** and **Accpt, Engage** and **Turn** (r ranged from 0.29 to 0.71.). The correlations were meaningful and provided preliminary support for the researcher's theorising. Structural equation modelling analysis could be formally tested.

Table 19

Correlation matrix for the 10 discrete negative emotions

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
res	1.96	1.17	1									
ang	2.14	1.21	0.84**	1								
dsp	2.37	1.37	0.78**	0.83**	1							
ina	2.09	1.27	0.68**	0.70**	0.72**	1						
acq	2.29	1.26	0.62**	0.64**	0.67**	0.62**	1					
wor	2.32	1.26	0.64**	0.70**	0.74**	0.68**	0.70**	1				
fru	2.19	1.33	0.79**	0.82**	0.80**	0.74**	0.70**	0.68**	1			
grv	2.09	1.21	0.70**	0.71**	0.68**	0.70**	0.56**	0.62**	0.75**	1		
notA	2.24	1.36	0.72**	0.68**	0.81**	0.71**	0.63**	0.68**	0.78**	0.76**	1	
sce	2.00	1.15	0.66**	0.64**	0.77**	0.64**	0.59**	0.68**	0.69**	0.65**	0.80**	1

* $p < 0.05$ (2-tailed); ** $p < 0.01$ (2-tailed); *** $p < 0.001$ (2-tailed)

Table 20

Summary of assessing the statistical assumptions for SEM data analysis

Construct	Missing value (%)	Outlier	Normality	Linearity (uni-& multivariate	Heteroscedasticity		Multi-collinearity	Cronbach's alpha
					Univariate	Multivariate		
NegAff	3.0	2	Moderate positive kurtosis; appeared normal	-	-	-	-	0.74
NegEmo	0.5	2	Moderate positive skewed; slight non-normal	Linear	Linear	Hetero-scedastic against Turn	No	0.96
Accpt	1.5	5	Moderate negative skewed; slight non-normal	Linear	**a1**, **a2**, **a3** hetero-scedastic	Homo-scedastic	No	0.87
Engage	0.5	0	Moderate negative skewed; slight non-normal	Linear	Linear	Hetero-scedastic against Turn	No	0.90
Turn	1.0	0	Moderate positive skewed; slight non-normal	Linear	Linear	Hetero-scedastic against Accpt & Engage	No	0.88
Fair	1.5	0	Moderate negative skewed; slight non-normal	**it4**, **if1** & **if3** slight curvilinear	**it4** & **if3** hetero-scedastic	Homo-scedastic	No	0.92

Table 21

Correlation matrix for all latent constructs

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
NegEmo	2.17	1.07	1							
Accpt	3.73	0.62	-0.32**	1						
Engage	4.48	0.97	-0.16*	0.47**	1					
Turn	3.08	1.50	0.41**	-0.45**	-0.40**	1				
Structural	3.62	0.60	-0.41**	0.71**	0.53**	-0.42**	1			
Social	3.88	0.74	-0.44**	0.59**	0.29**	-0.42**	0.56**	1		
Fear	2.14	0.78	0.21**	-0.05	-0.10	0.20**	0.00	-0.12	1	
Disgruntle	2.42	0.70	0.43**	-0.12	-0.03	0.23**	-0.13	-0.22**	-0.39**	1

Note. **NegEmo** is the summated of the 10 negative emotions.
* $p < 0.05$ (2-tailed). ** $p < 0.01$ (2-tailed). *** $p < 0.001$ (2-tailed).

Table 22

Correlation matrix for the 10 discrete negative emotions and other latent constructs

Variable	**res**	**ang**	**dsp**	**ina**	**acq**	**wor**	**fru**	**grv**	**notA**	**sce**
Accpt	-0.25**	-0.27**	-0.30**	-0.26**	-0.16**	-0.22**	-0.38**	-0.30**	-0.35**	-0.26**
Engage	-0.11	-0.11	-0.08	-0.13	-0.10	-0.13	-0.21**	-0.19**	-0.19**	-0.13
Turn	0.38**	0.29**	0.36**	0.34**	0.21**	0.33**	0.39**	0.40**	0.42**	0.38**
Structural	-0.33**	-0.36**	-0.36**	-0.31**	-0.22**	-0.26**	-0.44**	-0.42**	-0.45**	-0.39**
Social	-0.40**	-0.41**	-0.42**	-0.38**	-0.25**	-0.34**	-0.41**	-0.40**	-0.45**	-0.32**
Fear	0.18*	0.14	0.13	0.24**	0.14	0.25**	0.14	0.24**	0.19**	-0.22**
Disgruntle	0.40**	0.40**	0.41**	0.39**	0.26**	0.32**	0.35**	0.41**	0.40**	0.35**

* $p < 0.05$ (2-tailed); ** $p < 0.01$ (2-tailed); *** $p < 0.001$ (2-tailed)

7.5 Analysing the measurement model

The first step of SEM analysis was the CFA of the measurement model. The measurement model specified the indicators from each construct and enabled an assessment of unidimensionality, validities and reliability (Hair et al., 2010). Each higher order construct was assessed independently for its unidimensionality and construct validity among the first order sub-constructs, before the overall measurement model containing all the constructs was pooled and assessed in a single model (Awang, 2015). Thus, CFA for constructs **Fair** and **NegAff** was conducted prior to the pooled-CFA of all constructs.

For all SEM analyses in the current study, maximum likelihood was employed to estimate the models. The covariance matrix served as the dataset to be analysed in each SEM analysis. Latent construct scales were set by fixing one of the factor loadings to 1.0.

7.5.1 CFA of perception of fairness

Based on the initial factor analysis finding, the perception of fairness for the Malaysian general workers was measured by two first-order sub-constructs - **Structural** (10 indicators) and **Social** (seven indicators). The second-order construct **Fair** was assessed independently for its unidimensionality and validity among its first order sub-constructs before assessing its discriminant validity against other constructs.

The CFA was conducted according to the steps explained in section 5.4.4.3.1. Modifications to the model were carried out to optimise the goodness-of-fit indices, by examining low loading indicators and modification index (MI) suggested by AMOS. The main optimisation occurred by removing four indicators (from

Structural) and by setting three paths free among five indicators (of **Social**). The optimisation yielded a mediocre fit model; the CFI index was good (0.95) and the other indices were mediocre. Table J1 in Appendix J shows the goodness-of-fit indices for the progressive optimisations for **Fair**. The final measurement model of **Fair** is displayed in Figure 12. The correlation between the two sub-constructs was 0.58, reflecting non-existence of multicollinearity.

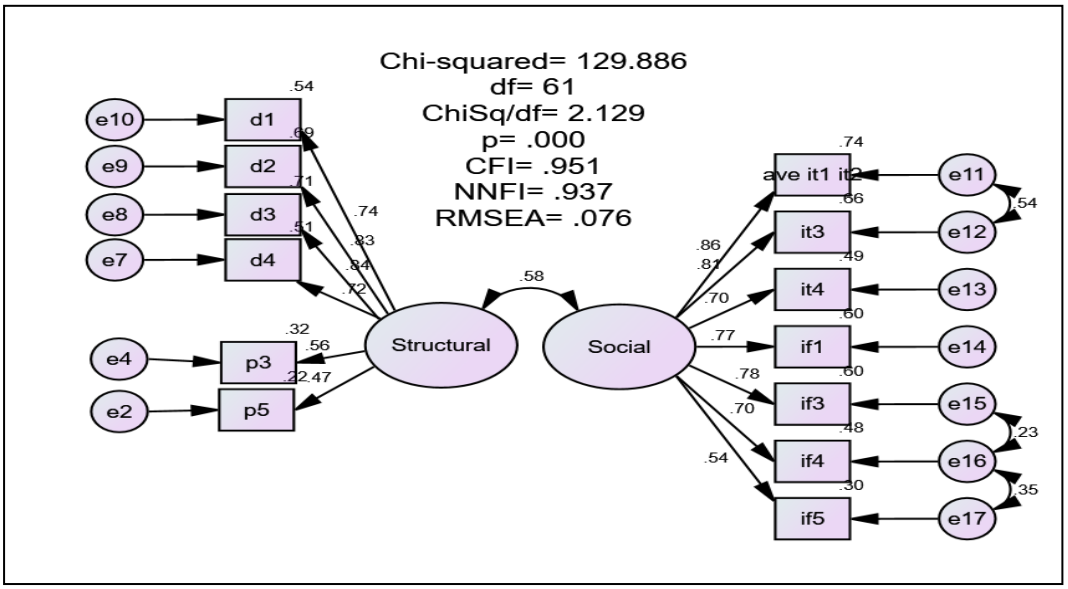


Figure 12. The measurement model of two-sub-construct model for **Fair**

7.5.1.1 Assessment of unidimensionality and construct validity for Fair

Unidimensionality was assessed by referring to standardised loading values. The loading values of **Fair** were larger than 0.5 (except **p5**). Also, there was no cross-loading of the error terms. Thus, unidimensionality was achieved. The loading of **p5** was slightly lower than the required level (0.47 vs. 0.50), but this indicator was remained in the model because the model indices had been achieved and it was marginally below requirement.

Apart from the standardised loading values, CR and AVE were examined to assess convergent validity. The AVEs of sub-constructs **Structural** and **Social** were

0.50 and 0.55, meeting the cut-off mark (≥ 0.50). Given the suggested 0.60 requirement, both sub-constructs showed adequate levels of CR (0.85, 0.90).

Discriminant validity was examined by comparing the square root of AVE of each construct to the correlations with other constructs. The square root of AVE values (0.71 and 0.74) were larger than the correlation between **Structural** and **Social** (0.58), and indicated discriminant validity among the **Fair** sub-constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The assessment concluded the unidimensionality and construct validity for **Fair** had been achieved. The path estimates, standard errors, CR and AVE values for the sub-constructs are displayed in Appendix J (Table J2).

After the first-order analysis had established the unidimensionality and validity, the factor loadings of **Fair** towards **Structural** and **Social** were estimated to confirm the hypothesised second-order construct loaded onto its first-order sub-constructs. The model is shown in Figure 13. The goodness-of-fit indices were adequate. The loadings of **Fair** on its sub-constructs were highly significant (0.72 and 0.80).

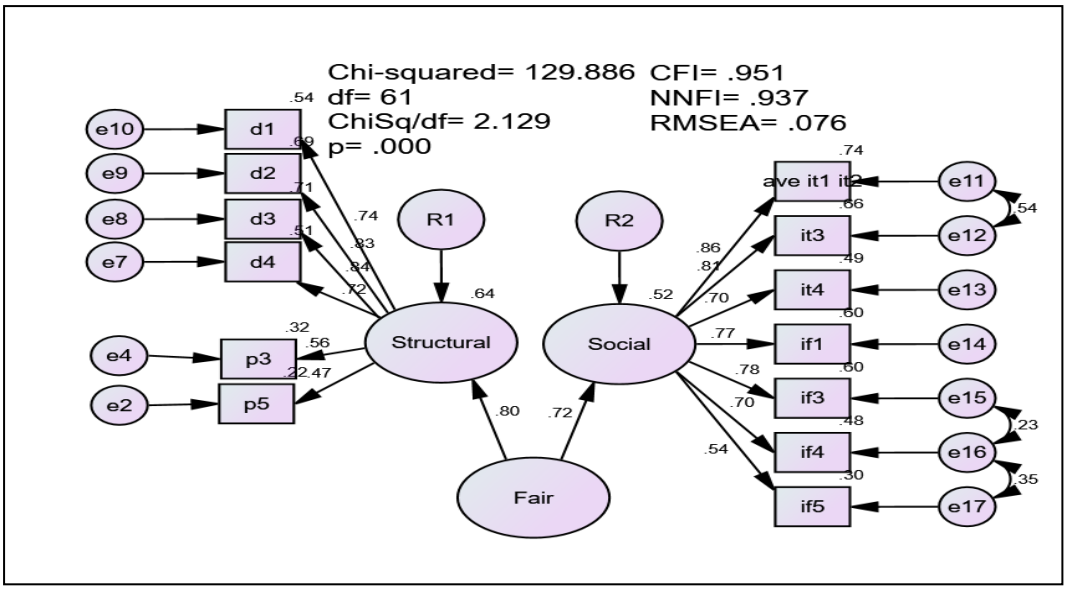


Figure 13. Second-order measurement model of **Fair**

Based on the CFA output, additional four indicators (relative to EFA) from procedural justice (**p1, p2, p4** and **p7**) had to be removed due to low loadings. This additional removal of indicators signalled inconsistency of **Fair** model for different samples. The researcher conducted a post hoc analysis to ascertain the inconsistency was not due to the discrepancy between analysis methods or computational errors. This analysis was also important to avoid loss of valuable information and erroneous theoretical conclusions (Edelsbrunner & Thurn, 2015). The researcher carried out CFA on the EFA dataset and EFA on the CFA dataset. The comparison of results revealed that for both analyses, **p1, p2, p4** and **p7** of the EFA dataset were consistently having higher loadings. Therefore, it was not a computational error or methodological difference that most of the procedural justice indicators (of the CFA dataset) had to be removed in the CFA. The two samples did show slightly different attitudes towards procedural justice, yet demonstrating consistent emphasis on interactional and distributive justice.

The additional removal of the procedural indicators in the CFA had suggested that (some) PM systems of the CFA sample might not include practices which contributed to procedural justice, such as listening to the workers' views and consistent implementation across all workers (Choong et al., 2010; Wang, Lu, & Siu, 2014). As a result, the participants did not show a coherent understanding of procedural justice. This postulation was supported by a simple categorisation of the participating organisations into "systematic" and "less systematic" PM system[12]. It was found that most of the participants of the CFA sample (75%) were working in organisations with "less systematic" PM system. This correlation implied that the characteristics of a PM system could influence workers' perceptions of fairness.

[12] The researcher broadly categorised PM practices based on years of implementation, consistency of appraisal practice, and subjectivity and bias of the appraisal

Although the loadings of **p1, p2, p4** and **p7** were significantly different for both samples, the factor structure of **Fair** for both samples was the same. For both samples, two main factors explained most of the variance; component 1 consisted of indicators measuring distributive and procedural justice while component 2 consisted of indicators measuring interactional justice. This factor structure confirmed that the measurement model of **Fair** was valid for different samples; therefore, would not jeopardise the validity of the conclusions about the hypotheses drawn from the structural models.

7.5.2 CFA of negative affectivity

Based on the initial factor analysis finding, **NegAff** was a second-order latent construct having two first-order sub-constructs (**Fear** and **Disgruntle***)*. Each sub-construct was measured by using four and three indicators, respectively. A CFA was first performed independently on **NegAff** for its unidimensionality and construct validity before assessing its discriminant validity against other constructs.

Similar to the CFA of construct **Fair**, modifications were carried out to develop a better fit. As suggested by MI, the covary measurement error was between **e6** and **e7** (indicators **ash** and **jit**). The re-run yielded improved goodness-of-fit indices; $\chi 2/df$, CFI and NNFI were good, and RMSEA was mediocre. The final measurement model of **NegAff** is displayed in Figure 14. The supporting AMOS output of this CFA analysis is presented in Appendix J (Table J3 and Table J4). The correlation between the two sub-constructs was 0.41, reflecting non-existence of multicollinearity.

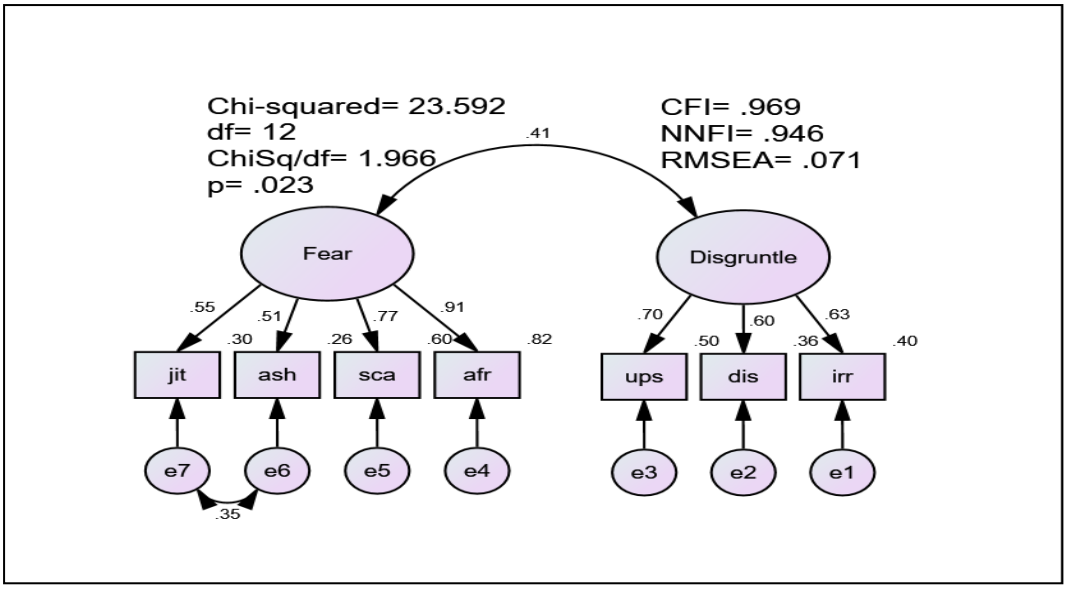


Figure 14. The measurement model of two-sub-construct model for **NegAff**

7.5.2.1 Assessment of unidimensionality and construct validity for NegAff

The evidence of unidimensionality was found as the standardised loadings showed that all indicators were significantly loaded on the intended sub-constructs, and there was no cross-loading of error terms (see Figure 14).

In terms of convergent validity, both constructs **Fear** and **Disgruntle** reported acceptable level of CR (0.79 and 0.68). The AVE of **Disgruntle** (0.42) was slightly below cut–off mark (≥ 0.5), but since its CR was larger than 0.60, the convergent validity was still adequate (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The AVE of **Fear** met the requirement sufficiently.

As for the discriminant validity of **NegAff**, square root of AVE values (0.71 and 0.65) were larger than the correlation between **Fear** and **Disgruntle** (0.41); hence, indicating discriminant validity among the sub-constructs. The assessment concluded that unidimensionality, construct and discriminant validity for **NegAff** had been achieved. The path estimates, standard errors, CR and AVE values for the sub-constructs are displayed in Appendix J (Table J4).

A second-order CFA for construct **NegAff** was conducted after the first-order analysis. The model is shown in Figure 15. The loadings of **NegAff** towards **Fear** and **Disgruntle** were highly significant (0.52 and 0.77). The goodness-of-fit indices met the requirements.

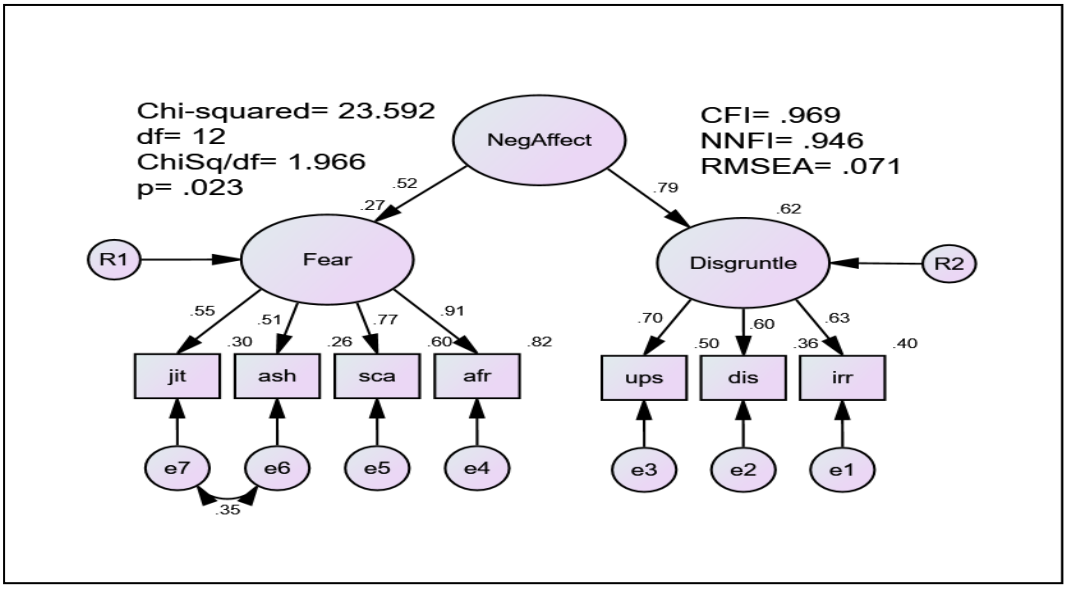


Figure 15. Second-order measurement model of **NegAff**

7.5.3 CFA of pooled-CFA of all constructs

A pooled CFA of all the constructs in the hypothesised model was carried out to confirm the unidimensionality and construct validity among the constructs. Similarly, modifications were carried out to optimise the indices. Three additional indicators were removed (**a1, a2** and **p5**) due to low loadings and additional five paths were freed as recommended by MI. The $\chi 2/df$ ratio and RMSEA achieved good fitness, and CFI and NNFI indices were mediocre (The progressive optimisations for the pooled-CFA is shown in Appendix J.). Returning to the issue of **Accpt** outliers in section 7.4.2, the optimisation exercise had revealed that the outliers of **a1** and **a2** did not influence the goodness-of-fit indices and thus, supported the earlier decision of

keeping the outliers. The final model and standardised loadings are shown in Figure 16.

7.5.3.1 Assessment of unidimensionality and construct validity for the pooled-measurement model

Further analyses were conducted to examine the unidimensionality and construct validity of the pooled-measurement model. No cross-loading issue was identified among the constructs. In addition, all loading values were at least 0.5. Thus, unidimensionality was achieved. Convergent validity was ascertained. As shown in Table J6 (Appendix J), all CR and AVE scores are well above the thresholds (Except for **Disgruntle**, refer to section 7.4.2.1 for explanation.). The discriminant validity of the measurement model was validated by inspecting the AVEs. The square root AVE values of different constructs are larger than the correlations of different construct pairs (see Table J7 in Appendix J). The discriminant validity of the measurement model had been validated.

Overall, it was concluded that the measurement model for all the constructs had demonstrated sufficient evidence of unidimensionality, convergent and discriminant validity. It was thus fit to estimate the structural portions of the model.

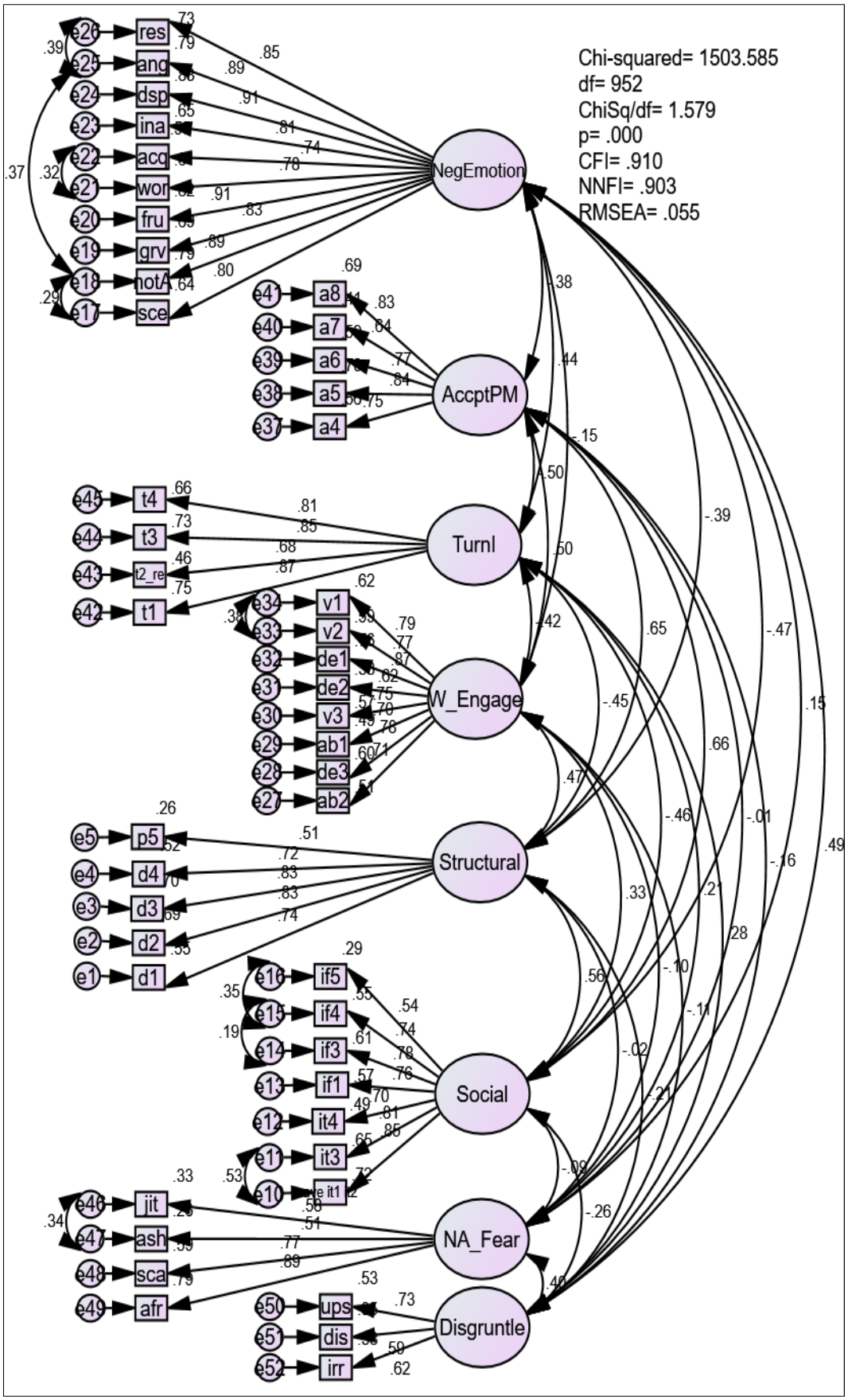


Figure 16. The final measurement model of the pooled CFA of **NegEmo, Accpt, Engage, Turn, Structural, Social, Fear** and **Disgruntle**

7.6 Common method bias

The researcher assessed the common method bias by conducting a PAF (unrotated) with all variables (Aulakh & Gencturk, 2000; Organ & Greene, 1981; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). A single component was extracted and accounted for 32.0% of the total variances. This figure was lower than the customary heuristic threshold 50% (Eichhorn, 2014), thus suggesting that that common method bias was not of great concern.

7.7 Chapter summary

This chapter discusses the results of the EFA and CFA of the current study. The datasets for EFA and CFA in general, did not show severe violation of statistical assumptions in terms of linearity, heteroscedasticity, normality and multicollinearity; only minor remedies were taken. The EFA results indicated mixed results compared to the literature; specifically, constructs **Engage, Fair** and **NegAff** demonstrated different factor structure while **Turn** showed similar factor structure. Nevertheless, the internal reliability assessment revealed that the scales were reliable. The factor structures determined in the EFA were then used as the measurement model blueprints in the subsequent CFA.

The CFA was first carried out among the first order sub-constructs of **Fair** and **NegAff**, before the pooled-CFA of the measurement model containing all the constructs was analysed. Some optimisation steps were taken in order to meet the goodness-of-fit indices requirements. Following that, the unidimensionality, reliability and validities were established for all the constructs.

The EFA and CFA findings from the current study also revealed some inconsistencies with the existing literature particularly the factor structure of work engagement, perception of fairness and negative affectivity found. Cultural differences and sample characteristics might have contributed to the differences underlying the factor structures of the constructs (Borsa, Damasio, & Bandeira, 2012; Brockner et al., 2001). On the other hand, different characteristics of PM systems could have contributed to different conceptualisation of procedural justice among the participants,

Finally, Harman's one factor test indicated that the data in this study were not significantly affected by common method bias. The psychometric properties and soundness of the six scales have now been established, and justification has been provided for the scales to be tested on SEM procedure. The following chapters present the results of the SEM analyses of Models 1 and 2.

CHAPTER 8 THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN OVERALL NEGATIVE EMOTION AND WORK ATTITUDES THROUGH PERCEPTION OF FAIRNESS: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

8.1 Chapter overview

This chapter presents and discusses the SEM results of Model 1 and Hypotheses 1 to 6 developed in Chapter 4. In Model 1, negative emotion (**NegEmo**) was hypothesised to have an impact on acceptance of PM system (**Accpt**), work engagement (**Engage**) and turnover intention (**Turn**) through the mediation of fairness perception (**Fair**). In this model, the 10 major negative emotions determined empirically from the qualitative phase were modelled as 10 indicators under the construct **NegEmo**. The negative emotions were *resentment (***res***), anger (***ang***), disappointment (***dsp***),* a*cquiescence (***acq***), worry (***wor***), frustration (***fru***), scepticism (***sce***), no appreciation (***notA***), feeling of grievance (***grv***)* and *inadequacy (***ina***).*

This chapter begins by presenting the results of total effects between negative emotion and the work attitudes examined, followed by the results of the mediation relationship, then the control variables **(age** and **gender**) and the moderation effect by negative affectivity (**NegAff**). The chapter concludes with a summative discussion on the key findings derived from testing Model 1.

8.2 SEM results of structural Model 1

Analysing the structural models was the second step of SEM analysis, after conducting CFA on the measurement models (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). The structural model represented one or more dependence relationship linking the hypothesised model's exogenous (i.e., predictor variable) and endogenous (i.e.,

criterion variable) constructs (Awang, 2015). In a structural model, the single-headed arrow reflected causal effects of an exogenous construct on the respective endogenous construct. Additionally, all exogenous constructs were linked using the double-headed arrows to test for correlational effects. Similar to the CFA, fit of a structural model was assessed by examining goodness-of-fit indices. The same requirements and model optimisation steps were applied. Apart from the model fit indices, the researcher drew conclusions about the hypotheses by referring to the standardised and unstandardized estimates (significance, strength and direction) and coefficient of determination (R^2). R^2 values represented the overall correlation of the models (Awang, 2015). A larger value indicates better explanatory power of the model. Lastly, the results of bootstrapping procedure were interpreted.

Model 1 demonstrates that perception of fairness mediates the effect of negative emotion on acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention. The path diagram of Model 1 which incorporates Hypotheses 1 to 6 is depicted in Figure 17. Hypotheses H1, H2 and H3 between **NegEmo** and **Accpt**/**Engage**/**Turn** are shown by the direct paths from **NegEmo** to **Accpt**/**Engage**/**Turn**. Hypothesis 4 is represented by the paths from **NegEmo** to **Accpt** via **Fair,** while the path directly linking **NegEmo** and **Accpt** signifies the direct effect from **NegEmo** to **Accpt**. Similarly, Hypotheses 5 and 6 are represented by the paths between **NegEmo** and **Engage/Turn** via **Fair,** while the single-headed arrow links **NegEmo** and **Engage/Turn** directly. In Model 1, the 10 major negative emotions determined empirically from the qualitative phase are modelled as 10 indicators under the construct **NegEmo**. Based on Figure 17, the AMOS representations of Model 1 and the total effects (direct predictability of **Accpt/Engage/Turn** by **NegEmo**) are developed.

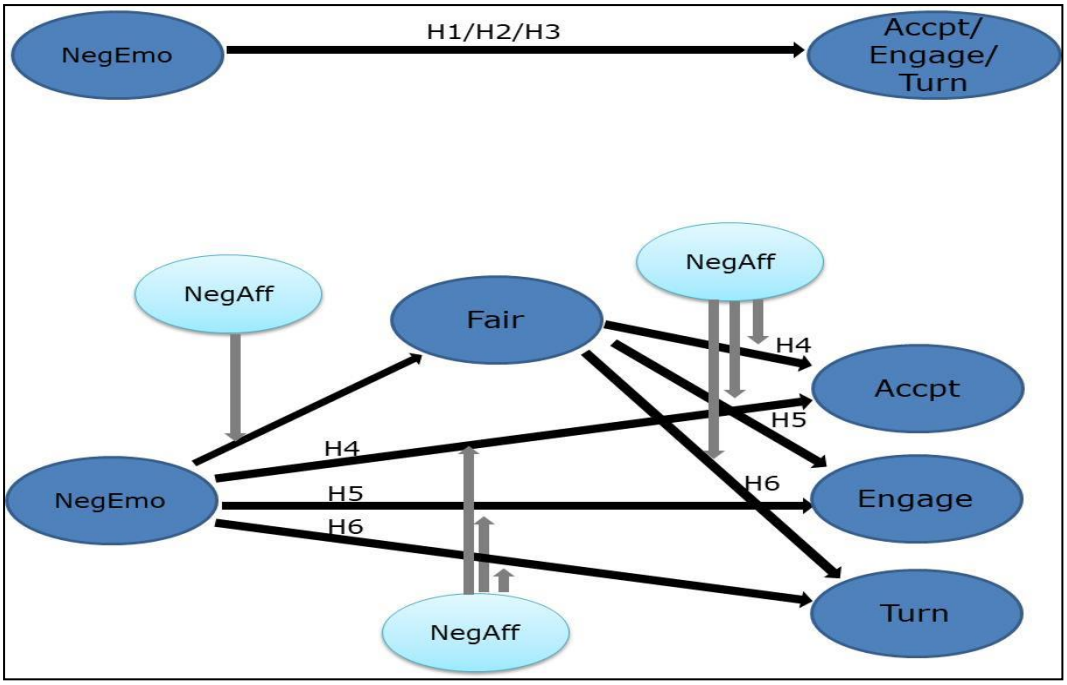


Figure 17. The path diagram of Model 1. The direct predictability of **Accpt/Engage/Turn** by **NegEmo** is tested via Hypotheses H1, H2 and H3.The mediation by **Fair** between **NegEmo** and **Accpt/Engage/Turn** is tested via Hypotheses H4**,** H5 and H6**.**

To analyse mediation, first and foremost, the total effect between the exogenous and endogenous constructs must be proven significant. Then, upon addition of a mediator to the model, the total effect strength between the exogenous and endogenous constructs would reduce partially or completely. Hence, the test of a mediator was only meaningful if the total effect was statistically significant (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Figure 18 models the total effect between **NegEmo** and **Accpt.** The figure depicts the direct predictability of **NegEmo** on **Accpt** (Field, 2018). The total effect was shown significant (β = -0.37, p-value < 0.001); thus, Hypothesis 1 was supported.

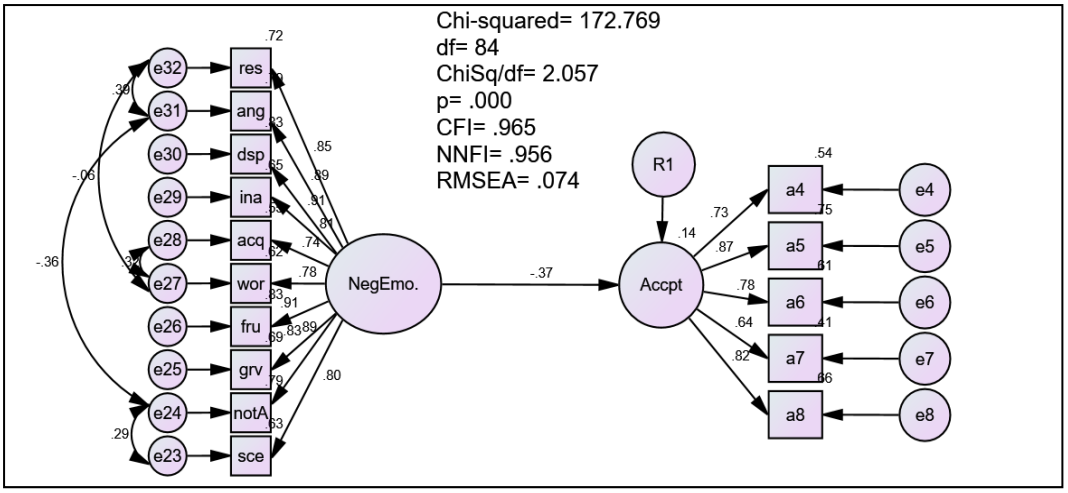


Figure 18. Modelling the total effect between **NegEmo** and **Accpt**

Figure 19 shows the total effect between **NegEmo** and **Engage.** The total effect was shown significant (β = -0.15, p-value = 0.045). Hypothesis 2 was supported.

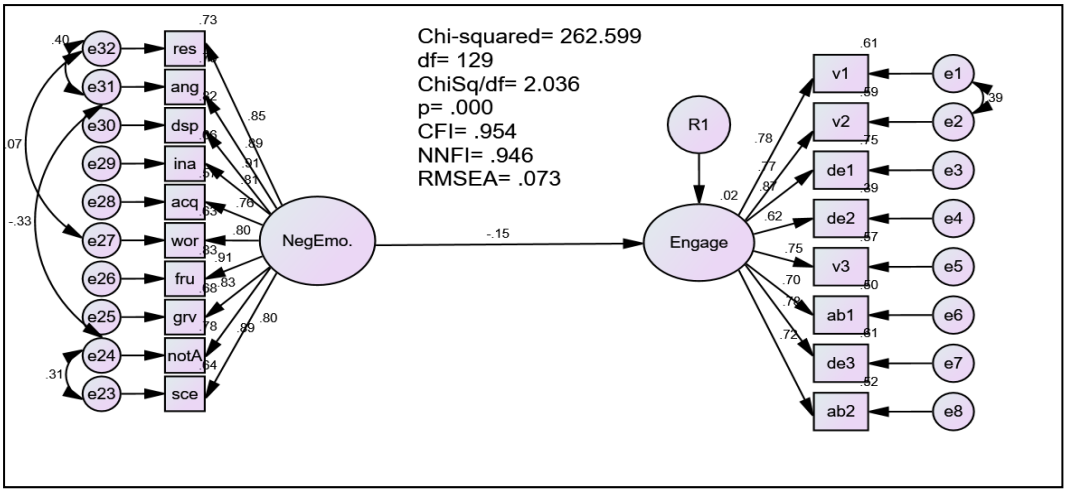


Figure 19. Modelling the total effect between **NegEmo** and **Engage**

Likewise, a significant relationship was observed between **NegEmo** and **Turn** (β = 0.44, p-value < 0.001). Unlike the previous two relationships, **NegEmo** had a positive relationship with **Turn**. Figure 20 shows the AMOS diagram of the total effect between **NegEmo** and **Turn**. Table 23 lists the path estimates, standard errors and the significance values for total effects of Model 1. Following this, the mediator **Fair** was incorporated to the model and analysed for its mediation effect.

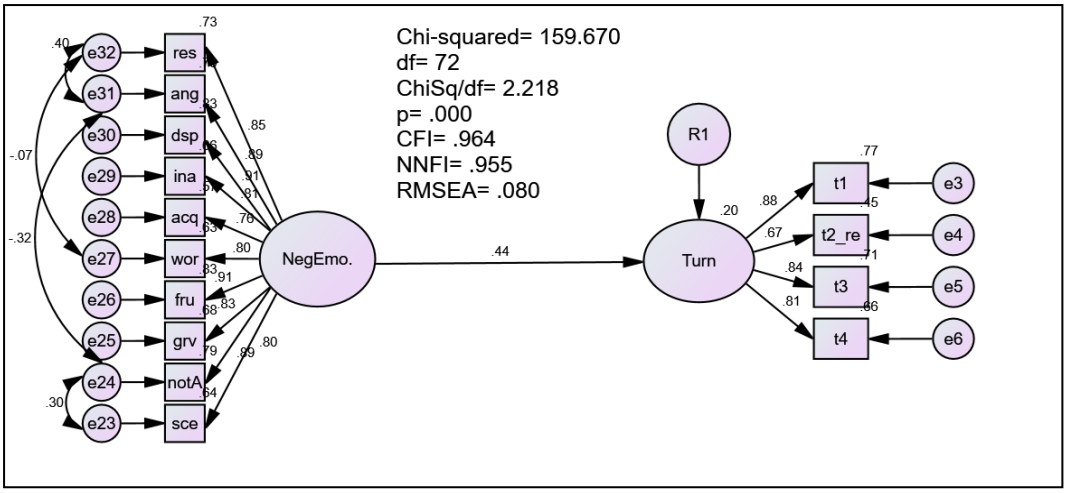


Figure 20. Modelling the total effect between **NegEmo** and **Turn**

Table 23

The standardised and unstandardised estimates, S.E., C.R. and the significance for total effects (Model 1)

Construct	path	Construct	β	B	S.E.	C.R.	P	Result
Accpt	<---	NeEmo	-0.37	-0.26	0.05	-4.84	***	Significant
Engage	<---	NeEmo	-0.15	-0.14	0.07	-2.00	*	Significant
Turn	<---	NeEmo	0.44	0.63	0.11	5.90	***	Significant

The SEM output of Model 1 is shown in Figure 21. The model basically fulfilled the acceptance criteria. The $\chi 2/df$ ratio (1.62) and RMSEA (0.057) achieved good fitness, and CFI (0.925) and NNFI (0.919) indices were mediocre. The researcher also examined the output of the standardised residual covariance to confirm the fitness of the structural model. All standardised residuals were less than |4.0| (Hair et al., 2010), and did not suggest any problem with the model specification (The SPSS output is shown in Table K1 in Appendix K.). Therefore, no further optimisation was needed. As shown in Figure 21, the R^2 was 0.76, 0.33 and 0.40 for **Accpt**, **Engage** and **Turn**. By looking at these values, it was concluded that the model was effective in explaining the relationships among the constructs since the exogenous constructs and

mediator could capture 34% to 76% (moderate to substantial) of the estimates on the endogenous constructs (Chin, 1998; Cohen, 1988). From the R^2 values, the size of the mediated effect of **Fair** in Model 1 was computed. Overall, the mediated effect size of **Fair** in the relationships between **NegEmo** and **Accpt**/**Engage**/**Turn** ranged from small (**NegEmo**-**Fair**-**Engage** relationship) to medium (**NegEmo**-**Fair**-**Accpt** and **NegEmo**-**Fair**-**Turn** relationships) (Cohen, 1988). Compared among the three relationships, the strength of relationship of **NegEmo-Fair-Engage** was noticeably smaller than that of **NegEmo**-**Fair**-**Accpt** and **NegEmo**-**Fair**-**Turn.** Table 24 presents the path estimates and the significance values derived from the analysis. This information provides an indication of the mediation types of Model 1.

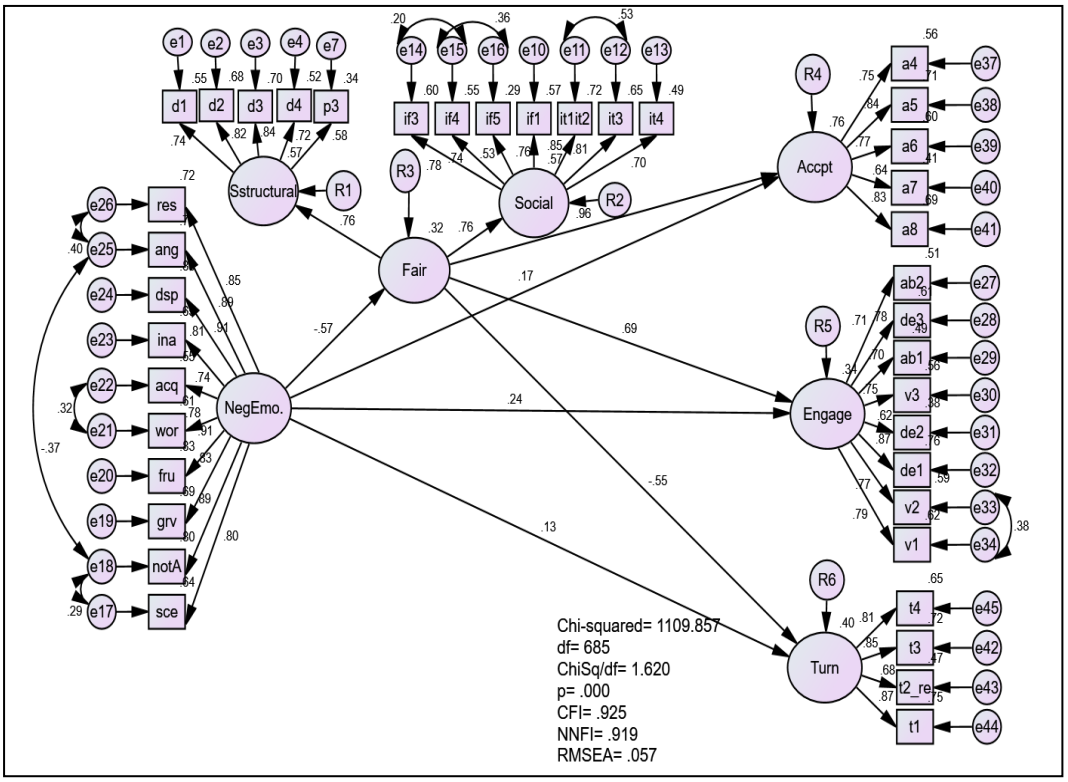


Figure 21. The structural model of Model 1 and the standardised path estimates

Table 24

The standardised and unstandardised estimates of the constructs in Model 1

Construct	path	Construct	β	B	S.E.	C.R.	P	Result
Fair	<---	NegEmo	-0.57	-0.33	0.056	-5.777	***	Significant
Accpt	<---	Fair	0.96	1.13	0.174	6.458	***	Significant
Accpt	<---	NegEmo	0.17	0.11	0.062	1.808	0.071	Not significant
Engage	<---	Fair	0.69	1.09	0.203	5.379	***	Significant
Engage	<---	NegEmo	0.24	0.22	0.089	2.462	0.014	Significant
Turn	<---	Fair	-0.55	-1.56	0.312	-5.000	***	Significant
Turn	<---	NegEmo	0.13	0.21	0.146	1.461	0.144	Not significant

In relation to Hypothesis 4, the path estimates of various relationships were rearranged in the format of Table 25 to demonstrate the mediation outcome. Based on the results, the mediation between **NegEmo** and **Accpt** was supported, and full mediation was substantiated since the direct effect was no longer significant.

Table 25

*Testing **Fair** as a mediator in the relationship between **NegEmo** and **Accpt** (Hypothesis 4)*

Relationship	β	p-value	Result
NegEmo --> Fair (a)	-0.57	0.005	Significant
Fair --> Accpt (b)	0.96	0.003	Significant
NegEmo --> Accpt ©'	0.17	0.071	Not significant
a * b	-0.54	Full mediation since direct effect ©' was no longer significant	
a * b > c'	mediation occurred		

The researcher further confirmed this conclusion by referring to the results of direct and indirect effects from bootstrapping. The bootstrapping results also indicated full mediation, in consistent with the normal testing procedure (Table 26). Thus, Hypothesis 4 was partially supported.

Table 26

*The bootstrapping results showing the significance of direct and indirect effects for relationship between **NegEmo** and **Accpt** (Hypothesis 4)*

	Indirect effect	Direct effect
Bootstrapping p-value	0.004	0.158
Result	Significant	Not significant
mediation type	Full mediation since direct effect ©' was no longer significant	

The same result compilation procedures were carried out to test Hypotheses 5 and 6. The supporting SEM output is shown in Appendix K. With regard to the mediation between **NegEmo** and **Engage,** Hypothesis 5 was fully supported, in which partial mediation was found; whereas for the mediation between **NegEmo** and **Turn,** it was determined as full mediation. Hence, Hypothesis 6 was partially supported.

8.2.1 Analysing Model 1 with the control variables

Gender and a**ge** were included as the control variables in the quanlitative study. Figure 22 presents the structural model incorporated with the control variables. The goodness-of-fit indices remained comparable to Model 1 without the control variables. A summary of the goodness-of-fit indices of Model 1 (with and without the control variables) is provided in Appendix K.

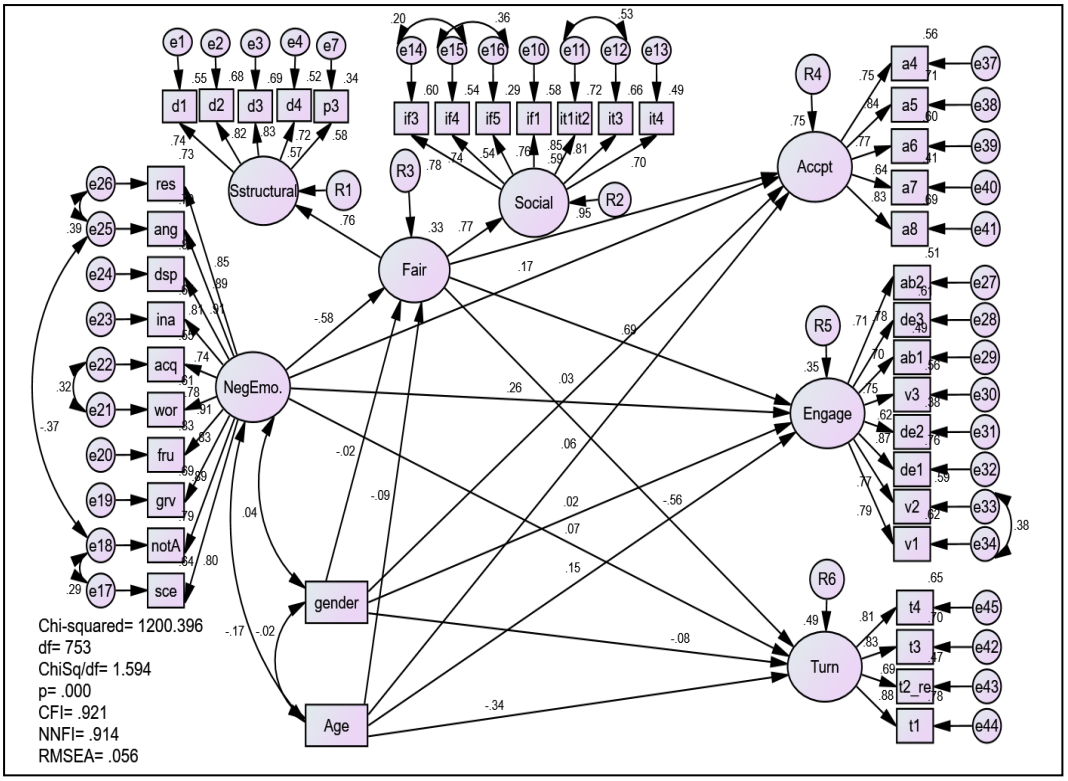


Figure 22. The structural model of Model 1 with the controlled variables

Gender and **age** showed different patterns of relationship with the constructs. As revealed by the path estimates, no significant relation between these two demographic variables and perception of fairness was found, meaning that regardless of age and gender, all the workers viewed justice similarly. The paths from **gender** to all constructs were not significant. This indicates that **gender** did not confound the relationships specified in the model. However, **age** did show a significant negative relationship to **Turn.** The observed data revealed that older workers tended to express lower turnover intention, and vice versa. This trend supported the statistics and literature that younger workers tended to be more mobile (Bernardin & Russell, 2013; Queiri et al., 2015). The older workers might have fostered stronger links with their colleagues and felt leaving their companies would create greater financial and personal sacrifices (Peltokorpi, Allen, & Froese, 2015). Upon partialling out the confounding effect of **age** on **Turn** (as shown in Figure 22), the findings and

conclusions about Hypothesis 6 remained unchanged (note: only R^2 showed a noticeable change, from 0.40 to 0.49.). A summary of conclusions of the hypotheses of Model 1 is displayed in Table 27.

Table 27

The hypothesis statements and conclusions for Model 1

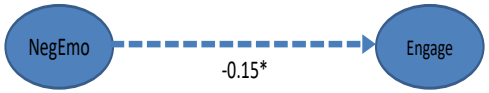
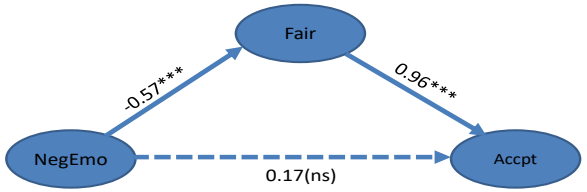
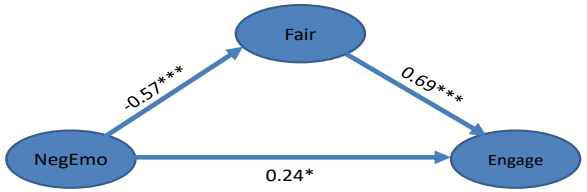
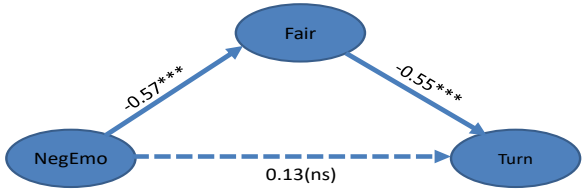
	Hypothesis statement	Decision	Standardised path coefficients
H1	Overall negative emotion significantly predicts acceptance of PM system	Supported	
H2	Overall negative emotion significantly predicts work engagement	Supported	
H3	Overall negative emotion significantly predicts turnover intention	Supported	

Table 27 (continue)

The hypothesis statements and conclusions for Model 1

	Hypothesis statement	Decision	Standardised path coefficients
H4	Perceived fairness partially mediates the negative relationship between overall negative emotion and acceptance of PM	Partially supported	
H5	Perceived fairness partially mediates the negative relationship between overall negative emotion and work engagement	Fully supported	
H6	Perceived fairness partially mediates the positive relationship between overall negative emotion and turnover intention	Partially supported	

8.2.2 Testing the moderation effect in Model 1

In this quantitative study, negative affectivity (**NegAff**) was hypothesised to mitigate two relationships: (a) the indirect relationship between **NegEmo** and **Accpt, Engage** and **Turn,** via **Fair** and (b) the direct relationship between **NegEmo** and **Accpt, Engage** and **Turn**. To investigate the moderating effect of **NegAff** (sub-constructs **Fear** and **Disgruntle**) on the mentioned relationships, the zscores and the interactions of the involved constructs were computed (The AMOS representations of the analyses are presented in Appendix K.). For direct relationship, only the direct relationship of **NegEmo-Engage** was tested for its moderation effect because only this direct relationship was found significant. Table 28 summarises the moderation results of **NegAff** of the relationships. As shown by the statistical significance values, no significant moderation effect by **NegAff** was detected. For all the three indirect relationships, the findings revealed that mediation (via perception of fairness) was equally strong for workers with different level of **NegAff**, and predicting equal level of acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention. As for the direct relationship of **NegEmo-Engage**, the result revealed that the workers' negative affectivity did not interact with negative emotion and make a difference on work engagement. This finding did not follow the trend observed in Lam et al. (2002) and Bledow et al. (2011), in which participants with different levels of negative affectivity exhibited different levels of fairness perception and turnover intention or work engagement at later times.

Table 28

*Standardised estimates of interaction between **NegAff** and **NegEmo,** and **Fair** (Model 1)*

Construct	path	Construct	moderator (component)	β	p-value	Result
Fair	<---	NegEmo	Fear	-0.01	0.920	Not significant
			Disgruntle	0.05	0.446	Not significant
Accpt	<---	Fair	Fear	0.00	0.992	Not significant
			Disgruntle	-0.06	0.266	Not significant
Engage	<---	Fair	Fear	0.08	0.401	Not significant
			Disgruntle	-0.07	0.379	Not significant
Turn	<---	Fair	Fear	-0.07	0.292	Not significant
			Disgruntle	0.042	0.538	Not significant
Engage	<---	NegEmo	Fear	-0.1	0.265	Not significant
			Disgruntle	0.15	0.053	Not significant

There are three plausible reasons that explain the absence of the moderating effect of negative affectivity in this study. First, moderation is usually introduced when there is an inconsistent or a weak relationship between the exogenous and the endogenous constructs (Baron & Kenny, 1986). However, strong relationships were found between **NegEmo** and **Fair (**β = -0.57**), Fair** and **Accpt/Engage/Turn** (β = 0.86/0.69/-0.55). To evaluate the plausibility of this explanation for these relationships, a comparison was made to the literature. It was noted that the correlation of the fairness perception-turnover intention relationship reported in Lam et al. (2002) was -0.31, while the negative emotion-work engagement relationship in Bledow et al. (2011) was -0.31. Both correlations were lower than those found in this study. This comparison supported this explanation. However, this explanation did not support the direct relationships of **NegEmo-Accpt/Engage/Turn**. The estimates of

these three direct relationships were comparably low (017/0.24/0.13), yet moderation was not shown.

The second explanation builds on the literature that found emotion as a more proximal predictor of work attitudes than affectivity (Barsky & Kaplan, 2007; Grandey et al., 2002); therefore, the effect strength of **NegEmo** might have prevailed over that of **NegAff** on **NegEmo-Accpt/Engage/Turn** relationships. Henceforth, the moderation effect by **NegAff** could not be detected or differentiated easily. The "confounding" between **NegEmo** and **NegAff** was indicated by the correlation between the two constructs (0.21, 0.43; see Table 22 in Chapter 7) (Hair et al., 2010).

The third plausibility of undetectable moderation effect was that hypothetically, the moderation was not linear but a step function according to level of **NegAff**. However, the **NegAff** data collected from the participants only ranged from 1.1 to 3.3, and such a narrow range might be insufficient to show its moderation effect on the relationships of Model 1 (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

8.2.3 Discussion: The relationships among negative emotion, perception of fairness and work attitudes

The results of Model 1 offered an insight of whether the Malaysian workers' perceptions of fairness would explain the relationship between their emotional responses to events related to PM system and their work attitudes, namely acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention. The discussion on Model 1 is divided into several sub-sections with respect to different paths of the model. The total effect between negative emotion and the work attitude is presented and discussed first. The section is followed by the discussion on emotion-perception of fairness relationships. The last few sections discuss the direct and indirect results of Model 1.

8.2.3.1 Predictability of acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention by negative emotion

It was hypothesised that workers' emotional states predicted the acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention. The SEM output in Figures 18, 19 and 20 showed that the relationships were significant and supported Hypotheses 1, 2 and 3. However, the R^2 values of the relationships only ranged from small to medium, approximately 0.14, 0.02 and 0.20, for **Accpt**, **Engage** and **Turn**. Especially for work engagement, the R^2 value indicated a weak relationship between negative emotion and work engagement. Similar trend was obtained for the effect size of the **NegEmo-Engage** relationship.

In essence, the relationship between negative emotion and acceptance of PM was in line with the literature, in which negative affective reactions interfered with the acceptance and use of PA (Brett & Atwater, 2001; Sargeant et al., 2008; Watling & Lingard, 2012). Unlike a majority of the literature focusing on limited aspects of PM system, e.g., feedback and supervisor-subordinate relationship, the findings from this study have provided empirical evidence identifying a significant connection between negative emotion and the overall acceptance of PM system. Thus, the findings have broadened the scope of emotion-acceptance of PM system relationship. Furthermore, the finding can serve as a basis for future studies on possible correlations between workers' emotions and other aspects of PM system such as goal setting.

In terms of predictability of negative emotions on work engagement, the relationship was significant but not strong ($\beta = -0.15$ and $R^2 = 0.02$). In hindsight, a weak relationship between negative emotion and work engagement was not unexpected because work engagement was characterised as a positive emotion, i.e.,

happiness (Schaufeli et al., 2002); therefore, the predictability of work engagement by negative emotion would not be strong.

Similarly, in the case of turnover intention, negative emotion predicted the workers' turnover intentions significantly. This finding supported the plausibility of turnover intention being affect-driven (Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Maertz & Campion, 2004), although quitting a job is often understood as a result of careful considerations and judgment (Mobley, 1977; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

8.2.3.2 Negative emotion as an antecedent to perception of fairness

The results revealed that negative emotion was a significant predictor of perception of fairness (β = -0.57***). In other words, if a worker carries stronger negative emotion, the worker also perceives a lower level of fairness, and vice versa. This finding supported previous research about the link between emotions and perception of fairness (Byrne et al., 2003; van den Bos, 2003; Van Katwyk et al., 2000). Relating to theories, this finding also supported theories such as affective priming and affect-as-information theory whereby affect colours individuals' perception of justice (Bower, 1981; Bower & Forgas, 2001; Schwarz, 2012).

8.2.3.3 The impact of perception of fairness on acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention

This study supported a direct and positive impact of organisational justice on acceptance of PM system, in consistent with the notion that perception of fairness is the most crucial aspect of workers' responses to PM system (Greenberg, 1986; Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991; Moliner et al., 2008). Looking at the correlation between workers' perceptions of fairness and acceptance of PM system, workers'

acceptance of PM system could be determined by a large extent to which the workers perceived that they were fairly appraised by their supervisors and organisations. In keeping with literature (e.g., Brett & Atwater, 2001; Leung, Su, & Morris, 2001; Sargeant et al., 2008; Shrivastava & Purang, 2011), the results convincingly demonstrated that how the workers felt about the PM systems was an important predictor of perception of fairness and subsequently, acceptance of the PM systems.

The SEM results also showed a positive relationship between perception of fairness and work engagement. Workers who felt that they had been treated fairly in terms of distribution of rewards and interaction with their supervisors felt engaged with their jobs. In general, the result was consistent with literature, affirming the significant link between workers' perceptions of fairness and the levels of engagement.

Since the construct **Fair** primarily consisted of two components, the link between the workers' fairness perceptions and work engagement could be mainly represented by distributive and interactional justice. Therefore, the SEM results of this study were consistent with those showing positive conclusions with distributive and interactional justice (e.g., Ghosh, Rai, & Sinha, 2014; Gupta & Kumar, 2013), but was inconsistent with that of Farndale (2017). Farndale explained that procedural justice took precedence over interactional justice among the Indian sample (administrative, professional and management staff) because having high power distance among the Indian sample had pushed for a formal system to ensure their voice would be captured in the PM processes. However, also having high power distance, this explanation did not seem applicable to the Malaysian sample in this study. Presumably, there was a distinction between being fair and "to voice out" among the Malaysian workers. The right to appeal or voice out their thinking might

be assumed questioning the power of the superior or even an act of opposing the management which in essence, was incongruent with the Malaysian culture (Kennedy, 2002). Hence, the PM system could still be accepted as long as there was a higher authority to decide the outcome (Tyler, Lind, & Huo, 2000). The dissimilarity between Farndale and this study could also be due to the difference between the samples' levels of understanding about the PM procedures. In Farndale (2017), the sample mainly consisted of staff that was familiar with the system or policy makers of the PM systems; whereas the sample of this study had shown lack of understanding about the system procedures (see Chapter 6).

The SEM results also showed that the workers' perceptions of fairness had a negative relationship with turnover intention, i.e., a higher level of perceived fairness reduced workers' turnover intentions, and vice versa. Literature has reported that in general, procedural justice was a more influential predictor of employees' turnover intentions compared to interactional justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Dailey & Kirk, 1992; Masterson et al., 2000). However, this study showed that interactional and distributive justices predicted the workers' turnover intentions significantly, supporting some of the literature (e.g., Greenberg, 1990a, Choong et al., 2010). Using the observation from the qualitative study, the criticality of monetary rewards, limited knowledge about PM processes and the workers' expectations for their superiors to take care of their well-being might have accentuated the importance of distributive and interactional justice among the Malaysian general workers.

8.2.3.4 The mediating role of perception of fairness on NegEmo-Accpt relationship

As hypothesised (Hypothesis 4), the Malaysian general workers' perceptions of fairness partially mediated the relationship between negative emotion associated with the PM system and their levels of accepting the PM systems. With the addition of perception of fairness, the direct relationship between negative emotion and acceptance of PM system became insignificant; full mediating effect of perception of fairness demonstrated that fairness perception was indeed a strong mediator. Furthermore, it was noted that R^2 increased from 0.14 to 0.76 by adding perception of fairness to the model. This finding has identified perception of fairness as a strong explanatory underlying mechanism in the relationship between negative emotion and acceptance of PM system.

8.2.3.5 The mediating role of perception of fairness on NegEmo-Engage relationship

In the current study, negative emotion was hypothesised to influence work engagement via the mediation of perception of fairness among the Malaysian general workers. The results summarised in Table 28 show that the workers' perceptions of fairness partially mediated the relationship between negative emotion and work engagement. The hypothesis was supported. Looking at the R^2 values, there was an increase from 0.02 (total relationship between negative emotion to work engagement) to 0.33 (Model 1). Similarly, this finding identified perception of fairness as an explanatory underlying mechanism in the relationship between negative emotion and work engagement.

It is worth noting that the mediation model of **NegEmo-Fair-Engage** revealed the characteristics of inconsistent mediation with suppression effect (Cheung & Lau, 2008; Mackinnon et al., 2000). In this case, **Fair** acted as a suppressor. **Fair** suppressed unwanted variance and increased (in magnitude) the correlation between **NegEmo** and **Engage** when it was being controlled for; thus, revealing the true relationship between **NegEmo** and **Engage** (Hair et al., 2010). Regarding the **NegEmo-Engage** relationship, the correlation was "changed" from -0.15 (Figure 19) to +0.24 (Figure 21) upon the inclusion of **Fair,** due to the stronger negative indirect effect. Due to the suppression effect, the theoretical-supported relationship was reversed and making the interpretation of this result difficult. The positive sign of the direct effect indicated that the more intense negative emotion a worker felt, the higher level of work engagement he or she experienced. This appeared counterintuitive and inconsistent with the literature. One plausible explanation was that there was another mediator interfering or another variable moderating the relationship between negative emotion and work engagement, thus resulted in a positive relationship. This point is illustrated in Xanthopoulou et al. (2007). The authors discovered that self-efficacy buffered the employees' emotional upset; in particular employees with higher self-efficacy were more engaged in their work. The authors further delineated that the employees with higher self-efficacy were confident about their capabilities and optimistic about their career with the organisations. The more self-efficacious employees were able to identify more opportunities which facilitated goal achievement and subsequently, led to higher work engagement. Relatedly, more research is required to explore other possible mediators or moderators for the relationship between negative emotion and work engagement. Nevertheless, as shown

by the total effect, it was an overall negative relationship between negative emotion and work engagement found in this study.

8.2.3.6 The mediating role of perception of fairness on NegEmo-Turn relationship

Hypothesis 6 stated that there was a positive relationship between negative emotion and turnover intention via mediation of perception of fairness among the Malaysian general workers. An inspection of the paths in Model 1 revealed that the workers' negative emotions had a significant indirect effect on their turnover intention via perception of fairness. Higher level of negative emotion was associated with lower level of fairness perception and in turn, higher level of turnover intention. Furthermore, by adding perception of fairness, the direct relationship between negative emotion and turnover intention became insignificant; full mediating effect of perception of fairness demonstrated that fairness perception was an important mediator. In addition, it was found that R^2 of the total effect of negative emotion – turnover **i**ntention increased from 0.20 to 0.40 in Model 1. Likewise, this finding has affirmed perception of fairness as a mediator, explaining the link between negative emotion and turnover intention.

The full mediation observed for relationship **NegEmo-Turn** raised a counterargument about the affect-driven nature of turnover intention conjectured earlier in section 8.3.2.1 (based on the finding of total effect between **NegEmo** and **Turn**). The mediation results revealed that the relationship between **NegEmo** and **Turn** was fully explained by **Fair**. Since perception of fairness was a cognitive component and involved considerable thinking (Greenberg, 1990b), it might be hastened to rule out the influence of judgment on turnover intention and label

turnover intention as affect-driven without further investigation. Multiple data sampling of affective responses and turnover intention might help to make elucidation about this phenomenon.

8.3 Chapter summary

The results obtained from Model 1 have underscored the roles of both affective and cognitive constructs in predicting acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention. First and foremost, negative emotion significantly predicted the workers' acceptance of PM systems, work engagement and turnover intention. Second, the results of Model 1 revealed that negative emotion correlated negatively to perception of fairness and subsequently positively related to acceptance of PM system, work engagement and (negatively related to) turnover intention. The findings also demonstrated that workers' perceptions of fairness differentially explained the relationships between negative emotion and the work attitudes examined. Specifically, perception of fairness fully mediated the relationships between negative emotion and acceptance of PM system, and turnover intention, but only partially mediated between negative emotion and work engagement. The results have empirically demonstrated relevance of fairness perception to PM system and thus, justified the integration of the construct of fairness perception to the AET model. The act of combining affective and cognitive components to relate affective responses and work attitudes was further supported by larger R^2 values of the revised AET model.

Although the control variable **age** was found correlating significantly with turnover intention, the model fitness indices of Models 1 remained good. Inconsistent with literature, negative affectivity did not interact with negative emotion or perception of fairness and caused different levels of acceptance of PM system, work

engagement and turnover intention. Three plausible explanations that might have obscured the influence of negative affectivity were offered.

CHAPTER 9 THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN DISCRETE NEGATIVE EMOTIONS AND WORK ATTITUDES THROUGH PERCEPTION OF FAIRNESS: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

9.1 Chapter overview

As per in Chapter 8, this chapter presents and discusses the descriptive and SEM results of Model 2. In contrast to Model 1, the 10 major discrete negative emotions determined from the qualitative study (**res**, **ang**, **dsp**, **ina**, **acq**, **wor**, **fru**, **grv**, **notA** and **sce**) were treated as distinctive exogenous constructs in Model 2. The aim was to estimate the individual negative emotion's causal relation with the three work attitudes (**Accpt**, **Engage** and **Turn**), via the mediator **Fair**. The hypotheses tested in Model 2 were Hypotheses 7 to 12.

The presentation of results is similar to those in Chapter 8. The results of total effects between the 10 discrete emotions and the work attitudes examined are first presented, followed by the results of the mediation model, the control variables **(age** and **gender**) and the moderator (**NegAff**). The chapter concludes with summative and critical discussion on the key findings derived from testing Model 2.

9.2 SEM results of structural Model 2

Model 2 set out to identify the discrete emotions that predicted the workers' perceptions of fairness and subsequently influenced their work attitudes. Hence, each negative emotion was tested with separate SEM analysis with perception of fairness, acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention. Specifically, Model 2 tested Hypotheses 7 to 12. The path diagram of Model 2 which represents

Hypotheses 7 to 12 is depicted in Figure 23. Subsequently, the relationships in the structural model were developed based on Figure 23. Instead of grouping all the 10 negative emotions under a construct, the emotions were treated as distinctive exogenous constructs in Model 2. The SEM analyses for Model 2 were executed in the same manner as Model 1. Hence, the SEM procedure of the structural model of Model 2 commenced with confirming the significance of total effects, only the significant discrete negative emotions proceeded to the subsequent SEM analyses. Finally, the structural model was analysed with the inclusion of the control variables and the moderator.

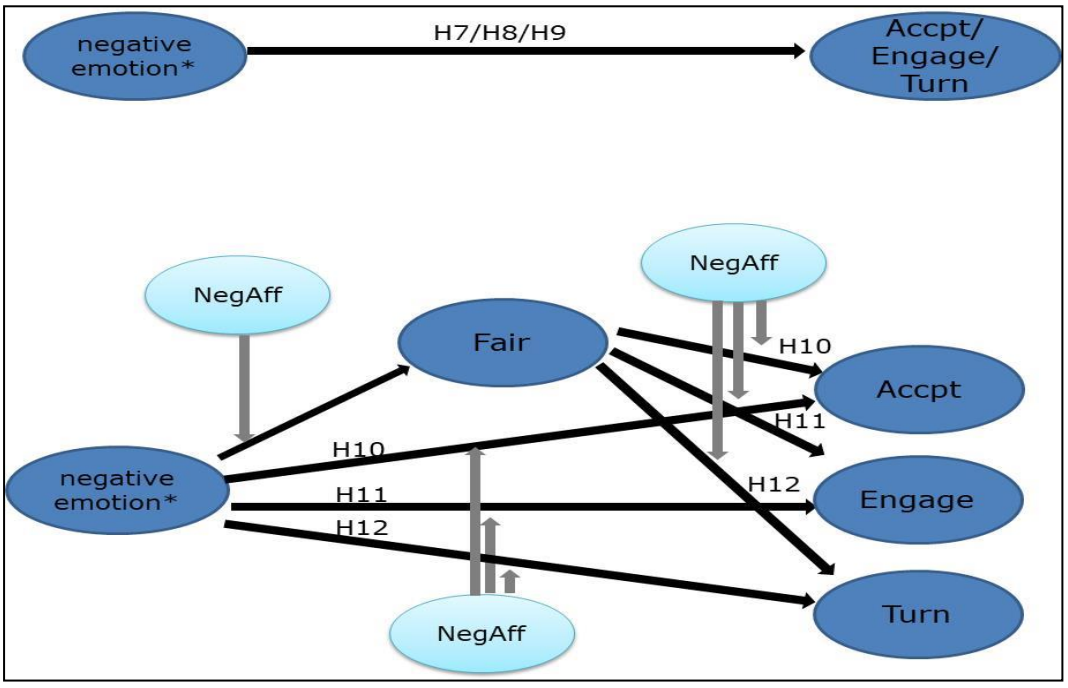


Figure 23. The path diagram of Model 2. The direct predictability of **Accpt/Engage/Turn** by negative emotions* is tested via Hypotheses H7, H8 and H9. The mediation by **Fair** between negative emotions* and **Accpt/Engage/Turn** is tested via Hypotheses H10**,** H11 and H12. *Negative emotion represents **res, ang, dsp, ina, acq, wor, fru, grv, notA** and **sce**; each emotion was analysed separately.

Likewise, the total effect between each discrete emotion and the work attitudes was confirmed before further analysis. The AMOS representations of the total effects

analyses are presented in Appendix L (Figure L1 to L10). A summary of the path estimates, standard error and significance level is displayed in Table 29.

All the 10 negative emotions showed significant paths to **Accpt** and **Turn,** indicating valid predictability of acceptance of PM system and turnover intention by the negative emotions. However, the strength of the relationship between each discrete emotion and **Accpt/Turn** was not strong, as indicated by low R^2 values ranging from 0.03 to 0.20. The strengths of these total effects were expected to be lower than that of Model 1, in which the construct negative emotion (**NegEmo**) was "pooled-represented" by the 10 negative emotions. The relationships between the negative emotions and **Engage** were even weaker**;** only **fru, grv** and **notA** were found significantly predicting **Engage**. In terms of hypothesis testing, Hypotheses 7 and 9 were supported, while Hypothesis 8 was partially supported.

Table 29

The standardised and unstandardised estimates, S.E., C.R. and the significance for total effects (Model 2)

Construct	path	Construct	β	B	S.E.	C.R.	P	Result
Accpt	<---	res	-0.28	-0.16	0.044	-3.781	**	Significant
Accpt	<---	ang	-0.28	-0.17	0.044	-0.382	*	Significant
Accpt	<---	dsp	-0.32	-0.16	0.038	-4.269	**	Significant
Accpt	<---	ina	-0.27	-0.17	0.047	-3.655	*	Significant
Accpt	<---	acq	-0.18	-0.10	0.042	-2.329	*	Significant
Accpt	<---	wor	-0.25	-0.12	0.037	-3.318	**	Significant
Accpt	<---	fru	-0.40	-0.19	0.035	-5.280	**	Significant
Accpt	<---	grv	-0.35	-0.18	0.038	-4.637	**	Significant
Accpt	<---	notA	-0.37	-0.17	0.034	-4.851	**	Significant
Accpt	<---	sce	-0.28	-0.15	0.040	-3.741	**	Significant
Engage	<---	res	-0.11	-0.15	0.055	-1.423	0.175	Not significant
Engage	<---	ang	-0.10	-0.07	0.054	-1.352	0.176	Not significant
Engage	<---	dsp	-0.06	-0.04	0.047	-0.746	0.382	Not significant
Engage	<---	ina	-0.11	-0.09	0.058	-1.519	0.156	Not significant
Engage	<---	acq	-0.09	-0.06	0.051	-1.151	0.277	Not significant
Engage	<---	wor	-0.11	-0.08	0.052	-1.495	0.108	Not significant
Engage	<---	fru	-0.21	-0.13	0.049	-2.735	**	Significant
Engage	<---	grv	-0.20	-0.14	0.053	-2.610	*	Significant
Engage	<---	notA	-0.17	-0.11	0.047	-2.284	*	Significant
Engage	<---	sce	-0.14	-0.10	0.056	-1.806	0.077	Not significant
Turn	<---	res	0.42	0.55	0.095	5.737	**	Significant
Turn	<---	ang	0.31	0.40	0.095	4.218	**	Significant
Turn	<---	dsp	0.39	0.43	0.082	5.257	**	Significant
Turn	<---	ina	0.35	0.48	0.103	4.709	**	Significant
Turn	<---	acq	0.23	0.28	0.092	2.995	**	Significant
Turn	<---	wor	0.33	0.41	0.091	4.445	**	Significant
Turn	<---	fru	0.42	0.49	0.084	5.798	**	Significant
Turn	<---	grv	0.45	0.57	0.092	6.230	**	Significant
Turn	<---	notA	0.44	0.50	0.082	6.060	**	Significant
Turn	<---	sce	0.42	0.56	0.097	5.763	**	Significant

The first attempt of analysing the structural model of Model 2 was run without the control variables. The AMOS diagram of Model 2 for each discrete emotion is presented in Appendix L (Figures L11 to L20). All the discrete negative emotions were tested in the mediation model for **Accpt** and **Turn**; whereas only **fru, grv** and **notA** were tested for **Engage** since only these three discrete emotions were shown significantly related to **Engage**. The goodness-of-fit indices of Model 2 met the requirements - $\chi 2/df$ ratio (ranged 1.73 to 1.83) and RMSEA (ranged 0.06 to 0.07) achieved good fitness, and CFI (ranged 0.92 to 0.94) and NNFI (ranged 0.91 to 0.94) indices were mediocre. No optimisation of model was needed. The detailed model indices are tabulated and displayed in Appendix L (Table L1). Also shown in the AMOS diagrams, the R^2 was approximately 0.75, 0.33 and 0.38, for **Accpt**, **Engage** and **Turn** respectively**.** These values were consistent compared with those found in Model 1. The size of the mediated effect of **Fair** in the relationships with the negative emotions and **Accpt**/**Engage**/**Turn** ranged from small to medium. Similar to Model 1, **Fair** demonstrated a medium mediated effect on the relationships between discrete emotions and **Turn**, and a small effect on discrete emotions-**Engage** relationships. However, the mediated effect of **Fair** between discrete emotions and **Accpt** was smaller than that of **NegEmo**-**Accpt** relationship of Model 1. The reason was due to significantly smaller (weaker) predictability of **Accpt** by single discrete emotion versus **NegEmo** which was represented by 10 negative emotions (The R^2 was approximately 10 times weaker.). The detailed size of mediated effect of **Fair** of Model 2 can be found in Appendix L (Table L2). The path estimates, standard errors and significance levels of Model 2 are given in Table 30. This information also provides an indication of the mediation types of Model 2.

Table 30

The standardised and unstandardised estimates of the constructs in Model 2

Construct	path	Construct	β	B	S.E.	C.R.	P	Result
Fair	<---	res	-0.50	-0.25	0.043	-5.752	0.004	Significant
Accpt	<---	Fair	0.96	1.17	0.162	7.203	0.004	Significant
Accpt	<---	res	0.18	0.11	0.051	2.191	0.840	Not significant
Turn	<---	Fair	-0.52	-1.27	0.238	-5.345	0.005	Significant
Turn	<---	res	0.16	0.19	0.097	1.963	0.162	Not significant
Fair	<---	ang	-0.49	-0.24	0.042	-5.674	0.005	Significant
Accpt	<---	Fair	0.94	1.14	0.156	7.3	0.003	Significant
Accpt	<---	ang	0.16	0.10	0.049	1.986	0.113	Not significant
Turn	<---	Fair	-0.58	-1.39	0.246	-5.654	0.006	Significant
Turn	<---	ang	0.03	0.04	0.098	0.392	0.821	Not significant
Fair	<---	dsp	-0.48	-0.20	0.037	-5.515	0.004	Significant
Accpt	<---	Fair	0.91	1.12	0.155	7.189	0.002	Significant
Accpt	<---	dsp	0.11	0.06	0.042	1.378	0.207	Not significant
Turn	<---	Fair	-0.53	-1.30	0.24	-5.406	0.005	Significant
Turn	<---	dsp	0.13	0.14	0.083	1.642	0.14	Not significant
Fair	<---	ina	-0.42	-0.22	0.046	-4.876	0.006	Significant
Accpt	<---	Fair	0.90	1.10	0.149	7.397	0.003	Significant
Accpt	<---	ina	0.10	0.06	0.049	1.322	0.233	Not significant
Turn	<---	Fair	-0.55	-1.32	0.234	-5.645	0.007	Significant
Turn	<---	ina	0.12	0.15	0.099	1.513	0.194	Not significant
Fair	<---	acq	-0.28	-0.13	0.04	-3.197	0.006	Significant
Accpt	<---	Fair	0.88	1.08	0.14	7.708	0.002	Significant
Accpt	<---	acq	0.07	0.04	0.038	0.998	0.31	Not significant
Turn	<---	Fair	-0.58	-1.41	0.232	-6.091	0.006	Significant
Turn	<---	acq	0.06	0.07	0.082	0.863	0.456	Not significant

Table 30 (continue)

The standardised and unstandardised estimates of the constructs in Model 2

Construct	path	Construct	β	B	S.E.	C.R.	P	Result
Fair	<---	wor	-0.37	-0.17	0.04	-4.208	0.004	Significant
Accpt	<---	Fair	0.89	1.09	0.145	7.494	0.002	Significant
Accpt	<---	wor	0.07	0.04	0.041	0.932	0.351	Not significant
Turn	<---	Fair	-0.55	-1.34	0.231	-5.767	0.004	Significant
Turn	<---	wor	0.13	0.15	0.085	1.726	0.112	Not significant
Fair	<---	fru	-0.55	-0.23	0.037	-6.265	0.004	Significant
Accpt	<---	Fair	0.92	1.17	0.166	7.082	0.003	Significant
Accpt	<---	fru	0.11	0.06	0.046	1.238	0.337	Not significant
Engage	<---	Fair	0.65	0.98	0.181	5.417	0.005	Significant
Engage	<---	fru	0.15	0.10	0.058	1.686	0.099	Not significant
Turn	<---	Fair	-0.55	-1.39	0.265	-5.259	0.006	Significant
Turn	<---	fru	0.12	0.13	0.092	1.393	0.343	Not significant
Fair	<---	grv	-0.55	-0.25	0.041	-6.218	0.007	Significant
Accpt	<---	Fair	0.96	1.21	0.168	7.224	0.004	Significant
Accpt	<---	grv	0.17	0.10	0.051	1.947	0.112	Not significant
Engage	<---	Fair	0.64	0.97	0.178	5.454	0.004	Significant
Engage	<---	grv	0.16	0.11	0.063	1.723	0.092	Not significant
Turn	<---	Fair	-0.53	-1.35	0.256	-5.257	0.07	Significant
Turn	<---	grv	0.16	0.19	0.098	1.913	0.121	Not significant
Fair	<---	notA	-0.55	-0.23	0.036	-6.283	0.006	Significant
Accpt	<---	Fair	0.95	1.20	0.167	7.192	0.004	Significant
Accpt	<---	notA	0.15	0.08	0.045	1.738	0.088	Not significant
Engage	<---	Fair	0.66	1.01	0.181	5.541	0.004	Significant
Engage	<---	notA	0.20	0.12	0.057	2.149	0.051	Not significant
Turn	<---	Fair	-0.54	-1.38	0.261	-5.281	0.006	Significant
Turn	<---	notA	0.14	0.15	0.089	1.646	0.162	Not significant
Fair	<---	sce	-0.46	-0.23	0.043	-5.223	0.004	Significant
Accpt	<---	Fair	0.92	1.15	0.159	7.223	0.003	Significant
Accpt	<---	sce	0.13	0.08	0.049	1.643	0.118	Not significant
Turn	<---	Fair	-0.52	-1.28	0.238	-5.378	0.004	Significant
Turn	<---	sce	0.19	0.23	0.096	2.384	0.044	Significant

To find out the mediation outcome, the path estimates of direct and indirect relationships were arranged to the normal testing procedure and bootstrapping formats. Both the normal testing procedure and bootstrapping methods affirmed full mediation for all relationships, except for **sce**-**Turn** direct effect. For **sce**-**Turn** relationship, partial mediation was resulted. Therefore, Hypotheses 10, 11 and 12 were partially supported for the 10 negative emotions.

9.2.1 Analysing Model 2 with the control variables

Similar to Model 1, **age** and **gender** were included in the model as controls to partial out their influence on the results. **Gender** did not show any significance on all paths. However, there was a significant correlation between **age** and **Turn** found in Model 2. It was also noticed that the path estimates of two "borderline cases" (before included the control variables) showed change of significance upon the addition of **age** to Model 2. The direct effect from **notA** to **Engage** became significant ($\beta = 0.22$, p-value = 0.033) from insignificant ($\beta = 0.20$, p-value = 0.051); thus, changing mediation from full to partial (confirmed by bootstrapping method). In another case, the direct effect **sce** to **Turn** became insignificant under the influence of the **age** (β changed from 0.19 to 0.13; p-value changed from 0.044 to 0.126); the type of mediation became full (confirmed by bootstrapping method). All the goodness-of-fit indices remained in good level. The AMOS diagram output for the Model 2 with control variables is displayed in Appendix L (Tables L21 to L30). A summary of conclusions of the hypotheses is listed in Table 31.

Table 31

The hypothesis statements and conclusions for Model 2

	Hypothesis statement	Decision
H7	Discrete negative emotions significantly predict acceptance of PM system	Supported
H8	Discrete negative emotions significantly predict work engagement	Partially supported only for **fru, grv** and **notA**
H9	Discrete negative emotions significantly predict turnover intention	Supported
H10	Perceived fairness partially mediates the negative relationship between discrete negative emotions and acceptance of PM	Partially supported
H11	Perceived fairness partially mediates the negative relationship between discrete negative emotion and work engagement	Supported for **notA** and partially supported only for **fru** and **grv**
H12	Perceived fairness partially mediates the positive relationship between discrete negative emotion and turnover intention	Partially supported

9.2.2 Testing the moderating effect in Model 2

Negative affectivity was hypothesised to mitigate two relationships – the direct and indirect relationship between (discrete) negative emotions and the three work attitudes. Since all indirect relationships were significant, all the indirect relationships were tested for the moderation effect. For direct relationship, only **notA**-**Engage** was significant; therefore, only this relationship was tested for moderation. Table 32 summarises the moderation results of negative affectivity on the relationships. Similar results to those of Model 1 were found; negative affectivity did not show moderation effect on any of these relationships.

Table 32

*Standardised estimates of interaction between **NegAff** and 10 negative emotions, and **Fair** (Model 2)*

Construct	path	Construct	moderator (component)	β	p-value	Result
Fair	<---	res	Fear	-0.06	0.460	Not significant
			Disgruntle	0.08	0.293	Not significant
Fair	<---	ang	Fear	-0.303	0.707	Not significant
			Disgruntle	0.07	0.341	Not significant
Fair	<---	dsp	Fear	0.03	0.62	Not significant
			Disgruntle	0.02	0.81	Not significant
Fair	<---	ina	Fear	-0.01	0.843	Not significant
			Disgruntle	0.12	0.075	Not significant
Fair	<---	acq	Fear	-0.11	0.148	Not significant
			Disgruntle	0.03	0.652	Not significant
Fair	<---	wor	Fear	-0.1	0.225	Not significant
			Disgruntle	-0.01	0.591	Not significant
Fair	<---	fru	Fear	-0.02	0.881	Not significant
			Disgruntle	-0.07	0.339	Not significant
Fair	<---	grv	Fear	0.02	0.771	Not significant
			Disgruntle	0.01	0.952	Not significant
Fair	<---	notA	Fear	0.02	0.826	Not significant
			Disgruntle	0.02	0.811	Not significant
Fair	<---	sce	Fear	0.03	0.663	Not significant
			Disgruntle	0.02	0.831	Not significant
Accpt	<---	Fair	Fear	0.00	0.992	Not significant
			Disgruntle	-0.06	0.266	Not significant
Engage	<---	Fair	Fear	0.08	0.401	Not significant
			Disgruntle	-0.07	0.379	Not significant
Turn	<---	Fair	Fear	-0.07	0.292	Not significant
			Disgruntle	0.042	0.538	Not significant
Engage	<---	notA	Fear	-0.1	0.264	Not significant
			Disgruntle	0.14	0.063	Not significant

9.2.3 Discussion: The relationships among discrete negative emotions, perception of fairness and work attitudes

The findings from Model 2 offer insights of whether the Malaysian workers' perceptions of fairness would explain the relationship between their specific emotional responses to events related to the PM system and their work attitudes (acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention). The presentation of the discussion of Model 2 is divided into several sub-sections according to different paths of the model. The results of the relationships between perception of fairness and the work attitudes have been discussed in section 8.2.3.3 and would not be repeated here.

9.2.3.1 Predictability of acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention by discrete negative emotions

As shown by the path estimates in Table 31, all 10 negative emotions significantly predicted the workers' acceptance of PM system (β ranged from -0.18* to -0.40**). Thus, Hypothesis 7 is supported. The results also indicated that a worker with more intense negative emotion such as *disappointment, frustration* and *scepticism* would show lower acceptance level of PM system, and vice versa. Compared to the literature, the finding on *anger*-acceptance of PM system relationship in this study was in line with previous studies that identified angry was negatively related to acceptance of performance feedback (Brett & Atwater, 2001; Sargeant et al., 2005, 2008). Similarly, the negative association between *scepticism* and acceptance of PM system was consistent with findings of past studies by Gabris and Ihkle (2002) and Reinke and Baldwin (2000). The studies reported that trust for the supervisors would increase the

employees' acceptability of performance feedback. From this study, lower *scepticism* was associated with higher acceptance of PM system.

As for Hypothesis 8, only *frustration* (β = -0.21**), *feelings of grievance* (β = -0.20*) and *not appreciated* (β = -0.17*) predicted the workers' levels of work engagement significantly. In other words, the finding implied that the other seven emotions such as *disappointment* did not predict the workers' levels of work engagement significantly. The analysis of the total effects of Model 2 has successfully differentiated the negative emotions that predicted work engagement among the 10 negative emotions. As indicated by lower R^2 values, the strength of the relationships between the discrete negative emotions and work engagement appeared weaker to those between the discrete emotions and acceptance of PM system and turnover intention. This finding was similar to that found in Model 1. Inconsistent with Clark et al. (2013), the current study did not find significant connections between *anger, disappointment* and work engagement. It was also noted that the standardised estimates between the negative emotions (guilt, anxiety, anger and disappointment) and work engagement reported in Clark et al. (2013) were significantly larger than those found in this study (ranged from -0.20 to -0.46 vs. -0.06 to -0.21). This discrepancy might be attributed to the multiple-item scales used to measure the four negative emotions in Clark et al. (2013). Since multiple-item scales accounted for measurement error (Petrescu, 2013), relations between constructs became stronger (Reifman, 2015). Accordingly, the emotion data in this study might contain substantial "noise" which was not completely accounted for with a single item scale.

All 10 negative emotions significantly predicted the workers' turnover intentions (β ranged from 0.23** to 0.45**), thus supported Hypothesis 9. In addition, the finding on turnover intention was generally consistent with the literature,

specifically for the positive correlation between anger and turnover intention (Brown et al., 2010; Gupta & Kumar, 2013). Meanwhile, the predictability of *frustration* on turnover intention found in Model 2 echoed the findings reported in Spector and Jex (1991). Spector and Jex (1991) found a positive correlation between frustration and turnover intention in examining the relationships between job characteristics and employee outcomes. Although the authors did not conclude causality from this observation, this early work on employee turnover intention had provided the evidence of the correlation between negative emotion and turnover intention. By contrast, the findings on predicting turnover intention by discrete negative emotions from this study were only partially in congruent with those in Grandey et al. (2002). Grandey et al. (2002) found disappointment predicting the employees' turnover intentions but not anger, whereas in this study, disappointment and anger predicted the workers' turnover intentions significantly. The discrepancy could be attributed to limited generalisability because the sample used in Grandey et al. (2002) was young part time student employees. The profile of the samples in Grandey et al. (2002) and this study was distinctive.

As shown by the R^2 values, the total effects among the discrete negative emotions and the three work attitudes were generally small, approximately 0.09, 0.02 and 0.14(Sullivan & Feinn, 2012). Additionally, the R^2 of each discrete emotion was smaller than those of **NegEmo** in Model 1 that was "pool-represented" by the 10 discrete negative emotions.

9.2.3.2 Discrete negative emotion as an antecedent to perception of fairness

The results revealed that all the 10 discrete negative emotions were significant predictors of perception of fairness (ranged from β = -0.28** to -0.55**). The

interpretation was similar to that for Model 1; if a worker carries stronger negative emotions such as *anger, acquiescence* and *frustration,* the worker also perceives a lower level of fairness, and vice versa. This finding was in congruent with the trends identified in Byrne, Rupp and Eurich (2003) in which anger and resentment were found correlated significantly to fairness (distributive, procedural and interactional). The finding of this study has shown significant relationships between more discrete emotions, e.g., *inadequacy*, *worry* and *scepticism*, and perception of fairness, thereby expanding our knowledge in workplace affect and organisational justice literature.

9.2.3.3 The mediating role of perception of fairness on discrete negative emotion-Accpt relationship

In Model 2, the workers' discrete emotional responses were tested for its relationship with the acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention through perception of fairness. The individual relationships between the 10 discrete negative emotions and the three work attitudes in a mediation model were determined.

The indirect relationship between each of the discrete emotions and the workers' acceptance of PM system via perception of fairness was significant. The finding yielded similar conclusion as Model 1, in which a worker's intensity of negative emotion negatively correlated to his or her perception of fairness about the PM system and subsequently influenced the acceptance of the system. Using *anger* as an example, the results of this study indicated that when a worker had a high level of *anger*, he perceived less fair about the PM system, and less likely to accept the PM system. Similar interpretation could be applied to the other discrete emotions. Regarding the type of mediation, full mediation was determined for all the indirect discrete emotion-acceptance of PM system relationships. This revealed that the

cognitive component of the workers' responses, i.e., perception of fairness fully explained the relationship between the emotion-acceptance of PM system for the 10 discrete negative emotions (Hair et al., 2010).

For the (10) discrete emotion-**Fair**-**Accpt** relationships, the R^2 values were approximately 0.76. This value was consistent with that of Model 1. It was noted that R^2 of the total effect increased from an average of 0.09 to an average of 0.76 of the mediation model and hence, supported the significance of perception of fairness in explaining the relationship between the discrete negative emotions and acceptance of PM system. In other words, Model 2 was effective in explaining the relationships between the discrete negative emotions and acceptance of PM system.

9.2.3.4 The mediating role of perception of fairness on discrete negative emotion-Engage relationship

As shown by the total effect path estimates, only emotions of *feeling of grievance, not appreciated* and *frustration* predicted the workers' levels of work engagement significantly. This finding has shown that different discrete emotions carry distinctive motivational and behavioural consequences (Lazarus, 1995). In assessing Hypothesis 11, only these three discrete emotions were tested. With respect to type of mediation, perception of fairness fully mediated the relationship between the feelings of *grievance, frustration* and work engagement, i.e., the workers' perceptions of fairness fully explained the indirect relationship between feeling of *grievance*, *frustration* and work engagement. On the other hand, perception of fairness partially mediated the relationship between the emotion *not appreciated* and work engagement (after partialled out the influence by **age**). Relative to Model 1, **NegEmo** as a single construct which composed of 10 discrete emotions appeared to have a stronger direct

effect on work engagement. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, studies examining the association of discrete negative emotion and work engagement are limited (Clark et al., 2013); hence, the significant relationships between the feelings of *grievance*, *frustration* and *not appreciated* and work engagement found in this study provide insightful remarks about the link between the discrete negative emotions and work engagement.

The R^2 values of the 10 discrete emotion-**Fair**-**Engage** mediation were approximately 0.33, which was consistent with that of Model 1. There was an considerable increase of R^2 of the total effect from an average of 0.02 to an average of 0.33 of the mediation model and supported the significance of perception of fairness in explaining the relationship between negative emotions and work engagement. Model 2 was moderately effective in explaining the relationships between the discrete negative emotions and work engagement, since the exogenous constructs and the mediator could capture 33% of the estimates on the endogenous constructs.

Likewise, there was a suppression effect by **Fair** and revealing **notA-Engage** a positive relationship in Model 2. Similar to the case in Model 1, **Fair** suppressed unwanted variance and increased (in magnitude) the correlation between **notA** and **Engage** when it was being controlled for. For this relationship, the correlation was "changed" from -0.17* (Figure L9 in Appendix L) to +0.20*(Figure L19 in Appendix L)**,** due to the strong negative indirect effect by **Fair**. This positive relationship revealed that a worker who did not feel appreciated was more engaged in his work. As explained in section 8.2.3.5, an alternative mediator or moderator might have "interfered" with this relationship. Nonetheless, it was an overall negative relationship between *not appreciated* and work engagement.

9.2.3.5 The mediating role of perception of fairness on discrete negative emotion-Turn relationship

It was hypothesised that the workers' discrete emotional responses were related to turnover intention through perception of fairness (Hypothesis 12). The results revealed that the 10 discrete negative emotions had a significant (positive) indirect effect on the workers' turnover intentions via perception of fairness. This was to say that higher level of negative emotion such as *disappointment* was associated with lower level of fairness perception and in turn, higher level of turnover intention. In addition, the direct relationship between the 10 discrete negative emotions and turnover intention became insignificant. Likewise, full mediating effect of perception of fairness in this analysis demonstrated that perception of fairness, a cognitive component played a significant role in explaining the relationships between negative emotions and in predicting the workers' turnover intentions. Additionally, the increase of R^2 of the total effects from an average of 0.14 to an average of 0.38 of the mediation model further supported the significance of perception of fairness in explaining the relationships between discrete negative emotions and turnover intention. Similar to Model 1, Model 2 was moderately effective as the relationships specified among the discrete negative emotion, perception of fairness and turnover intention could explain about 38% of the variance of turnover intention.

9.3 Chapter summary

Analysing the 10 discrete emotions separately yielded similar results with some nuances compared to Model 1. In like manner, all the discrete negative emotions predicted the workers' levels of accepting the PM systems and turnover intention. However, among the 10 negative emotions, only feelings of *grievance*, *not appreciated* and *frustration* predicted the workers' levels of engagement. The findings from Model 2 pointed out that different discrete emotions exerted differential influence on work engagement even though they belonged to the same affect valence. Similar to Model 1, the findings from Model 2 also revealed that perception of fairness was an explanatory underlying mechanism in the relationships between the discrete negative emotions and the work attitudes examined. That is, the workers' perceptions of fairness fully mediated the relationships between the discrete negative emotions and acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention, except for the feeling of *not appreciated* in which a significant direct effect with the worker's work engagement remained significant.

Similar to those found in Model 1, no significant correlation was detected between **gender** and other constructs in Model 2. Only **age** was found to correlate significantly with turnover intention. Nevertheless, the model fit indices of Model 2 remained good. As far as moderation was concerned, negative affectivity did not interact with the 10 discrete negative emotions or perception of fairness and caused different levels of acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention.

CHAPTER 10 OVERALL DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

10.1 Chapter overview

This pioneering study among Malaysian general workers explored the affective events of PM system and the workers' emotional responses towards these events. The current study further tested the relationships between workers' emotional responses, their perceptions of fairness, acceptance of PM system, work engagement and their turnover intentions.

The current study adopted a sequential exploratory mixed methods approach, in which a qualitative study preceded a quantitative study. For the qualitative study, individual interview and FGD methods were employed to acquire the data as these methods offered the advantage of gathering much comprehensive information (Bryman, 2012). The qualitative data were then coded and categorised using content analysis method. Ten major negative emotions were identified and used for the subsequent quantitative phase. In the quantitative study, a survey questionnaire was used to gather data on the workers' emotional responses, perceptions of fairness and work attitudes. The data were then analysed using SEM analysis.

This chapter first discusses the major findings of the qualitative and quantitative phases based on the research aim and research questions outlined in the previous chapters. The contributions of the findings are presented in this chapter as well. Section 10.4 specifically discusses insights arising from the use of mixed methodologies. This is then proceeded by a discussion of the theoretical, practical and methodological implications of the thesis findings. It is followed by a discussion of

the limitations of the current study as well as recommendations and concludes with a summary of the current study.

10.2 Qualitative study – summary of research findings and contributions

The qualitative study aims to answer the first and second research questions, specifically to explore and to identify the negative events related to PM systems and their associated negative emotions. Using individual interviews and FGD methods, 264 negative affective events were obtained and subsequently, 52 events types and 12 negative event categories emerged. Consequently, these findings make several noteworthy contributions to various fields of study.

Among the 12 categories of events, events related to "Negative acts of management", "Problems with goal setting" and "Unsatisfactory monetary reward" emerged as the most frequently mentioned events by the participants. **"**Negative acts of management", especially the supervisors, constituted more than 23% of all the negative affective events brought up by the participants. The microscopic details on specific events in this qualitative study offer a more precise articulation of the psychological impacts leaders could engender onto their subordinates. The findings complement the existing leadership theories (e.g., transformational leadership; Bass, 1990) which do not fully capture components of emotion management (Kaplan et al., 2012). In addition, the findings of "Negative acts of management" add to a limited body of literature on negative leadership, while most of the leader behaviour theories and leadership theories have been focusing on positive or effective behaviours (Amabile et al., 2004).

The event types under the category of "Negative acts of management" drew attentions to the significance of supervisors' communication skills and style,

particularly related to the content, frequency and delivery manner of giving performance feedback. This finding could be related to interactional justice in which communicating performance feedback to the workers concerned with conveying and receiving sufficient information in a dignified and respectful manner (Brutus, 2009; Dasborough, 2006). In sum, this finding echoed those found in the previous studies (Brutus, 2009; Dasborough, 2006).

The findings about monetary rewards from this study have assisted in the understanding of the relationship between rewards and affective responses for this work group, and added knowledge to the limited literature that examined the connections between rewards (or punishment) and workers' affective responses (Brief & Aldag, 1994; Brief & Weiss, 2002). Supporting the literature, the results also revealed that this work group responded strongly to issues related to monetary rewards (e.g., Brief & Aldag, 1994; Nada et al., 2012). About 20% of the participants in this study highlighted feeling *disappointed* with their monetary rewards and from their narrations, extensive comparison with other co-workers could be noted. In a more extreme case, a participant revealed that he did not mind getting petty bonus and would feel all right as long as every worker received as petty a sum as him. A corollary to this finding was that variables such as team vs. individual rewards and equity vs. equality pay-out practices would be worth researching into to understand the moderating effects of these variables on workers' responses to monetary rewards and acceptance of PM systems.

The following frequently-mentioned event category is related to goal setting or goal attainment. Among all the negative event categories, there were at least four categories related to goal setting or goal attainment such as "Not aware of appraisal criteria" and associated with diverse affective responses of being *inadequate, worried,*

frustrated, helpless and *disappointed*. The findings were in line with earlier studies which concluded that events related to goal progress and goal attainment were significant and highly affective (e.g., Cron et al., 2005; Tschan et al., 2010). It was also posited that, for the participants, monetary rewards might have escalated the sensitivity and criticality of goal setting as its outcome was tied to monetary rewards. The significance of monetary rewards was also reflected in the findings during the quantitative phase in which both distributive and procedural justices were under one component **Structural**. Additional discussion on this finding is presented in section 10.4.

The findings on goal setting events and the participants' affective responses have gone some way towards enhancing the understanding of basic emotional processes of goal setting. Further, the findings have implied the important role of affect in a broader research scope of work motivation. This is because most of the widely-used theories of work motivation, e.g., expectancy theory of motivation (Vroom, 1964)[13] and social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986)[14] focus on cognitive processes, but the affective component of work motivation has not been explored extensively (Brockner & Higgins, 2001; Ilies et al., 2006).

The participants revealed 29 negative emotions associated with the negative events of PM processes identified in the qualitative study. These emotions have expanded the list of affective responses from ratees reacting to different processes of PM system, as compared to those commonly reported emotions, i.e., anger, frustration

[13] The expectancy theory of motivation argues that reward is an important requirement for work motivation. Thus, an employee will put forth high level of effort when he perceives that his reward is satisfactory (Phuong, 2018).

[14] The social cognitive theory suggests that an individual tends to emulate the behaviours of those whom he perceives as highly rewarded or more successful (Schaubroeck et al., 2004).

and discouragement (Schleicher et al., 2019). The identification of these emotions could be used as the basis of affect studies of PM system or workplace emotion research. In regards to research question number two, the major emotions are identified as follows: *resentment*, *anger*, *disappointment*, a*cquiescence*, *worry*, *frustration*, *scepticism*, *no appreciation*, *feeling of grievance* and *inadequacy*. The 10 most frequently revealed emotions, accounting more than 70% occurrence, are fed to the subsequent quantitative study.

This qualitative study represents a comprehensive effort to identify a list of affective events and associated affective responses related to PM system. The finding from this study can serve as a basis for future research on AET framework, as the affective events and corresponding emotions allow subsequent tests of the impact on work attitudes and behaviours. In addition, by understanding the key affective events related to PM system, organisations could stand a good chance of designing a more well-accepted PM system.

10.3 Quantitative study – summary of research findings and contributions

The quantitative study aims to investigate the mediation role of perception of fairness in the causal relation between negative emotions and acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention. The following subsections delineate the summary findings and contributions to theories in the sequence of Model 1 and Model 2. The two analyses have yielded similar yet nuanced results and have provided supplementary insights into the relationships among the constructs.

10.3.1 The relationships between overall negative emotion and work attitudes through perception of fairness (Model 1)

In this first analysis, the 10 major negative emotions determined from the qualitative study are conceptualised as an overall construct. First and foremost, the results from Model 1 revealed that negative emotion was a significant predictor for workers' acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention. Among the three work attitudes, the relationship between negative emotion and work engagement was relatively weaker (as shown by the β and R^2 estimates). This was not unexpected as work engagement came hand-in-hand with positive emotions (Schaufeli et al., 2002), as opposed to negative emotion. The results also pointed out that a worker having strong negative emotion tended to not support the PM system or experienced lower level of work engagement, and vice versa. Meanwhile, a stronger feeling of negative emotion predicted stronger intention to resign from the company.

The findings of Model 1 have revealed the important role of fairness perception in explaining the relationships between negative emotions and the work attitudes, as indicated by the substantial increase in the R^2 values of Model 1 (Awang, 2015; Chin, 1998). The workers' perceptions of fairness fully mediated the relationships between negative emotion and acceptance of PM system, and turnover intention; but only partially mediated the relationship between negative emotion and work engagement. In addition, the findings derived from Model 1 have affirmed negative emotion and perception of fairness being the antecedents of acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention, contributing to the limited body of research on the causal link between emotions and work attitudes (Schleicher et al., 2019; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996; Wollard & Shuck, 2011).

10.3.2 The relationships between discrete negative emotions and work attitudes through perception of fairness (Model 2)

In the second analysis, the 10 negative emotions are conceptualised as individual discrete emotions. Compared to Model 1, Model 2 provides information on the specific negative emotions which predict the work attitudes, or the differential predictability of discrete emotions on the work attitudes. The findings from Model 2 are similar to those of Model 1, in which all the 10 negative emotions predicted the workers' acceptance of PM system and turnover intention. However, the predictability of work engagement by the negative emotions seemed weaker and more "selective" in Model 2. As an overall construct (Model 1), negative emotion marginally (and negatively) predicted the workers' work engagement. When analysed separately, only the feeling of *grievance*, *not appreciated* and *frustration* showed significance in predicting workers' work engagement. These findings demonstrated that workers' negative emotions towards the PM systems had different effects on workers' levels of work engagement.

The mediation results of Model 2 parallel those of Model 1. The mediation model with the inclusion of fairness perception increased the predictability of negative emotion on the work attitudes. In Model 2, full mediation was observed between the discrete emotions and the acceptance of PM system, as well as turnover intention. As for work engagement, full (*feeling of grievance* and *frustration*) and partial (*not appreciated*) mediation was observed.

Among the three work attitudes examined in this thesis, the relationships between negative emotions and work engagement appeared more complex. Although negative emotion (overall and discrete) exerted a weaker impact on work engagement, it had a direct influence on work engagement which could not be fully explained by

perception of fairness for certain discrete emotions such as *not appreciated*. Furthermore, suppression effect of the construct perception of fairness suggested the plausibility of actions by additional mediators or moderators. Although the data collected in the quantitative phase were insufficient to draw any conclusions concerning these uncertainties, the findings from the current study provided much needed empirical evidence on the links between negative emotions and work engagement (Clark et al., 2013) as well as on discrete emotion research (Ashkanasy & Dorris, 2017). To provide a clearer overall picture of the findings, Table 33 displays a summary of results of Models 1 and 2 with respect to the study hypotheses.

Table 33

Summary of results of Models 1and 2 with respect to the hypotheses

	Model 1	Model 2
Treatment of negative emotion	analysed as an overall construct	analysed separately as discrete emotion
Predictability of negative emotion on **Accpt**	negative emotion significantly predicted **Accpt**	all negative emotions significantly predicted **Accpt**
Predictability of negative emotion on **Engage**	negative emotion significantly predicted **Engage**	only **notA**, **fru** and **grv** significantly predicted **Engage**
Predictability of negative emotion on **Turn**	negative emotion significantly predicted **Turn**	all negative emotions significantly predicted **Turn**
Significance of negative emotion/**Fair** relationship	significant	significant
Significance of **Fair/Accpt** relationship	significant	significant
Significance of **Fair/Engage** relationship	significant	significant
Significance of **Fair/Turn** relationship	significant	significant
Type of mediation	full for **Accpt** & **Turn;** partial for **Engage**	full for **Accpt** & **Turn;** full for **fru** & **grv** partial for **notA**

The revised AET model has provided rich and original insights into the interplay among emotions, perception of fairness, acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention, thus added valuable supporting evidence to the research examining fairness as a mediator of the relationship between emotions and work attitudes in a Malaysian context (Mullen, 2016). The current study has demonstrated the effectiveness and robustness of the AET framework to integrate organisational justice theory and hence, contributed to broadening the applicability of the AET model in the organisational justice, employee engagement and HRM literature (i.e., PM systems and turnover intention).

The findings from the current study have also contributed to the understanding on how the Malaysian general workers' experiences with PM systems could directly or indirectly influence their work attitudes. Although the current study only focuses on the manufacturing sector, it is reasonable to anticipate similar results from other labour-intensive industries such as construction, agriculture and service (United Nations ESCWA, 2020). For instance, it has been reported that the HR practices employed by the Malaysian manufacturing industries and tourism and hospitality industries are underdeveloped and not on par with other industries (Kusluvan, Kusluvan, Ilhan & Buyruk, 2010; Zakaria et al., 2018). Thus, one would expect the workers (especially the general workers and the front-liners) to face similar issues and/or to have similar experiences in interacting with their supervisors and responding to their company policies. That is, the findings from this study would be helpful in providing bases for studies on affective events, affective responses and fairness perception in service industries context. Although the job PA for front-liners in

service sector often include contextual performance[15], which may not be common for the manufacturing general workers (Mohd Nasurdin & Soon, 2011), this difference could shed light on workers fairness perceptions and acceptability of different forms of job performance. In a broader sense, the findings have provided information to relevant research such as the psychological well-being of employees in the Asian context which is less emphasised as compared to North American and European countries (Muhamad Noor & Abdullah, 2012).

This quantitative study also considers the interaction effect of negative affectivity with negative emotions and perception of fairness in influencing the work attitudes. Inconsistent with literature, negative affectivity did not show any interaction effect with negative emotion or perception of fairness. The researcher theorised three reasons to explain its absence. In contrast, the data of control variable **age** revealed that older workers tended to express lower turnover intention than the younger workers. A likely explanation was that older workers would feel greater financial and affectionate sacrifices to leave their companies and colleagues (Peltokorpi et al., 2015).

10.4 Cross validating the qualitative and quantitative results of the thesis

The mixed methods design has enabled data triangulation (interview vs. FGD in qualitative phase) and result confirmation (qualitative vs. quantitative results) (Bryman, 2012; Harwell, 2011). The findings generated from data triangulation between the interviews and FGDs are presented in Chapter 6. By cross-validating the qualitative and quantitative results, it was found that the validity of negative affective

[15] Contextual performance is a set of interpersonal and volitional behaviours that promote the social and motivational context in which technical tasks are accomplished, for examples helping and cooperating with others (Motowidlo, Borman, & Schmit, 2009).

events was strong; only four "new" affective events were reported by the survey participants[16], less than 10% out of the 52 event types identified in the qualitative phase (see Table 34). This indicates that the affective events gathered from the qualitative study included majority of the workers' experiences with the PM systems. In addition, no "new" negative emotion was reported in the survey, suggesting that the emotions identified from the qualitative study carried high validity too.

[16] An open-ended question about affective event was asked in the questionnaire. A discussion is presented in section 5.4.2.1.

Table 34

The “new” negative affective events reported in the quantitative study

No.	Events	No. of times being brought up
1.	No career path	1
2.	My supervisor was good, but PA was not 100% up to my supervisor	2
3.	I made a mistake and that had disappointed my supervisor	1
4.	HR department’s decision overruled my boss’ decision	1

Note. Excluded issues which vaguely related to PM system and non-event

The main affective event categories identified in the qualitative phase (i.e., “Negative acts of management” and “Unsatisfactory rewards”) are reinforced by the factor loading patterns of construct **Fair** in the EFA and CFA. In the qualitative study, interaction with management (especially with supervisors) appeared highly salient to this work group. This observation was congruent with the quantitative results in which items assessing interactional justice had shown high factor loadings on **Fair**. Similarly, the importance of monetary reward observed in the qualitative study was also reflected in the high distributive justice factor loadings on **Fair**. However, the significance of the event category “Problems with goal setting” was not reflected in the items assessing procedural justice. Apparently, the workers did not relate goal setting to procedures; it was presumably associated with reward or how supervisors communicated goals instead. In fact, the overall lack of understanding about the PM

procedures concluded in the qualitative phase might have also been reflected in the low factor loadings of procedural justice found in the CFA.

10.5 Theoretical implications

From a theoretical viewpoint, this study has certainly provided evidence on the AET, affective event research, the concept of organisational justice and workplace emotion research. This section discusses the theoretical implications provided by the abovementioned.

The salience of "Negative acts of management" has implied that the critical determinants of PM system effectiveness are largely determined by the way supervisors exercise their responsibility under a PM system, which is dictated by the supervisors' general attitude towards the PM processes (Brown et al., 2010). As highlighted in Sumelius et al. (2014), the employees' perceived validity of PA was undermined and they felt frustrated and demotivated because their supervisors had failed to conduct proper PA follow up. The lack of follow up by the supervisors revealed lack of belief in the importance of PA. The finding about the critical role that supervisors play in executing PA further implies that organisations need to provide proper briefing about the systems to get the buy-in from the supervisors.

The finding about the workers' affective responses has also revealed a discrepancy between the genders in terms of their reactions. Female workers tended to pay more attention to relationships (with supervisors and co-workers) and expressed more emotions related to being scared and sad (Wilcox, 2001). This finding implies moderation effect of gender in workplace emotion studies.

The factor structure of the sample's perceptions of organisational justice is noteworthy. A two-factor structure of organisational justice was found among the

Malaysian general worker sample instead of the four-factor structure of organisational justice (Colquitt, 2001). Further fine tuning of construct **Fair** in the CFA revealed that the procedural justice component was relatively insignificant; instead, distributive and interactional justice was more significant**.** This finding was inconsistent with literature (e.g., Choong, Wong, & Tioh, 2010; Heslin & Vandewalle, 2009), which suggested that procedural justice was more relevant and significant to PM system. This inconsistency has two implications. First, the Malaysian general workers might be having a different taxonomy of organisational fairness. Second, the Malaysian general workers' concept of organisational justice did not seem well represented by the items in Colquitt's (2001) fairness scale. More research is required to explore the key concepts of organisational justice of this work group, and subsequently to develop a more applicable measurement scale. Finally, only by identifying the correct components and taking corresponding actions could organisations effectively implement justice in various organisational practices.

Lastly, the revised AET models of the current study have demonstrated the robustness of the AET framework in integrating with other theories and its applicability in different contexts. If further research confirms and extends these findings, the revised AET model proposed here can serve as a theoretical framework that helps towards the understanding of employee responses to other organisational contexts such as downsizing, organisation restructuring and VSS (Paterson & Cary, 2002). Indirectly, this revised model could be used to guide the development of effective interventions.

10.6 Practical implications

As the findings from the current study affirm the predictability of negative emotions on perception of fairness and work attitudes, a practical implication to organisations is to avoid the engendering of negative emotions. In this endeavour, the affective event categories identified in the qualitative phase can provide useful sources. Firstly, findings related to PM system procedures such as setting clear goal offer straightforward pointers to organisations about the desired features of a PM system from the general workers' points of view, thus avoiding the usual research-practice gap in I/O psychology (Aguinis & Pierce, 2008). For instance, organisations can spell out and explain clearly the criteria to qualify for a salary upgrading at the beginning of a PA cycle. These specific events are more manageable and amenable to interventions that are more global and complex such as tackling work stress as a whole (Narayanan et al., 1999). Another possible use of these detailed affective events is that the list could be converted into a survey with Likert scale; the results of which then employ the EFA method to generate a general PM system evaluation questionnaire. This questionnaire provides HR practitioners with a measurement tool to gauge their PM systems and to uncover potential weaknesses in the existing PM system so that interventions can be developed accordingly. The scale can also be directly used by supervisors to assess their personal PA practices and to facilitate improvement (Thurston & McNall, 2010).

Organisations can tap on the knowledge about "Negative acts of management" in the design of soft skills training programs for supervisors on managing their emotions (Kaplan et al., 2012, 2013), conducting performance reviews professionally (Krishnan, Ahmad, & Haron, 2018), understanding justice principles (Whiteside & Barclay, 2013), and communicating to their workers (Edgar, Geare, & Zhang, 2018).

A useful way to make the supervisors more sensitive about their manner of communication can be through the use of audio recording when they conduct performance feedback with their workers. In such cases, the recording serves as a self-debriefing tool. Although the supervisors may not be able to directly influence the larger PM system within a short time, there is at least some scope to make changes on the way they use the procedures to appraise their workers and making "unfavourable PA outcomes more acceptable" (Conway et al., 2015; Cropanzano, Bowen, & Gilliland, 2007; Thurston & McNall, 2010).

Although "Negative acts of management" was the most frequently brought up by the participants, it would be undeniably shallow to attribute the effectiveness of PM system solely to the supervisors (Pulakos et al., 2015). It is, however, the outcome of interactions among all parties who have joint responsibilities, including the "Negative acts of co-workers". To cite from Narcisse and Harcourt (2008), it is explained that supervisor-subordinate training in the PM system process is important in promoting fair interactions, effective communication and positive justice perceptions. Hence, organisations should not overlook the importance of creating awareness among the workers about those relevant affective events such as "Problems with goal setting", "Not aware of the PA criteria" and "Negative acts of co-workers". Since Malaysians tend to emphasise on collective well-being (Kennedy, 2002), this approach may be an alternative approach to foster desired workplace attitudes and behaviours among the workers. As the result, the current study could be useful to organisations which would like to improve the emotional quality of employees' work life, especially during conducting PA feedback.

The CFA on perception of fairness data in current study points out that the distributive and interactional justice is more significant. Therefore, downgrading

interactional justice of PM system research in the Malaysian context might miss out opportunity for improvement. Furthermore, in practising organisational justice, Moorman (1991) argued that interactional justice was the easiest practice through which a supervisor could enhance his workers' perceptions of fairness. By contrast, distributive and procedural justice frameworks are challenging to implement in ways that are wanted by the workers, because there might be a constraint that is beyond either the company policy or organisation's control.

Lastly, the significant relationships between the workers' perceptions of fairness and the work attitudes examined underscore the importance of ensuring fairness element of a PM system. One classic case of unfair PA practice that was conveyed emotionally in the FGD sessions was the inconsistency of ratings among different supervisors or different departments, i.e., some supervisors appraised more strictly than other supervisors. This event implies the necessity to organise calibration sessions leading to fairer PA among the supervisors. Calibration sessions provide the organisation with a method for normalisation of rating across raters by gathering groups of raters who, through a series of discussions, come to an agreement on the rating of their workers (Sumelius, Björkman, Ehrnrooth, Mäkelä, & Smale, 2014). Along the line of training, the overall findings and the implications of the revised AET model such as the influence of workers' negative emotions on their work attitudes ought to be explained to the management, supervisors and workers. This information could raise awareness among employers and employees about the importance of workplace emotions and perception of fairness.

10.7 Methodological implications

A primary methodological strength of the current study is its mixed methodologies in investigating the phenomena at hand. The unique event categories gathered from individual interviews and FGDs have demonstrated the advantage of using data triangulation to obtain a more complete list of affective events of PM system among the Malaysian general workers (Carter et al., 2014). Specifically, individual interview method has gathered more personal accounts such as salary, whereas FGD method has triggered more events that involved comparisons among the participants such as different appraisal standards practised by different supervisors or departments. Furthermore, triangulation has also facilitated validation of the data (Halcomb & Andrew, 2005). As stated in Chapter 6, approximately 42% of the event types were reported in both the inquiry methods, demonstrating a certain degree of data convergence.

Unlike most studies in which the emotions under study were based on common theorised emotions, this exogenous construct in the quantitative analysis was obtained empirically from the qualitative study. In addition, compared to literature, it is noticed that studies tended to combine different discrete emotions of the same valence into a composite emotion to simplify subsequent data analyses (e.g., Glasø & Einarsen, 2006; Mitchell, 2010a). This way of handling emotion data might cause a loss of interesting variations in responses (Grandey et al., 2002). As explained in Chapter 3, scholars of affect-justice field have argued that contrasting information processing strategies would have occurred among different emotions such as anger and sad, and by forming a composite emotion, some interesting relationships would have been lost (Cohen-Charash & Byrne, 2008).

The current study utilised samples of full-time workers from companies with different profiles and having first-hand experience with PM systems. Their reactions and attitudes are relevant and genuine feedback of the PM systems of their organisations (Keeping & Levy, 2000). For these reasons, the results from the current study are more generalisable to organisations than studies conducted in the laboratory. In addition, because the data were coded by a third party (and validated by the helpers), there was more confidence that the data were not influenced by impression management or memory bias that are of concern when using other methods (David, 2013).

10.8 Limitations of study

This study has its limitations that merit discussion. The first limitation concerns restricted generalisability of findings. The organisations, which participated in the current study, might have selected those workers who have had overall satisfying experiences with the PM systems to take part in the survey. Therefore, only the satisfied workers' opinions were collected in the current study, and those dissatisfied workers' who might have different views about the PM systems were excluded.

During the interviews, some participants occasionally showed difficulty in articulating their feelings regarding their experiences by uttering limited feeling words such as *happy*, *sad* and *angry*. This had posed difficulty in capturing their rich and exact emotions. Furthermore, use of the same epithet might not necessarily mean the exact same experiential feeling (Glasø & Einarsen, 2006) across the interviewees. When this situation arose, further probing was carried out. The inquiry method of interview rendered the opportunity for probing, which also served as a strategy to ensure the validity of interpretation. For example, the interviewer asked further: "At

that time, you were only sad, no anger?" and the interviewee affirmed his feelings by saying "Hmm (agreed), not angry. Only sad.". Nonetheless, such verbal consensus is unreliable unless it can be shown, and one important source of indirect evidence of such agreement may be the presence of emotion-behaviour consistency (Russell, 2003). Some evidence on emotion-behaviour consistency in the present study does exist, as shown in the following two accounts:

> Aisyah:... but when PA time, the same thing happened. I still could not get (the upgrading). Consequently, I felt disappointed. I had no mood to work … I felt it was saddening. … I felt pretty sad …..thinking of quitting.. "

Interviewee Aisyah reported feeling disappointed, followed by experiencing demotivation with her job and even considering of quitting. Similarly, in another case, the feeling of disappointment was associated with job demotivation and resignation.

> Farhan: Down! His change was seen. From his good work, no more.. he said he waited for bonus, he got it then left. No more motivation lah..
>
> Interviewer: He was too disappointed?
>
> Farhan: Too disappointed, 2 years!

Another limitation concerns the timing of the gathering of emotion data. As cautioned by researchers in emotion study (e.g., Gooty et al., 2009), emotions ought to be treated as a dynamic phenomenon and ideally, the time to capture the emotions should be right after an affective event. However, immediate data taking was deemed unfeasible for this work group; therefore, a balance was settled on 48 hours after PA was carried out to minimise problems caused by retrospection of emotions.

Differentiation was another challenge during the coding process of the transcripts due to substantial cases of "overlapping" among the event types. For such cases, all event types deemed relevant would be coded. For instance, the four events

under the event type “Supervisor does not keep his promises” were also coded for “Supervisor is unwilling to help” (two events), “Supervisor gives rude or unreasonable explanation” (one event) and “Annual leave being rejected” (one event). To reduce error, previous literature and verification by the helpers were referred to.

A limitation is detected with the data of **Fair** and **Accpt**. It was noticed that the range of the data of **Fair** and **Accpt** was narrowed, i.e., about 67% and 58% of the responses concentrated around “4.0”. This observation of range restriction could have inflated the correlation between **Fair** and **Accpt** (Bland & Altman, 2011), as reflected in the large correlation between the two constructs ($\beta = 0.96$). Nonetheless, this condition should not reverse the conclusion about the mediation type determined in this study considering the indirect effect via perception of fairness is excessively stronger than the direct effect between negative emotion and acceptance of PM system.

Another limitation concerns the use of single-source self-reported data (during the quantitative phase), which is prone to common method bias. The researcher took several procedural precautions such as using open-ended question and randomising the sequence of the questions for the constructs. As revealed by the Harman’s one-factor test result, these precautions were effective in controlling the bias to below the maximum threshold.

As this study employed a cross-sectional design, all the data were gathered within the limited period in which the surveys were conducted. Conclusions cannot be drawn about absolute causality given the non-longitudinal and non-experimental design of the current study. For instance, workers’ pre-existing turnover intentions may dictate their perceived fairness of the PM system, and in turn engender negative emotions. Hence, reverse causality cannot be ruled out. Both models fit the data

perfectly and yield highly plausible standardised path estimates for the empirical data (Woody, 2011). Nonetheless, the potential issue of reverse causality can be mitigated in future studies by employing longitudinal designs such as those that involve two or more phases of data collection to investigate the behaviours and perceptions of employees over time (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). A longitudinal design will provide stronger ability to draw firm findings and conclusions pertaining to the order of the causal predictive chain. More importantly it can allow for the observation of perceptions to change or to remain stable over time.

10.9 Recommendations for future research

On the basis of the findings and implications of the current study, the following recommendations are made for future research.

10.9.1 The AET

First and foremost, the revised AET model has successfully showed that negative emotions related to the PM system is significantly linked to perception of fairness and eventually to acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention. However, the relationships between affective event and perception of fairness, and work attitudes are not tested directly in the current study, making the testing of the entire AET model incomplete. The researcher recommends that all the variables of AET model, i.e., affective events, corresponding affective responses, work attitudes and mediators (if any) be measured at once. From the results, the link between a specific affective event and its affective response, followed by the corresponding fairness perception and subsequently work attitude, can be clearly determined

(Bledow et al., 2011). From the results, the criticality of various affective events could be discerned as well. This implication of such findings would be useful because not all events would have equal impact on employees' perceptions of fairness and work attitudes (Bledow et al., 2011). For instance, based on a survey conducted among the employees of two MNC offices, Farndale (2017) reported positive correlations (r = 0.229**) between supporting acts of supervisors and work engagement for the UK group, but insignificant correlation (r = 0.17; ns) was found for the Indian group. Moreover, the inclusion of affective event to the model testing could affirm the causality of the model without collecting multiple sets of data, as the research design would control the sequence of independent and dependent variables, thereby minimising the possibility of alternative explanations of the direction of causality (Bledow et al., 2011). A note to go along with this recommendation, additional work is needed to modify the fairness scale to ensure that the fairness assessment is accurate and corresponds to the specific affective events.

10.9.2 Methodological improvements

To strengthen methodology, future research could interview both supervisors and workers on fairness, interpersonal relationship and PM system experience. Such a measure of perspective-taking can provide additional insights into fairness perception, acceptability of PM system and leader–subordinate relationship.

For the current study, negative emotions are represented by single item in the SEM analyses. Although the question item is theory-based, the reliability and the validity of single item is often difficult to demonstrate (Petrescu, 2013) and subjected to more severe common method bias (Wegge, Van Dick, Fisher, West, & Dawson, 2006). To overcome this limitation, future studies can include additional items such as

action motivation to measure emotions. Following Roseman's appraisal theory (Roseman, 2001), different discrete emotions are related to different motivational states. For instance, sadness is associated with "stop moving towards it" and anger with "move against it". Accordingly, an additional question can be included to ask about the respondent's intended action following the emotion intensity question.

The recommendation of multiple items to measure emotion may shed more lights in defining the feeling of *acquiescence* identified in the qualitative phase, whereby various aspects could be assessed. As described in Chapters 6 and 9, the feeling of *acquiescence* in the current study differs slightly from the established academic definition (Pinder & Harlos, 2001); it carried the connotative meaning of helplessness and accepting what was given by management, supervisors or even fate/God. Considering that the feeling *acquiescence* is found repeatedly having significant relationships with other constructs, it is worthwhile to conduct more investigation such as the abovementioned recommendations to better understand this culturally-unique feeling.

The analyses of Model 2 might have over simplified the experiencing of human emotions as emotional blends (multiple feelings of the same valance) or mixed feelings (multiple feelings of opposite valences) are frequently experienced (Diener & Iran-Nejad, 1986; Russell, 2003; Watson & Stanton, 2017). During such circumstances, the discrete emotions interact with each other and cause different motivational and behavioural outcomes (Diener & Iran-Nejad, 1986). Henceforth, to simulate a more realistic scenario, the researcher suggests analysing the emotions simultaneously to understand more about the relationships among the emotions, perception of fairness and work attitudes. This is particularly warranted for emotional blends scenario as the correlations among the emotions of the same valence tend to be

strong (Diener & Iran-Nejad, 1986; Watson & Stanton, 2017). By controlling for confounders, incorporating all covariates into an analysis could reveal the unique variance of a predictor variable contributing to the variance of a criterion variable (Hair et al., 2010). Using Model 2 as an illustration, this way of analysis would reflect the unique causal effect of a specific emotion on the three work attitudes (via perception of fairness) amidst experiencing emotional blends.

As discussed in the previous section, the data of **Accpt** and **Fair** demonstrated the characteristic of a restricted range. To gather a wider range of data, a reasonable approach could be using more reversed questions in the questionnaire. To go one step further, researchers may conduct experiments to carefully manipulate the conditions so that a wide range of data of the predictor and criterion variables could be collected (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Subsequently, the findings from an experiment could be used to cross-validate the findings derived from the field data.

The rough classification of PM characteristics done in Chapter 7 suggests that the characteristics of a PM system might have caused the difference in the workers' perceptions of fairness. The finding in Sumelius et al. (2014) provides support to this post hoc analysis, in which company practices, especially PM system could influence the employees' perceptions of distributive and procedural justice. However, in the current study, limited features of PM system were reported from the interviews with the HR practitioners and the managers of the participating organisations. Only simple comparison between groups could be done. Future research might examine more characteristics of a PM system such as transparency, formalisation of rules and regulations (Özşahin & Yürür, 2018; Schminke, Cropanzano, & Rupp, 2002), and how these characteristics correlate with workers' perceptions of fairness.

10.9.3 Improving PM system in Malaysia

Turning to the recommendations developed from affective event findings, the qualitative study has identified several characteristics of giving performance feedback and added knowledge to the literature of performance feedback, compared to performance feedback literature (e.g., Baron, 1988; Mitchell, 2010a). The characteristics identified are approachability and politeness of raters, willingness to listen, clarity of explanation, prompt update of process changes and performance status quo. The appraisal and interpretation of the events in terms of these characteristics is important because it informs us about the elicitation mechanism of emotions beyond the event itself (Lazarus, 1991; Mitchell, 2010a). Future research could investigate how these characteristics correlate to the acceptance of the feedback and other work behaviours.

Using the affective events found from the current study, the researcher proposes a conceptual model which incorporates affective events at various PM phases. The model aims to provide an overview to supervisors (raters) as to how their behaviours are associated with different PM phases and alert them to affective reactions from their ratees. Figure 24 depicts the proposed conceptual model. This model can be included in the emotional management program suggested in the section Practical Implications. As an illustration of this proposal, the affective event "Supervisor uses professional verbal" could be used as a scenario in anger management.

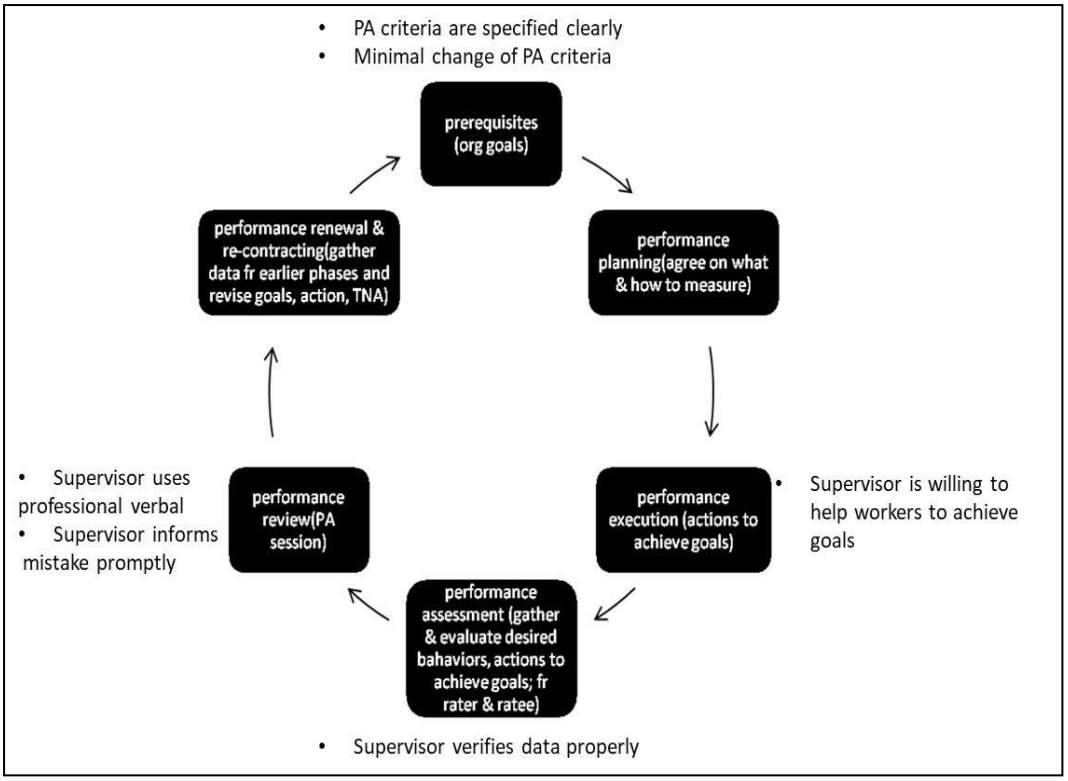


Figure 24. Proposed conceptual model of incorporating affective events to PM phases. Aguinis's 6-phase PM cycle (Aguinis, 2011) is used as an example in this diagram

10.10 Conclusions

Despite decades of research and practice, dissatisfaction with PM system is at an all-time high. Organisations are modifying their PM systems, even eliminating performance ratings. Other than the complaints about labour, time and cost in operating the system, employees' attitudes towards PM system is detrimental to the success of the system (Jawahar, 2007; Levy & Williams, 2004). In the current study, it is hypothesised that the employees' psychological reactions towards the PM system is related to their work attitudes, as proposed by the AET framework. Built upon the organisational justice theory, perception of fairness is integrated to the AET model. As a result, the revised AET model consists of multicomponents of affective and cognitive to explain the relationship between negative emotions and work attitudes.

The study involved 345 Malaysian general workers in the manufacturing sector. Mixed methods approach of interview and survey was employed to acquire data from the workers. The findings from the qualitative phase successfully answered the first and second research objectives. Using content analysis, twelve negative affective event categories and the associated emotions were identified. Subsequently, 10 major emotions were included in the survey questionnaire in the quantitative study. The questionnaire data were used to test the twelve hypotheses that derived from the research objectives three, four and five. The results of the hypotheses, which specified as Models 1 and 2 in the SEM analysis, basically supported the propositions of the revised AET model regarding the relationships between negative emotions, perception of fairness and the three work attitudes.

The mixed methodologies of interviews and a questionnaire survey has provided a comprehensive view on how the 10 major negative emotions are associated with PM system and predict the Malaysian general workers' perceptions of fairness, and subsequently influence their acceptance of PM systems, work engagement and turnover intentions. In summary, negative emotions predict how well the workers accept the PM system, their levels of work engagement and intentions to resign from the companies. The stronger the workers feel negatively about the PM system, the less they will accept the system, the less they will engage with their work and the more they are likely to quit. In addition, the workers' perceptions of fairness about the PM systems fully explain the relationships between negative emotions and acceptance of PM system and turnover intention, but partially explain the relationship between negative emotions and work engagement. Indirectly, the findings have revealed that enhancing organisational fairness can mitigate the impact of negative emotions. When analysing the discrete emotions individually, fewer negative

emotions have been shown to predict the workers' work engagement which could have been prevailed over by the positive psychological nature of this construct (Macey & Schneider, 2008; Schaufeli et al., 2002).

The findings of the current study certainly have added supporting empirical evidence to the link of emotion-work behaviour and the theoretical explanation on how emotions are mediated by perception of fairness could have influenced acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention. Clearly, the revised AET model proposed in the current study has affirmed the multicomponent approach to explain the relationship between emotions and work attitudes, and thus has broadened the scope of the AET model. Following that, the thesis highlights new directions for future research in the field. Methodological issues such as employing data triangulation, focusing on discrete emotions and collecting views from workers (including the management staff) are emphasised as worthwhile considerations for future research.

Lastly, a set of recommendations for organisations is proposed. Using the list of affective events and associated emotions can be made the first step to raise awareness of workplace affects among the management and employees. Then, more systematic training on the soft skills for supervisors may follow. Specifically, supervisors are recommended to consider the importance of providing clearer explanation and using more encouraging words during PA sessions, especially with the poor performers. The management may go a step further by institutionalising the relevant findings from the current study in their training manuals, for example the revised personal goals must be acknowledged by the workers. It is hoped that the current thesis has provided useful insights regarding workplace affects that would

benefit both researchers and practitioners on fostering healthy psychological well-being among the workers.

10.11 Personal reflection

Reflecting on the experiences of this thesis, it is realised that I am reflecting on my personal journey into the realm of scientific research. Like any journey, some of the most memorable experiences come from side trips that take us out of our comfort zones, challenging our perspectives and problems-solving skills. My perspectives about the research topic have evolved as I encountered and solved various research problems and my knowledge about the topic continually being updated.

When I first embarked on the journey of PhD, my research aim was as layman as it sounded – to correlate workers' emotional responses towards PM systems and their subsequent work attitudes. The setting of the research aim was purely based on my employment experiences in manufacturing industries. Soon, I realised that my extensive work experiences could not bring me further in my research. Being ignorant on how to do a proper literature review, I was unable to formulate proper research questions and objectives and to identify a theoretical framework. For months I had been reading journal articles and materials that did not contribute directly to my research because I was unclear about my research framework. Eventually, after reviewing the literature critically, I selected the AET model as the main theoretical framework as it linked affective events, emotions and attitudes in work settings- the variables that I intended to study. The reading became more focus and spot-on since then. Additional literature review also revealed the viability of incorporating organisational justice to the AET model. I was motivated to learn about this and eagerly included the variable in the framework because according to my observations,

lower rank workers tended to feel unfairly treated when management implemented new or revised policies. Consequently, a revised AET model that included workers' perceptions of fairness (as the mediator) was proposed in this study. However, everything was still theoretical at that time. Therefore, I was not confident about the revised model and the hypotheses, worrying that they were merely my misapprehension.

Another phase of perspective change happened during the refinement of the methodology, gathering of field data and analysis of the data. As a graduate in engineering, I was a complete novice researcher in the social science discipline. To acquire the necessary knowledge and skills in research methodology, I had to learn from scratch i.e., reading up text books vigorously and attending workshops. As an outcome of the learning, I underwent a paradigm shift about the claims of knowledge, from embracing objectivity and absolute to appreciating subjectivity and interpretation. Following that, qualitative methodology was added to the first phase of my study to maximise the methodological advantages from both quantitative and qualitative designs.

Moving on to the data collection, I proceeded with great cautiousness as it was my first experience dealing with human subjects. I followed the research protocol and prescribed methodologies diligently in conducting the interviews, the survey and later the analysis of data. An issue which I grappled with during the qualitative phase was my prior knowledge about general workers and PM systems in manufacturing industries. Having worked with the subject work group for over 15 years meant that I already had an informed idea of the topical areas. I constantly cautioned myself about experimenter's bias in interpreting the participants' feedback. To mitigate this

problem, seven other coders were invited to verify the coding procedures. As a result of various gatekeeping steps, I was more confident about my findings.

The final phase was the time for results discussions, conclusions, recommendations and linking different parts of my thesis work and refinement of the whole process. I reflected on, evaluated and proposed implications for the study. In general, the findings from this study affirmed my observations during my employments in the manufacturing industries, specifically for the connections between the general workers' affective responses and the three studied work attitudes. I was delighted to see that the hypotheses that initiated from my work experiences were supported by the data collected through scientific research methods. This study illustrates how we could use book knowledge to help us to understand real-life work issues and subsequently to suggest solutions. If I were to return to work in the manufacturing industries, I would be more sensitive with my words and behaviours especially during PA sessions. Nevertheless, the findings have shown that some negative affects (i.e., acquiescence and envy) were not easily revealed among the workers.

Additionally, the quantitative findings had highlighted the influence of workers' fairness perceptions on their work attitudes, especially distributive and interactional justices. In fact, the significance of workers' fairness perceptions was first noticed in the earlier qualitative phase, as indicated by the extensive comparisons to various groups among the workers. It was postulated that such social comparisons had complicated the workers' perceptions of fairness. Relating back to my previous work experiences, my perspective about workers' tendencies towards company policies was enriched. However, limited by the scope of this study, the role of social comparison in workers' perceptions of fairness was only briefly discussed. A

qualitative analysis using grounded theory or thematic analysis would be viable to reveal more information on this aspect.

As I am finally about to close a chapter of my life-long learning journey, I can now look back and realise that these challenges have prepared me as a qualified researcher. I feel much more confident in my research and problem solving skills and my ability to think critically.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A
Documents used in the qualitative phase

Interview guide

The purposes of questions are

- *(a) to initiate conservation*
- *(b) to probe for more information from different dimensions*
- *(c) to stay on track with research topic, i.e., perception of PM and related emotions*
- *(d) to assist respondents to relate to own experiences*

Q: could you please describe the PM system in your organisation? How Management inform you of your performance?

Q: please explain what is meant by "performance management" to you?

Q: what is the role of PM, in an organisation to you?

Q: the team performance is calculated monthly; do you monitor the results monthly?

Q: can you talk about your latest experience of PA?

Q: can you share with me the latest face-to-face appraisal session with your supervisor (yearend or any negative or positive cases)?

Q: can you talk about your most memorable PA experience? What made it so memorable?

Q: for you, which evaluation criteria are the most difficult to score? IPI? UPL? Customer complaint?

Q: what are the good practises you like about the PM system in this company? what are the bad practices you do not like about the PM system in this company?

Q: do you feel that PA results can make an impact to your career? To your personal life? Can you give an example? Can you elaborate?

Q: there have been some changes with the PA system in [organisation name]. Among the changes, can you describe to me a change which is significant to you? What was your response to it?

Q: What is your perception about the employees' sentiment towards PA in this organisation?

Q: do you feel that there are issues you wish [organisation name] should look into immediately?

note to interviewer :

(a) *respect, value and take note of the information which respondents wish to share although they are not answers to questions listed above*

(b) *not necessary to complete all questions, if conditions do not permit*

(c) *stay at emotion level*

Interview information sheet for general workers

1. Objective of this interview

   The objective of this interview is to explore the employees' perceptions about performance appraisal in his/her company

2. What is research is about and its importance?

   The objectives of the research are

   (a) explore practices and issues in performance appraisal in the manufacturing industry in Malaysia

   (b) explore the meanings and attitudes towards performance appraisal from the perspective of both the general workers and management

   The significance of this research is

   (a) There has not been much research done on perception of performance appraisal among factory workers of manufacturing industry in Malaysia. This study can fill the gap in this occupational psychology research field
   (b) Able to provide useful information to manufacturing or assembly factories to consider the "perception" factors in designing performance appraisal system for general workers

3. Why interview respondent is selected?
   - Have experienced in PA
   - Has shown interest to share own opinions with others
4. This participation is voluntary

   Participation is strictly voluntary and you may refuse to participate at any time

5. Respondent will not be identified

   Please be rest assured that the information you have provided me will be kept confidential. The information will be anonymised when it is entered into the computer/software and the data analysis will be conducted at an aggregated level

Participant consent form

Research title: Negative Events and Work Attitudes among the General Workers: the Role of Emotion and Perceived Fairness

Researcher's name: Hoh Chin Chin

Supervisor's name: Dr. Marshall Valencia; Dr Carol Hooi

- I have read the Participant Information Sheet and the nature and purpose of the research project has been explained to me. I understand and agree to take part.
- I understand the purpose of the research project and my involvement in it.
- I understand that I may withdraw from the research project at any stage and this will not affect my status now or in the future.
- I understand that while information gained during the study may be published. I will not be identified and my personal data will remain confidential.
- I understand that I will be audiotaped / videotaped during the interview.
- I understand that data will be stored in the form of transcription (hard and soft copy) and audio/video format. The data will be kept in Researcher's personal computer. Only the Researcher and the Supervisor have access to the data
- I understand that I may contact the Researcher or Supervisor if I require further information about the research, and that I may contact the Faculty of Arts and Social Science Research Ethics Committee, University of Nottingham Malaysia Campus, if I wish to make a complaint relating to my involvement in the research.

- **Signed** …… (research participant)
- **Print name** …… **Date** ……
- **Contact details**

- Researcher: Ms Hoh Chin Chin (kscx2hch@nottingham.edu.my)
- Supervisor: Dr Marshall Valencia (ksczmav@exmail.nottingham.edu.my)
- Dr Carol Hooi (Carol.Hooi@nottingham.edu.my)

- Faculty of Arts and Social Science Research Ethics Committee (FASSResearchEthics@nottingham.edu.my)

Appendix B
Documents and questionnaires used in the quantitative phase

Email to organisations to invite participation in the study

The University of Nottingham
UNITED KINGDOM · CHINA · MALAYSIA

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am a doctoral candidate at the Division of Applied Psychology at University of Nottingham-Malaysia campus. I am writing to invite your Organisation to participate in my dissertation research project. This project examines the relationships among the negative emotions associated with performance management system and work attitudes. The employees' perception of fairness will also be tested in these relationships.

The paragraphs below briefly explain this research, the profile of participants, how data will be collected and analysed, and confidentiality issues of participation. The specific information sheets and forms will be forwarded for your perusal upon your request.

I would greatly appreciate your permission to allow me to collect data from your employees in order to fulfill the objective of my dissertation research project.

Please feel free to contact me should you have any questions via email at kscx2hch@nottingham.edu.my

Many Thanks in advance!

Sincerely,

(Ms) Hoh, Chin Chin

Supervisors: Dr. Marshall Valencia (marshall.valencia@nottingham.edu.my)

Dr. Carol Hooi (Carol.Hooi@nottingham.edu.my)

Briefing notes for organization representative or supervisor

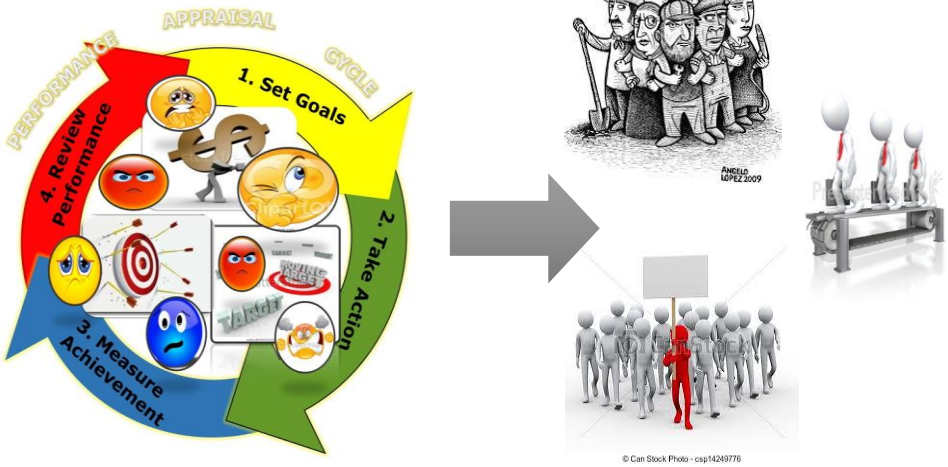
Note: The paper folding steps were simplified when questionnaires were administered by the researcher

Briefing document for Organisation Representative

Dear _____ Organisation _____ Date _____

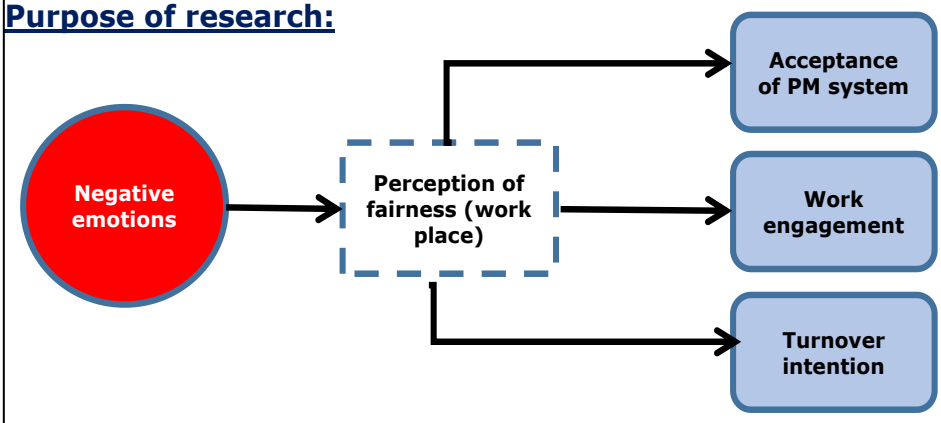
THANK YOU very much for taking part in this dissertation research and assisting me to administer the questionnaires in your Organisation!

Topic of research



- The topic is about negative emotions associated with performance management (PM) system and how they can influence work attitude or behaviour
- The focus work force is general workers of manufacturing industries in Malaysia

Purpose of research:



- to understand how negative emotions correlate to 3 work attitudes – acceptance of PM system, work engagement, and turnover intention. The role of perception of fairness in this correlation is also investigated

Importance of this research:

- There has not been much research done on how emotions affect work attitude among the general workers of manufacturing in Malaysia. Literature on how general workers perceive fairness is also lacking. This study can fill the gap in this occupational psychology research field

- The findings from this research can provide useful information to manufacturing or assembly factories in Malaysia when designing PM systems for their workers

How to collect data:

Timing to fill out form	Name of forms	purpose	Est. time to fill out (min)
Before PA with Supv (min. 1 day before)	1) participant consent	To obtain agreement to participate	5
	Note: divided into 2 sections 2a) participant demographics	To get participants' demographics	
	2b) PANAS	To collect affectivity baseline data of participants	
Complete PA with Supv	*Note: divided into 5 sections* *3a) Negative emotions*	To capture affective events; To capture intensity of emotion at specific moment	20
	3b) Perception of fairness	To assess perception of fairness	
	3c) Acceptance of PM	To assess level of acceptance of PM after PA with Supv	
	3d) UWES-9	To assess level of work engagement after PA with Supv	
	3e) turnover intention	To assess level of turnover intention after PA with Supv	

The participants:

Kindly select participants according to the following conditions

(a) Malaysian
(b) General workers (NOT supervising any subordinates; EXCLUDE technicians)
(c) Confirmed workers
(d) Had at least 1x performance appraised (EXCLUDE confirmation appraisal)

Number of participant required from this organisation: _____

Departments/Teams involved: _____

NOTE: *Please take note of the number of participants allocated for each team in order to let us know the number of sets of forms we expect to collect back from the Supervisors.*

Participation is voluntary:

Please make clear to participants that their participation is strictly voluntary and they may refuse to participate at any time.

Anonymity:

Names will not be written on the questionnaire. Date of birthday (DOB) plus your last 4-digit of your IC number is used as identification code.

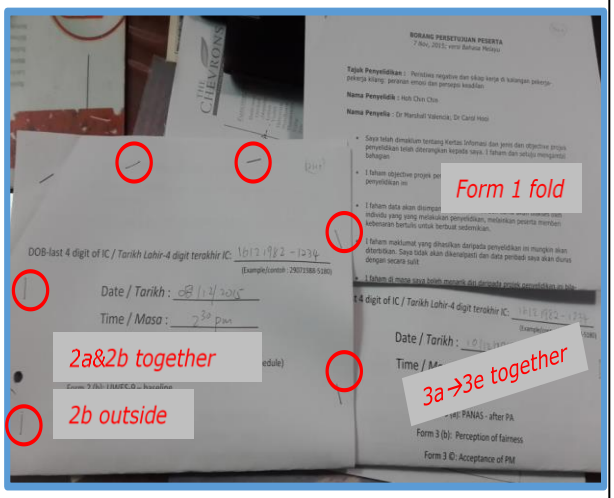
For example, a participant's DOB is 06th Jun, 1985 and her IC is 06061985-06-5142 Her identification code will be 06061985-5142 (see photo)

NOTE: *Using this identification code, the researcher is able to match the questionnaires filled out before and after the PA session, yet participants' data cannot be personally identified. On the other hand, the Consent Form records names of participants instead of DOB; therefore, the Consent Form will not be linked to your data.*

Confidentiality:

Upon completing the forms, kindly do the following: (see photo for example)

- Fold Form 1 into half
- Stack Forms 2a and 2b together, **with 2b facing outside** and fold them into half, then staple the papers 6 times (2 staplers each side)
- Stack Fold Form 3a to 3e together and fold them into half, then staple the papers 6 times (2 staplers each side)



The information will be anonymised when it is entered into the computer/software and the data analysis will be conducted at an aggregated level. Also, please note that the researcher will keep all those information confidential by saving in a password-protected computer

Upon collecting back all the forms, kindly contact the researcher for collection. If you have any questions about the research or research procedures, you may contact the researcher at kscx2hch@nottingham.edu.my)

Again, **thank you** very much for your effort, time, and cooperation!

Sincerely,

(Ms) Hoh, Chin Chin
Researcher
kscx2hch@nottingham.edu.my

Organisation consent form

University of Nottingham- Malaysia Campus
ORGANISATION CONSENT FORM

The University of Nottingham
UNITED KINGDOM · CHINA · MALAYSIA

Title of Research: Negative Events and Work Attitudes among the General Workers: the Role of Emotion and Perceived Fairness

Name of Researcher: Hoh Chin Chin
Name of Supervisors: Dr. Marshall Valencia; Dr Carol Hooi

Please tick to confirm your understanding of the study and that you are willing to let your organisation to take part and your facilities to be used to host parts of the research.

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information provided for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily. ☐

2. I understand that participation of our organisation and employees in the research is voluntary and that they are free to withdraw at any time, without giving a reason and that this will not affect legal rights. ☐

3. I understand that any personal information collected during the research will be anonymised and remain confidential. ☐

4. I agree for our organisation and employees to take part in the above study. ☐

Name of Org. Representative: Date: Signature:

Name of Researcher: Hoh Chin Chin Date: Signature:

Participant consent form

Note: the Malay version was distributed to the participants instead of the English version

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM
7 Nov, 2015; English version

Research title : Negative Events and Work Attitudes among the General Workers: the Role of Emotion and Perceived Fairness

Researcher's name : Hoh Chin Chin

Supervisor's name : Dr. Marshall Valencia; Dr Carol Hooi

- I have be briefed the Participant Information Sheet and the nature and purpose of the research project has been explained to me. I understand and agree to take part.
- I understand the purpose of the research project and my involvement in it.
- I understand that data will be stored securely and will be made available only to persons conducting the study unless participants specifically give permission in writing to do otherwise.
- I understand that while information gained during the study may be published. I will not be identified and my personal data will remain confidential.
- I understand that I may withdraw from the research project at any stage and this will not affect my status now or in the future.
- I understand that I may contact the Researcher or Supervisor if I require further information about the research, and that I may contact the Faculty of Arts and Social Science Research Ethics Committee, University of Nottingham_Malaysia Campus, if I wish to make a complaint relating to my involvement in the research.

Signed …… (research participant)

Print name …… **Date** ……

Contact details

Researcher: Ms Hoh Chin Chin (kscx2hch@nottingham.edu.my)

Supervisor: Dr Marshall Valencia (ksczmav@exmail.nottingham.edu.my)
Dr Carol Hooi (Carol.Hooi@nottingham.edu.my)

Faculty of Arts and Social Science Research Ethics Committee
(FASSResearchEthics@nottingham.edu.my)

Information and instructions to participations

Note: the Malay version was provided to the participants

To respected participants,

A big THANK YOU to your participation in this research! Your feedback is able to help me in achieving the purpose of this research and contribute to the knowledge of workplace psychology.

Topic of research

The topic is how emotions associated with performance management (PM) system relate to work attitudes

Objective of research

The objective of this research is to correlate emotions associated with PM system with the acceptance of PM system, work engagement and turnover intention of workers. The workers' perception of fairness will also be researched.

The importance of this research

There has not been much research done on how emotions affect work attitude among the general workers of manufacturing in Malaysia. The findings from this research can provide useful information to manufacturing or assembly factories in Malaysia when designing PM systems for their workers

Anonymity & confidentiality

Participation is strictly voluntary. You may refuse to participate at any time.
To ensure your anonymity, an identity code will be used. Your date of birth following with the last-four digit of your IC number will be used as your identity code.

After completing the questionnaire, please fold the forms into halves and "stapler" them (six "stapler" are recommended; two staplers on each side). Do not fold or "stapler" the consent form and demographics form. Please return all the forms to your Supervisors.

The researcher will keep all information confidential by saving in a personal computer restricted by password assess. Only aggregated results from all participants will be discussed. No individual will be identified if the results of this reach are to be published in the future.

THANK YOU!

Researcher: Hoh Chin Chin (kscx2hch@nottingham.edu.my)
Division of Applied Psychology- Faculty of Social Science
University of Nottingham- Malaysia campus

Demographics of participant

demographics of participant

RESEARCH TITLE: Negative Events and Work Attitudes among the General Workers: the Role of Emotion and Perceived Fairness

Demographics of participant

Please circle answer or write answers in boxes

NAME:			
AGE :		GENDER:	Male Female
RACE:		JOB TITLE:	
MARITAL STATUS:	Single Married Divorced Widow	NUMBER OF CHILDREN:	
YEARS OF SERVICE IN THIS COMPANY:		PREVIOUS WORK EXPERIENCE?	Yes No

Information above is meant to be used to contextualise answers provided by participants. Information will be kept confidential.

Thank You for Your Time to Take Part in This Research!

Negative emotion scale

During your PA, what were the negative events and your emotions?

1 Please briefly describe an incident happened during your performance appraisal with your Supervisor which has caused any negative emotion(s).

*pls write here*_____

_____

Base on the said event, please circle the intensity of your emotion(s) at that moment

no.	Level of intensity					
	Emotion	Very slightly or not at all	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	*Extremely*
1.	Resentful	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Angry	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Disappointed	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Inadequate	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Acquiescent	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Worried	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Frustrated	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Feeling of grievance	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Not appreciated	1	2	3	4	5
10.	*Sceptical*	1	2	3	4	5

Acceptance of PM system scale

Measure Acceptance of Performance Management System

The following questions assess the level of acceptance of performance management (PM) system of a worker. Please circle your stand about each scenario stated below

1 = strongly disagree
2 = disagree
3 = neither agree or disagree
4 = agree
5 = strongly agree

1. I understand the objectives of the performance management system	1	2	3	4	5
2. I understand the relevance of the appraisal criteria which I am being evaluated for	1	2	3	4	5
3. The outcomes of performance appraisal gives impact to my career	1	2	3	4	5
4. The PM system in my organisation is being operated well	1	2	3	4	5
5. I like how the PM system in my organisation is being planned and implemented	1	2	3	4	5
6. I want the performance management system to continue in my workplace	1	2	3	4	5
7. The guidelines, rules and regulations of the PM system is being communicated clearly to me	1	2	3	4	5
8. I trust my supervisor that he/she also supports the PM system	1	2	3	4	5

Work engagement scale

WORK ENGAGEMENT SCALE (UWES-9)

The following 9 statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. Kindly circle the number (from 0 to 6) to best describes how frequently you feel that way.

0 = Never
1 = Almost never
2 = Rarely
3 = Sometimes
4 = Often
5 = Very often
6 = Always

1. I am bursting with energy in my work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I feel strong and vigorous in my job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I am enthusiastic about my job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. My job inspires me.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I feel happy when I am engrossed in my work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I am proud of the work that I do	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I am immersed in my work	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I get carried away by my work	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

Turnover intention scale

Career planning questionnaire

The following 4 statements are about your career planning in this organisation. Please read each statement carefully and decide how you feel. Kindly circle the number (from 1 to 7) to best describes your situation.

1 = strongly disagree
2 = disagree
3 = somewhat disagree
4 = neutral
5 = somewhat agree
6 = agree
7 = strongly agree

1. I intend to look for a job outside of [company name] within the next year	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I intend to remain with this [company name] indefinitely	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I often think about quitting my job at [company name]	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I absolutely desire to get a new job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Perception of fairness scale

The Measurement of Perception of Fairness

(distributive, procedural and interactional justice)

The following questions assess the level of perceived fairness regarding performance management system of a worker. Please circle your stand about each scenario stated below

1 = strongly disagree
2 = disagree
3 = neither agree or disagree
4 = agree
5 = strongly agree

1. My performance appraisal result reflects the effort I have put into my work	1	2	3	4	5
2. My performance appraisal result is appropriate for the work I have completed	1	2	3	4	5
3. My performance appraisal result reflects what I have contributed	1	2	3	4	5
4. My performance appraisal result is justified, given by my performance	1	2	3	4	5
5. I have been able to express my views and feelings during the procedures of performance appraisal	1	2	3	4	5
6. I have had influence over my performance appraisal result arrived at by those procedures of performance appraisal	1	2	3	4	5
7. Those procedures of performance appraisal have been applied consistently	1	2	3	4	5
8. Those procedures of performance appraisal have been free of bias	1	2	3	4	5
9. Those procedures of have been based on accurate information	1	2	3	4	5

10. I have been able to appeal my performance appraisal result arrived at by those procedures of performance appraisal	1	2	3	4	5
11. Those procedures of performance appraisal have upheld ethical and moral standards	1	2	3	4	5
12. My Supervisor has treated me in a polite manner	1	2	3	4	5
13. My Supervisor has treated me with dignity	1	2	3	4	5
14. My Supervisor has treated me with respect	1	2	3	4	5
15. My Supervisor has refrained from improper remarks or comments	1	2	3	4	5
16. My Supervisor has been candid in his communication with me	1	2	3	4	5
17. My Supervisor has explained the procedures thoroughly	1	2	3	4	5
18. My Supervisor's explanations regarding the procedures were reasonable	1	2	3	4	5
19. My Supervisor has communicated details in a timely manner	1	2	3	4	5
20. My supervisor has seemed to tailor his communications to individuals' specific needs	1	2	3	4	5

Negative affectivity scale

The PANAS (Positive and Negative Affect Schedule)

This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then mark the appropriate answer in the space next to that word. Indicate to what extent **how you feel on the average**. Use the following scale to record your answers.

1 Very slightly or not at all;
2 a little;
3 moderately;
4 quite a bit;
5 extremely;

_____ irritable	_____ jittery
_____ distressed	_____ afraid
_____ ashamed	_____ upset
_____ nervous	_____ guilty
_____ scared	_____ hostile

THANK YOU! **TERIMA KASIH!**

Appendix C
Additional results from the qualitative phase

Table C1

The negative event categories and the corresponding event types and example quotes

No.	Event category & description	Negative event	Example quotes from participants
1.	Negative acts of management (Poor supervisory or leadership skills demonstrated by mostly supervisors)	Supervisor gives rude or unreasonable explanation	"May be the way of deliver the reprimand bit mistake. Use the right way lah..! Sometimes it was done in a rude way."
		Supervisor did not verify data properly	"…data error.. but when we fight back and request co-operation to re-check. (Supervisor) would say "Take it! Data are correct. Confirmed correct already". I have had several Supervisors; all the same!"
		I do what is told by my Supervisor, yet still not upgraded end of the year	
		Supervisor finds petty excuses not to upgrade me	
		Supervisor is being pushy to complete work	

No.	Event category & description	Negative event	Example quotes from participants
		Supervisor is unwilling to help	
		Supervisor does not keep his promises	"He said he wanted to help, but it did not seem that he intended to help at all! Only wanted to make us feel nice! (angry) Hm… that's it. I remember until now"
		Management is not willing to listen	S: "Not happy… but before this .. last year, past year, was the same! More of less the same! Even if we say something, it would still be the same; better keep quiet." A: "There would not be any change, even though we voice out."
		Supervisor is being nitpicking about my work quality	
		Supervisor plays favouritism	
		Supervisor is not clear about my work quality	
		Supervisor did not inform workers' mistakes promptly	
2.	Negative acts of co-workers	I have to bear other members' or other departments' mistakes	"…Especially senior is the one who makes the mistake… because we respect her as senior but she makes the mistake, so ..(showed disappointment). We only say it, but we don't

No.	Event category & description	Negative event	Example quotes from participants
	(Negative behavioural relationship among members of a work group)		argue!"
		My own mistake can jeopardise team performance	"When there is control, it's OK.. have to be careful lah.. if we get (mistake), the whole team will get it! It will be counted."
		Free riders in my team	
		Team members talk bad about me	
		I have to cover for team members due to insufficient output	
3.	Organisational policy restricted my reward	Senior workers do not get the benefits from minimum wage policy (specifically referred to 2013 Malaysia minimum wage of RM900 for private sectors employees)	"… It's the law. Comparing seniors and juniors, the juniors can over take the seniors. We started RM600. To get to RM900, how many years we need?"
		Management set a higher weightage on workers' mistakes	"… they add more negative points. It is worse lah! It becomes heavy, heavy lah! … so the 'boys' will feel more pressure lah!"
		Management restricted upgrading to control cost despite workers are qualified	
		I have reached the final grade--no more	

No.	Event category & description	Negative event	Example quotes from participants
		upgrading	
4.	Not satisfied with monetary reward	My work is more difficult than other workers, yet my monetary reward is less	"Really feel disappointed. .. For me, I have understood and mastered 'everything' in warehouse. Anything other guys want to do, they will confirm with me… So I have to bear all the risk because they confirm with me. But there is only little difference in salary!"
		I am not satisfied with my salary (or increment)	Interviewer:" You have been working for almost 10years. Which PA you remember the most? The best or the worst…" Participant: "Increment of 1%. The worst …"
		My effort is not commensurate with monetary reward	"Yes, I expected something. Because we have done something which saved the company 5-figure saving annually, I don't remember how much.. was only few ringgit. That's all I got!"
		I learnt that another worker comparable to me received (higher) increment	
		I have more work load than other workers, yet my monetary reward is less	
		My increment is less than other workers for a same upgrading	

No.	Event category & description	Negative event	Example quotes from participants
5.	Additional workload	Reduced scheduled man power	"… we are working badly.. with insufficient man power, but we still work. Why can't they give allowance, make it easier in this aspect? We feel more appreciated in our heart. Salary increment is only once a year, bonus also once a year. When manpower not enough, we work all force, we'll feel more appreciative. Not like when we get home, tired...we grumbled."
		Insufficient man power Team member on medical leave	"… it is liked if someone causes a problem, Hm, that's enough! It's tiring to entertain. We work hard, he goes on MC whenever he likes. After MC, take leave, emergency leave…"
		Team member on emergency leave	
		Workload changes according to production plan	
		Added responsibility	
6.	Problems with goal setting	Upgrading assessment criteria are difficult and getting more stringent	"… Now we have the Point system whereby everyone is looking for plus points. This is the problem. Base on my opinion, everyone feels that it is difficult to get points. Supervisor said 'must do extra work.' To us, we have done

No.	Event category & description	Negative event	Example quotes from participants
			extra work, but still difficult to get points."
		Team goals are getting more complicated or stringent	"… Before this, we did not have 6S (included in PA). Now, we have people come to audit 6S every month. We have lots of work, yet have to do 6S. It seems that there isn't enough time to do 6S and work."
7.	Others (Annual leave being rejected without valid reason)	Annual leave being rejected	"…For example unpaid leave... because we could only take by quarters, our annual leave is limited. During the same timing, if there is an emergency, we are force to take unpaid leave lah! That part is difficult."
	(No accountability between Departments) (Complaints)	My Supervisor says guidelines are decided HR Dept; HR Dept says it is up to Supervisor and Dept HOD's discretion -– no one looks into my case!	"... When I asked Supervisor, my Supervisor said it was because HR Manager. When asked HR, HR said check with your HOD. I did not know which one was correct."
	(PA not handled with confidentiality)	Complaints from high ranking staff PA is held in an open office where third party could hear the conversation	
	(Wrong data were used)	Electronic attendance data are wrong	

No.	Event category & description	Negative event	Example quotes from participants
8.	Failed to achieve goal or upgrade (depicts events when PA related goals were not achieved or failed to be upgraded to the next salary grade)	I did not get an upgrading as expected I put in effort but still can't achieve the goals Failing an examination I failed to achieve team or personal goal	"2014 PA was the one I remember the most because I did not get the upgrading as I expected. I felt disappointed because out of expectation." "… we follow up (the problem), we carry on work as good as possible, but no matter how good we do, still we make mistake. That's the reason we … give up."
9.	No standardisation among different supervisors or departments (different supervisors or departments managed same issue differently)	My Supervisor appraises me more stringently than other Supervisors My department PA practices are more stringent than other departments	"…different PA with different bosses… Some did not seem to get much pressure from PA. For us, we do have some pressure." "Even though points enough, didn't get it!? Department XXX Boss is really difficult (to get). Bosses from different departments are different."
10.	Not aware of the	I am not informed of the assessment	"In one year, ... he said 'like this , like this..' But when it's our time (for upgrading), HR said you were different (not

No.	Event category & description	Negative event	Example quotes from participants
	PA criteria	criteria change	meeting requirement). So, by that time, again could not get (upgrading)!"
		I could not understand the assessment criteria	Participant: "Even for bonus, some increased a lot; some did not get… Some (people) received little; some (people) received a lot!" Interviewer: "it depends on …" Participant: "Don't know."
		PA criteria are not specified clearly to me	
11.	Problems related to PA criteria content	Supervisor appraises me on tasks out of my job scope	"For me, if we really want to do a system like this, we must be clear about what a production assistant's job is, do not mix up with Technician's. Our work is only taking care of machines...don't mix up our work with other people's work"
		Frequent changes of PA criteria	
12.	External stressors	Shift schedule conflicts with family time	" … we have to consider many aspects. How will it be like at home? How will it be like at work? If unable to come out with a solution, (I will) feel angry"
		No one takes care of children	

Table C2

Negative events and the corresponding emotions

No.	Event category	Negative events	Emotions
1.	Negative acts of management	Supervisor gives rude or unreasonable explanation	Upset, angry, resentful
		Supervisor did not verify data properly	Resentful, angry
		I do what is told by my Supervisor, yet still not upgraded end of the year	Sceptical, discouraged
		Supervisor finds petty excuses not to upgrade me	Not appreciated
		Supervisors is being pushy to complete work	Annoyed
		Supervisor is unwilling to help	Sceptical, angry
		Supervisor does not keep his promises	Angry
		Management is not willing to listen	Apathetic
		Supervisor is being nitpicking about my work quality	Worried
		Supervisor plays favouritism	Resentful
		Supervisor is not clear about my work quality	Sceptical
		Supervisor did not informed workers' mistakes promptly	
2.	Negative acts of co-workers	I have to bear other members' or other departments' mistakes	Resentful, feeling of grievance
		My own mistake can jeopardise team performance	Fearful
		Free riders in my team	Resentful
		Team member talk bad about	Annoyed,

No.	Event category	Negative events	Emotions
		me	frustrated
		I have to cover for team members due to insufficient output	Scornful
3.	Organisational policy restricted my reward	Senior workers do not get the benefits from minimum wage policy	Resentful, envy, self-pity
		Management set a higher weightage on workers' mistakes	Sceptical
		Management restricted upgrading in order to control cost despite workers are qualified	Disappointed
		I have reached the final grade - no more upgrading	Discouraged, frustrated, self-pity
4.	Not satisfied with monetary reward	My work is more difficult than other workers, yet my monetary reward is less	Resentful, envy
		I am not satisfied with my salary (increment)	Disappointed, feeling of acquiescent, sad
		My effort is not commensurate with monetary reward	Disappointed, tired
		I learnt that another worker comparable to me received (higher) increment	Resentful
		I have more work load than other workers, yet my monetary reward is less	Resentful
		My increment is less than other workers for a same upgrading	Acquiescent, resentful, self-pity
5.	Additional workload	Reduced scheduled man power	Tired(physical)
		Insufficient man power	Not appreciated, tired(physical)

No.	Event category	Negative events	Emotions
		Team member on medical leave	Resentful
		Team member on emergency leave	Resentful
		Workload changes according to production plan	Tired(physical)
		Added responsibility	Fear, worried
6.	Problems with goal setting	Upgrading assessment criteria are difficult and getting more stringent	Inadequate, worried
		Team goals are getting more complicated or stringent	Tired(physical)
7.	Others	Annual leave being rejected	Resentful
		My Supervisor says guidelines are decided HR Dept; HR Dept says it is up to Supervisor and Dept HOD's discretion – no one looks into my case!	Angry
		Complaints from high ranking staff	Fear
		PA is held in an open office where 3rd party could hear the conversation	Insecure
		Electronic attendance data are wrong	Confused, shocked
8.	Failed to achieve goal or upgrade	I did not get an upgrading as expected	Worried, inadequate, disappointed
		I put in effort but still can’t achieve the goals	Frustrated, inadequate, helpless
		Failing an examination	Worried
		I failed to achieve team or personal goal	Worried

No.	Event category	Negative events	Emotions
9.	No standardisation among different supervisors or departments	My Supervisor appraises me more stringently than other Supervisors My department PA practices are more stringent than other departments	Disappointed Acquiescent
10.	Not aware of the PA criteria	I am not informed of the assessment criteria change I could not understand the assessment criteria PA criteria are not specified clearly to me	Frustrated Confused, resentful Disappointed
11.	Problems related to PA criteria content	Supervisor appraises me on tasks out of my job scope Frequent changes of PA criteria	Frustrated Helpless, discouraged
12.	External stressors	Shift schedule conflicts with family time No one takes care of children	Tired(physical) Worried

Appendix D
SPSS output the PCA of negative emotions

Correlation Matrix[a]

		res	ang	dsp	ina	acq	wor	fru	grv	notA	sce
Correlation	res	1.000	.871	.801	.675	.499	.518	.754	.635	.693	.639
	ang	.871	1.000	.795	.652	.469	.555	.769	.673	.741	.654
	dsp	.801	.795	1.000	.716	.587	.668	.878	.737	.841	.782
	ina	.675	.652	.716	1.000	.615	.758	.744	.728	.656	.704
	acq	.499	.469	.587	.615	1.000	.626	.642	.616	.563	.590
	wor	.518	.555	.668	.758	.626	1.000	.710	.665	.604	.681
	fru	.754	.769	.878	.744	.642	.710	1.000	.793	.848	.819
	grv	.635	.673	.737	.728	.616	.665	.793	1.000	.747	.806
	notA	.693	.741	.841	.656	.563	.604	.848	.747	1.000	.760
	sce	.639	.654	.782	.704	.590	.681	.819	.806	.760	1.000

a. Determinant = 2.10E-005

KMO and Barlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.932
Barlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1312.168
	df	45
	Sig.	.000

Anti-image matrices

res	ang	dsp	ina	acq	wor	fru	grv	notA	sce
.871[a]	-.633	-.286	-.241	-.092	.226	-.072	.067	.129	.006
-.633	.899[a]	-.058	.041	.146	-.090	-.070	-.129	-.178	.068
-.286	-.058	.943[a]	.006	.001	-.126	-.296	.063	-.313	-.150
-.241	.041	.006	.936[a]	-.088	-.434	-.042	-.199	.021	-.041
-.092	.146	.001	-.088	.962[a]	-.212	-.134	-.139	-.034	.008
.226	-.090	-.126	-.434	-.212	.915[a]	-.137	-.008	.098	-.111
-.072	-.070	-.296	-.042	-.134	-.137	.952[a]	-.119	-.289	-.196
.067	-.129	.063	-.199	-.139	-.008	-.119	.948[a]	-.137	-.369
.129	-.178	-.313	.021	-.034	.098	-.289	-.137	.946[a]	-.091
.006	.068	-.150	-.041	.008	-.111	-.196	-.369	-.091	.954[a]

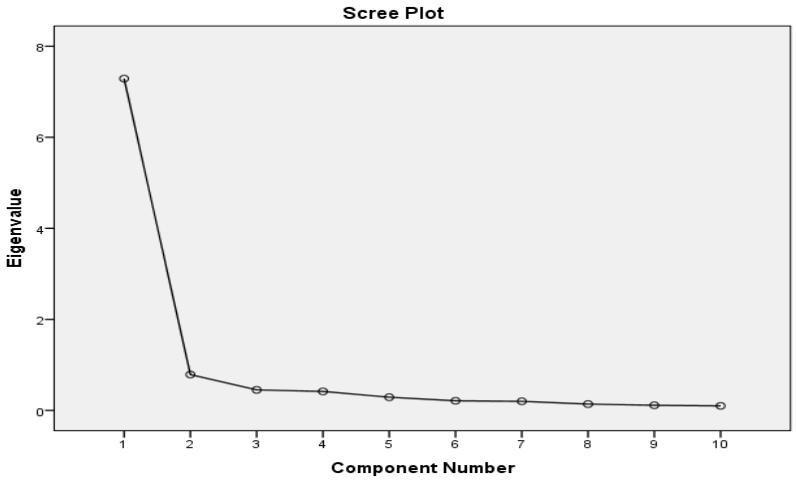
Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.958	.958	10

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	7.288	72.882	72.882	7.288	72.882	72.882
2	.788	7.884	80.766			
3	.451	4.511	85.277			
4	.418	4.176	89.453			
5	.290	2.903	92.355			
6	.212	2.117	94.472			
7	.200	2.001	96.473			
8	.139	1.393	97.866			
9	.113	1.134	99.000			
10	.100	1.000	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.



Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
res	1.000	.694
ang	1.000	.714
dsp	1.000	.846
ina	1.000	.720
acq	1.000	.516
wor	1.000	.627
fru	1.000	.878
grv	1.000	.756
notA	1.000	.772
sce	1.000	.765

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Appendix E
SPSS output for the PAF of acceptance of PM system

Correlation Matrix[a]

		a1	a2	a3	a4	a5	a6	a7	a8
Correlation	a1	1.000	.632	.336	.519	.508	.561	.519	.590
	a2	.632	1.000	.340	.628	.587	.512	.505	.496
	a3	.336	.340	1.000	.255	.258	.354	.090	.253
	a4	.519	.628	.255	1.000	.752	.547	.533	.475
	a5	.508	.587	.258	.752	1.000	.710	.464	.357
	a6	.561	.512	.354	.547	.710	1.000	.460	.419
	a7	.519	.505	.090	.533	.464	.460	1.000	.632
	a8	.590	.496	.253	.475	.357	.419	.632	1.000

a. Determinant = .015

KMO and Barlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.844
Barlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	521.117
	df	28
	Sig.	.000

Anti-image Matrices

	a1	a2	a3	a4	a5	a6	a7	a8
Anti-image Correlation	.895[a]	-.311	-.098	-.003	-.020	-.200	-.076	-.282
	-.311	.909[a]	-.154	-.219	-.132	.023	-.109	-.054
	-.098	-.154	.794[a]	-.039	.053	-.203	.230	-.115
	-.003	-.219	-.039	.841[a]	-.547	.102	-.143	-.140
	-.020	-.132	.053	-.547	.775[a]	-.508	-.028	.164
	-.200	.023	-.203	.102	-.508	.838[a]	-.115	-.054
	-.076	-.109	.230	-.143	-.028	-.115	.851[a]	-.429
	-.282	-.054	-.115	-.140	.164	-.054	-.429	.828[a]

a. Measures of Sampling Adequacy(MSA)

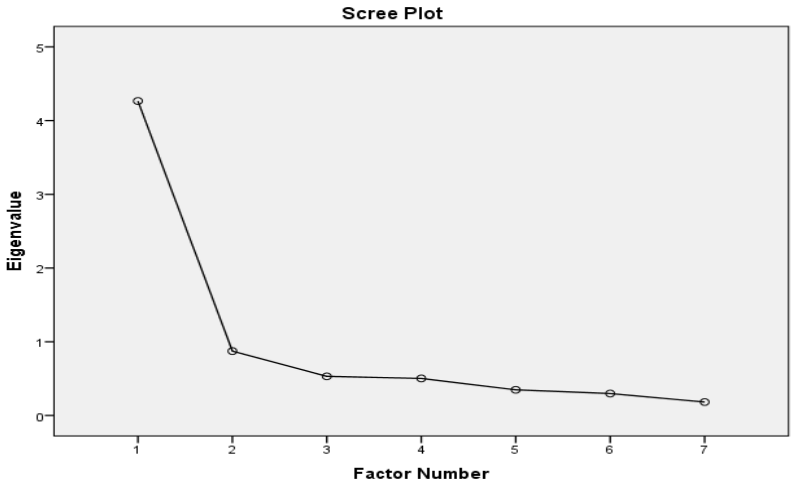
Reliability Statistics (without item a3)

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.890	.893	7

Total Variance Explained (removed a3)

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.266	60.942	60.942	3.819	54.550	54.550
2	.874	12.480	73.421			
3	.531	7.579	81.001			
4	.502	7.176	88.176			
5	.348	4.970	93.146			
6	.297	4.248	97.394			
7	.182	2.606	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.



Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
a1	.547	.564
a2	.542	.586
a4	.649	.631
a5	.706	.604
a6	.568	.529
a7	.490	.477
a8	.513	.428

Extraction Method:
Principal Axis Factoring.

Appendix F
SPSS output for the PCA of work engagement

Correlation Matrix[a]

	v1	v2	de1	de2	v3	ab1	de3	ab2	ab3
Correla	1.000	.853	.759	.540	.533	.631	.601	.634	.518
tion	.853	1.000	.862	.649	.622	.627	.593	.642	.514
	.759	.862	1.000	.678	.663	.622	.612	.630	.444
	.540	.649	.678	1.000	.681	.556	.611	.591	.542
	.533	.622	.663	.681	1.000	.569	.490	.564	.535
	.631	.627	.622	.556	.569	1.000	.759	.675	.402
	.601	.593	.612	.611	.490	.759	1.000	.664	.453
	.634	.642	.630	.591	.564	.675	.664	1.000	.520
	.518	.514	.444	.542	.535	.402	.453	.520	1.000

a. Determinant = .001

KMO and Barlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.896
Barlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	896.270
	df	36
	Sig.	.000

Anti-image Matrices

	v1	v2	de1	de2	v3	ab1	de3	ab2	ab3
Anti-image	.889[a]	-.551	-.097	.169	.081	-.126	-.080	-.093	-.186
Correlation	-.551	.860[a]	-.513	-.134	-.016	-.042	.087	-.033	-.068
	-.097	-.513	.897[a]	-.171	-.235	.023	-.113	-.051	.196
	.169	-.134	-.171	.915[a]	-.310	.048	-.244	-.066	-.192
	.081	-.016	-.235	-.310	.901[a]	-.225	.171	-.065	-.242
	-.126	-.042	.023	.048	-.225	.885[a]	-.502	-.218	.136
	-.080	.087	-.113	-.244	.171	-.502	.877[a]	-.180	-.094
	-.093	-.033	-.051	-.066	-.065	-.218	-.180	.959[a]	-.168
	-.186	-.068	.196	-.192	-.242	.136	-.094	-.168	.895[a]

a. Measures of Sampling Adequacy(MSA)

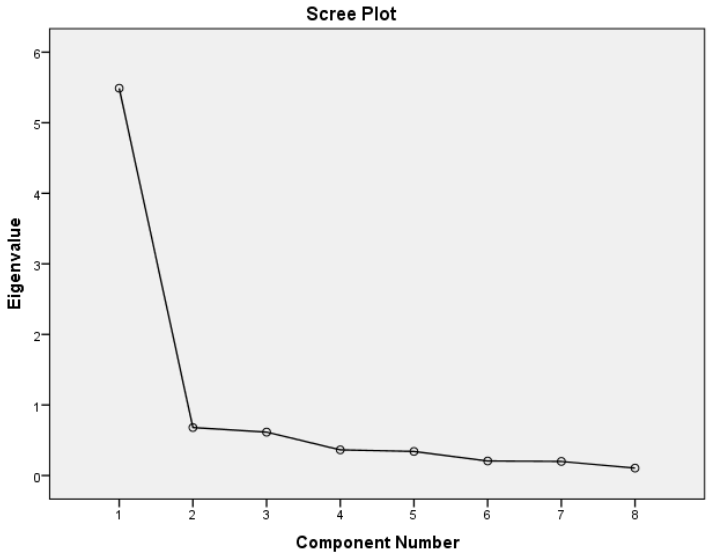
Reliability Statistics (removed ab3)

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.931	.934	8

Total Variance Explained (after removed ab3)

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.489	68.614	68.614	5.489	68.614	68.614
2	.680	8.500	77.114			
3	.615	7.689	84.803			
4	.364	4.549	89.352			
5	.341	4.266	93.618			
6	.206	2.577	96.195			
7	.199	2.492	98.687			
8	.105	1.313	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.



Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
v1	1.000	.711
v2	1.000	.790
de1	1.000	.782
de2	1.000	.637
v3	1.000	.591
ab1	1.000	.672
de3	1.000	.644
ab2	1.000	.663

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Appendix G
SPSS output for the PAF of turnover intention

Correlation Matrix[a]

		t1	t2_re	t3	t4
Correlation	t1	1.000	.585	.733	.824
	t2_re	.585	1.000	.551	.663
	t3	.733	.551	1.000	.761
	t4	.824	.663	.761	1.000

a. Determinant = .068

KMO and Barlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.821
Barlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	329.443
	df	6
	Sig.	.000

Anti-image Matrices

	t1	t2_re	t3	t4
Anti-image Correlation	.804[a]	-.066	-.281	-.544
	-.066	.896[a]	-.074	-.340
	-.281	-.074	.870[a]	-.356
	-.544	-.340	-.356	.759[a]

a. Measures of Sampling Adequacy(MSA)

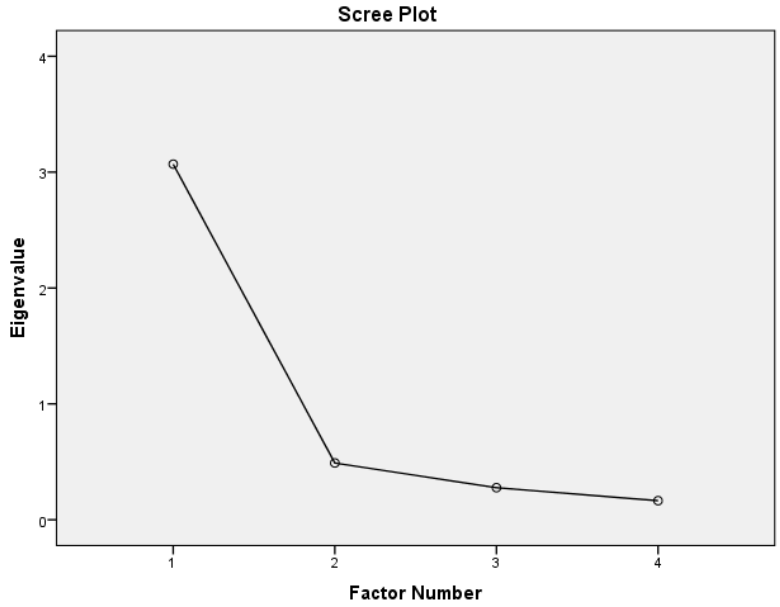
Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.896	.895	4

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.069	76.726	76.726	2.795	69.865	69.865
2	.490	12.244	88.970			
3	.277	6.916	95.886			
4	.165	4.114	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.



Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
t1	.707	.770
t2_re	.447	.466
t3	.616	.667
t4	.764	.891

Extraction Method:
Principal Axis Factoring.

Appendix H

SPSS output for the PCA of perception of fairness

Correlation Matrix[a] Determinant = 1.52E-007

		d1	d2	d3	d4	p1	p2	p3	p4	p5	p6	p7	it1	it2	it3	it4	if1	if2	if3	if4	if5
Correlation	d1	1.00	.640	.519	.622	.439	.324	.505	.618	.620	.253	.639	.284	.325	.387	.248	.364	.487	.514	.409	.476
	d2	.640	1.00	.687	.748	.514	.434	.542	.730	.663	.311	.581	.410	.413	.348	.241	.386	.466	.488	.396	.364
	d3	.519	.687	1.00	.769	.507	.414	.515	.638	.518	.309	.546	.449	.346	.352	.369	.355	.444	.394	.242	.330
	d4	.622	.748	.769	1.00	.544	.539	.621	.733	.584	.311	.641	.358	.266	.329	.319	.364	.325	.400	.328	.320
	p1	.439	.514	.507	.544	1.00	.469	.598	.562	.496	.308	.578	.350	.376	.394	.300	.301	.455	.541	.335	.390
	p2	.324	.434	.414	.539	.469	1.00	.445	.446	.363	.202	.440	.185	.121	.206	.051	.133	.225	.364	.242	.257
	p3	.505	.542	.515	.621	.598	.445	1.00	.722	.609	.292	.553	.322	.316	.321	.202	.324	.349	.434	.336	.282
	p4	.618	.730	.638	.733	.562	.446	.722	1.00	.692	.393	.668	.351	.327	.411	.305	.362	.408	.466	.355	.385
	p5	.620	.663	.518	.584	.496	.363	.609	.692	1.00	.186	.571	.263	.304	.357	.196	.355	.404	.475	.359	.306
	p6	.253	.311	.309	.311	.308	.202	.292	.393	.186	1.00	.392	.141	.217	.230	.268	.161	.312	.271	.197	.274
	p7	.639	.581	.546	.641	.578	.440	.553	.668	.571	.392	1.00	.436	.455	.496	.388	.505	.498	.488	.434	.410
	it1	.284	.410	.449	.358	.350	.185	.322	.351	.263	.141	.436	1.00	.821	.746	.566	.540	.629	.482	.408	.412
	it2	.325	.413	.346	.266	.376	.121	.316	.327	.304	.217	.455	.821	1.00	.826	.606	.627	.647	.518	.401	.510
	it3	.387	.348	.352	.329	.394	.206	.321	.411	.357	.230	.496	.746	.826	1.00	.599	.490	.656	.583	.417	.607
	it4	.248	.241	.369	.319	.300	.051	.202	.305	.196	.268	.388	.566	.606	.599	1.00	.483	.508	.360	.241	.434
	if1	.364	.386	.355	.364	.301	.133	.324	.362	.355	.161	.505	.540	.627	.490	.483	1.00	.499	.553	.529	.375
	if2	.487	.466	.444	.325	.455	.225	.349	.408	.404	.312	.498	.629	.647	.656	.508	.499	1.00	.763	.573	.684
	if3	.514	.488	.394	.400	.541	.364	.434	.466	.475	.271	.488	.482	.518	.583	.360	.553	.763	1.00	.654	.610
	if4	.409	.396	.242	.328	.335	.242	.336	.355	.359	.197	.434	.408	.401	.417	.241	.529	.573	.654	1.00	.559
	if5	.476	.364	.330	.320	.390	.257	.282	.385	.306	.274	.410	.412	.510	.607	.434	.375	.684	.610	.559	1.00

a.

Anti-image Matrices

d1	d2	d3	d4	p1	p2	p3	p4	p5	p6	p7	it1	it2	it3	it4	if1	if2	if3	if4	if5
.932[a]	-.151	.022	-.192	.122	.158	-.055	.007	-.162	.090	-.304	.121	.000	-.017	.070	.047	-.087	-.107	.048	-.194
-.151	.871[a]	-.143	-.351	-.008	-.044	.251	-.336	-.237	-.040	.098	.000	-.388	.321	.197	.121	-.092	-.054	-.087	.051
.022	-.143	.923[a]	-.419	-.078	-.001	.019	-.044	-.049	-.057	.037	-.196	.085	.077	-.052	-.063	-.198	.061	.213	-.038
-.192	-.351	-.419	.881[a]	-.052	-.225	-.177	-.040	.068	-.006	-.108	-.105	.267	-.137	-.208	-.113	.254	.041	-.072	-.016
.122	-.008	-.078	-.052	.932[a]	-.112	-.242	.016	-.039	.003	-.231	.059	-.120	.078	-.063	.176	.018	-.263	.064	-.054
.158	-.044	-.001	-.225	-.112	.904[a]	-.085	.044	.018	.013	-.181	-.044	.057	-.024	.158	.113	.081	-.184	.043	-.112
-.055	.251	.019	-.177	-.242	-.085	.896[a]	-.411	-.191	-.035	.060	-.034	-.190	.160	.122	.034	-.009	-.025	-.066	.080
.007	-.336	-.044	-.040	.016	.044	-.411	.911[a]	-.192	-.172	-.169	-.046	.233	-.204	-.080	-.043	.098	.005	.061	-.103
-.162	-.237	-.049	.068	-.039	.018	-.191	-.192	.932[a]	.194	-.068	.186	.025	-.154	.019	-.048	-.068	-.036	-.036	.146
.090	-.040	-.057	-.006	.003	.013	-.035	-.172	.194	.868[a]	-.187	.213	-.105	.028	-.114	.114	-.115	-.031	-.028	.005
-.304	.098	.037	-.108	-.231	-.181	.060	-.169	-.068	-.187	.925[a]	.001	-.003	-.103	-.008	-.235	-.115	.199	-.100	.122
.121	.000	-.196	-.105	.059	-.044	-.034	-.046	.186	.213	.001	.879[a]	-.439	-.208	-.059	.039	-.246	.072	-.182	.258
.000	-.388	.085	.267	-.120	.057	-.190	.233	.025	-.105	-.003	-.439	.807[a]	-.531	-.117	-.412	-.024	.141	.135	-.089
-.017	.321	.077	-.137	.078	-.024	.160	-.204	-.154	.028	-.103	-.208	-.531	.858[a]	-.100	.258	.041	-.231	.053	-.235
.070	.197	-.052	-.208	-.063	.158	.122	-.080	.019	-.114	-.008	-.059	-.117	-.100	.910[a]	-.181	-.150	.078	.138	-.108
.047	.121	-.063	-.113	.176	.113	.034	-.043	-.048	.114	-.235	.039	-.412	.258	-.181	.850[a]	.116	-.308	-.257	.079
-.087	-.092	-.198	.254	.018	.081	-.009	.098	-.068	-.115	-.115	-.246	-.024	.041	-.150	.116	.897[a]	-.453	-.063	-.305
-.107	-.054	.061	.041	-.263	-.184	-.025	.005	-.036	-.031	.199	.072	.141	-.231	.078	-.308	-.453	.887[a]	-.254	.014
.048	-.087	.213	-.072	.064	.043	-.066	.061	-.036	-.028	-.100	-.182	.135	.053	.138	-.257	-.063	-.254	.891[a]	-.308
-.194	.051	-.038	-.016	-.054	-.112	.080	-.103	.146	.005	.122	.258	-.089	-.235	-.108	.079	-.305	.014	-.308	.891[a]

KMO and Barlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.892
Barlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1844.495
	df	190
	Sig.	.000

Reliability Statistics (after revised items)

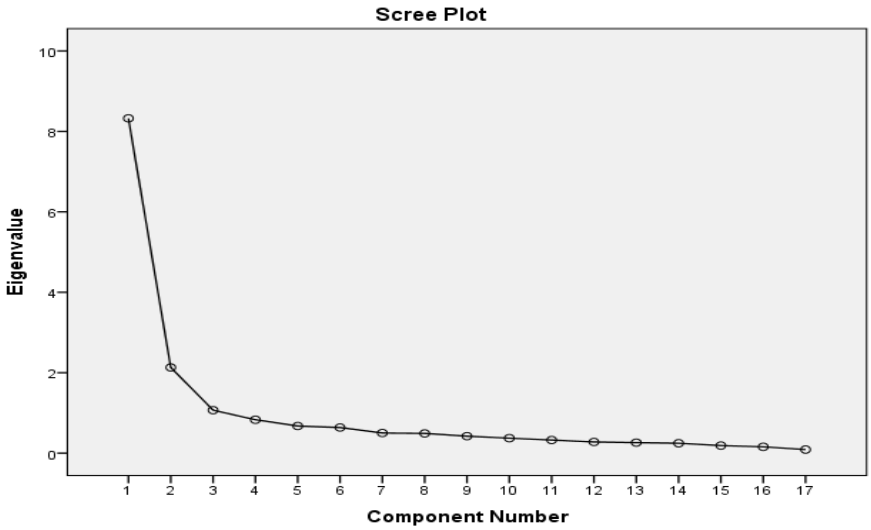
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.932	.933	17

Total Variance Explained (two-component structure was adopted)

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings[a]
Comp	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	8.324	48.967	48.967	8.324	48.967	48.967	7.403
2	2.130	12.531	61.498	2.130	12.531	61.498	4.318
3	1.069	6.290	67.787	1.069	6.290	67.787	4.192
4	.831	4.889	72.676				
5	.674	3.968	76.644				
6	.637	3.746	80.390				
7	.501	2.944	83.334				
8	.490	2.884	86.218				
9	.423	2.489	88.707				
10	.373	2.193	90.900				
11	.326	1.919	92.819				
12	.278	1.636	94.454				
13	.262	1.544	95.998				
14	.246	1.446	97.444				
15	.188	1.105	98.549				
16	.157	.926	99.475				
17	.089	.525	100.000				

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. When components are correlated, sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance.



Communalities

	initial	extraction
d1	1.000	.581
d2	1.000	.710
d3	1.000	.604
d4	1.000	.766
p1	1.000	.526
p3	1.000	.618
p4	1.000	.764
p5	1.000	.620
p7	1.000	.649
it3	1.000	.746
it4	1.000	.530
if1	1.000	.557
if3	1.000	.626
if4	1.000	.457
if5	1.000	.550
p2	1.000	.415
ave it1 it2	1.000	.736

Pattern Matrix

	Component	
	1	2
d4	.900	
p4	.863	
d2	.819	
p3	.800	
p5	.784	
d3	.746	
p2	.710	
d1	.677	
p1	.635	
p7	.630	
ave it1 it2		.882
it3		.879
it4		.778
if1		.719
if5		.702
if3		.626
if4		.596

Component Correlation Matrix

Component	1	2
1	1.000	.506
2	.506	1.000

Appendix I
SPSS output for the PCA of negative affectivity

Correlation Matrix[a]

		ner	irr	dis	ash	ups	gui	sca	hos	jit	afr
Correlation	ner	1.000	.311	.259	.402	.248	.317	.376	.345	.425	.474
	irr	.311	1.000	.617	.343	.651	.496	.358	.408	.381	.322
	dis	.259	.617	1.000	.303	.561	.382	.398	.449	.401	.395
	ash	.402	.343	.303	1.000	.429	.328	.643	.252	.690	.650
	ups	.248	.651	.561	.429	1.000	.413	.337	.437	.460	.309
	gui	.317	.496	.382	.328	.413	1.000	.480	.297	.431	.384
	sca	.376	.358	.398	.643	.337	.480	1.000	.263	.558	.776
	hos	.345	.408	.449	.252	.437	.297	.263	1.000	.312	.331
	jit	.425	.381	.401	.690	.460	.431	.558	.312	1.000	.688
	afr	.474	.322	.395	.650	.309	.384	.776	.331	.688	1.000

a. Determinant = .006

KMO and Barlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.844
Barlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	612.583
	df	45
	Sig.	.000

Anti-image Matrices

	ner	irr	dis	ash	ups	gui	sca	hos	jit	afr
Anti-image Correlation	.910[a]	-.105	.046	-.097	.074	-.091	.054	-.187	-.064	-.188
	-.105	.842[a]	-.342	-.037	-.378	-.248	.000	-.039	.051	.028
	.046	-.342	.873[a]	.144	-.202	.026	-.109	-.189	-.079	-.088
	-.097	-.037	.144	.853[a]	-.197	.139	-.313	.038	-.395	-.085
	.074	-.378	-.202	-.197	.849[a]	-.061	.013	-.189	-.161	.141
	-.091	-.248	.026	.139	-.061	.862[a]	-.296	-.041	-.188	.097
	.054	.000	-.109	-.313	.013	-.296	.794[a]	.073	.165	-.574
	-.187	-.039	-.189	.038	-.189	-.041	.073	.893[a]	.028	-.122
	-.064	.051	-.079	-.395	-.161	-.188	.165	.028	.847[a]	-.384
	-.188	.028	-.088	-.085	.141	.097	-.574	-.122	-.384	.803[a]

a. Measures of Sampling Adequacy(MSA)

Reliability Statistics (all 7 items)

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.868	.870	7

Reliability Statistics (component Fear)

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.889	.889	4

Reliability Statistics (component Disgruntle)

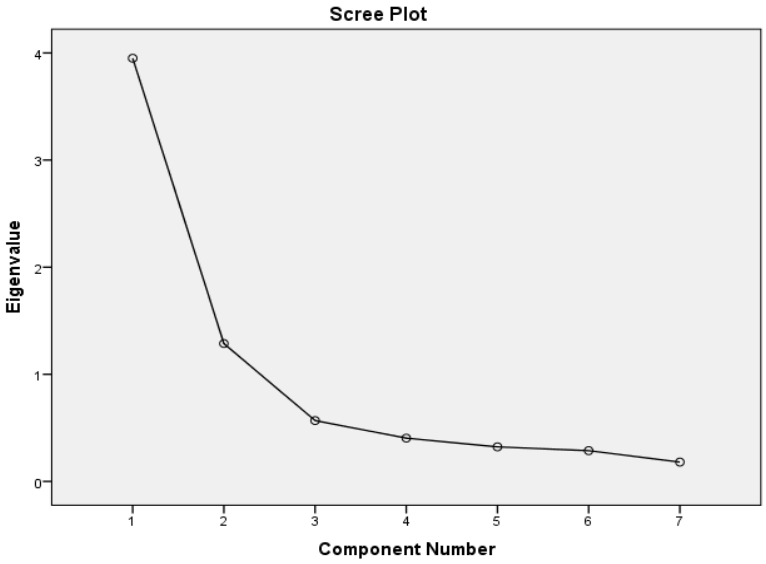
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.824	.824	3

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings[a]
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	3.951	56.437	56.437	3.951	56.437	56.437	3.534
2	1.287	18.386	74.823	1.287	18.386	74.823	2.954
3	.568	8.115	82.938				
4	.404	5.775	88.713				
5	.323	4.608	93.321				
6	.287	4.102	97.424				
7	.180	2.576	100.000				

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. When components are correlated, sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance.



Communalities (7 items)

	Initial	Extraction
irr	1.000	.785
dis	1.000	.695
ash	1.000	.735
ups	1.000	.739
sca	1.000	.747
jit	1.000	.710
afr	1.000	.825

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Pattern Matrix[a] (7 items)

	Component	
	1	2
afr	.941	
sca	.870	
ash	.856	
jit	.779	
irr		.908
ups		.847
dis		.816

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.[a]
a. Rotation converged in 4 iterations.

Appendix J
Supporting CFA results

Table J1

*Goodness-of-fit indices of different optimised models for **Fair***

Model	x^2	df	cmin/df	CFI	NNFI	RMSEA
initial model	410	118	3.48	0.83	0.80	0.11
removed p1, p2, p4 & p7	204	64	3.18	0.90	0.88	0.11
final model: e11<->e12; e15<->e16<->e17	130	61	2.13	0.95	0.94	0.07

Table J2

*The standardised and unstandardised estimates, S.E., CR and AVE for **Fair***

Construct	Indicator	β	B	S.E.	CR	AVE
Structural	d1	0.74	1.00	-	0.850	0.50
	d2	0.83	0.95	0.085		
	d3	0.84	1.03	0.091		
	d4	0.72	0.84	0.087		
	p3	0.56	0.75	0.099		
	p5	0.47	0.58	0.093		
Social	aveit1it2	0.86	1.00	-	0.90	0.55
	it3	0.81	0.98	0.080		
	it4	0.70	0.86	0.072		
	if1	0.77	0.88	0.068		
	if3	0.78	0.84	0.083		
	if4	0.70	0.87	0.083		
	if5	0.54	0.73	0.094		

Note. B = unstandardised estimate β = standardised estimate all p-value were ***

Table J3

Goodness-of-fit indices of different optimised models for ***NegAff***

Model	χ^2	df	cmin/df	CFI	NNFI	RMSEA
initial model	45.80	13	3.52	0.91	0.86	0.12
e6<-->e7	23.60	12	1.97	0.97	0.95	0.07

Table J4

The standardised and unstandardised estimates, S.E., CR and AVE for ***NegAff***

Cconstruct	Indicator	β	B	S.E.	CR	AVE
Disgruntle	irr	0.63	1.00		0.68	0.42
	dis	0.60	0.88	0.16		
	ups	0.70	1.17	0.21		
Fear	afr	0.91	1.00		0.79	0.50
	sca	0.77	0.87	0.09		
	ash	0.51	0.59	0.09		
	jit	0.55	0.59	0.08		

Note. B = unstandardised estimate β = standardised estimate all p-value were ***

Table J5

Goodness-of-fit indices of different optimised models for pooled CFA of ***NegEmo, Accpt, Engage, Turn, Structural, Social, Fear*** *and* ***Disgruntle***

Model	χ^2	df	cmin/df	CFI	NNFI	RMSEA
initial model	1989	1095	1.82	0.86	0.85	0.07
removed a1	1843	1048	1.758	0.876	0.867	0.063
removed a1&a2	1748	1002	1.75	0.88	0.87	0.06
removed a1, a2 & p3	1630	957	1.70	0.89	0.88	0.06
final model: e17<->e18; e25<->e26; e18<->e25; e21<->e22; e33<-->e34	1504	952	1.57	0.91	0.90	0.06

Table J6

The standardised and unstandardised estimates, S.E., CR, AVE for ***NegEmo, Accpt, Engage, Turn, Structural, Social, Fear*** *and* ***Disgruntle***

Construct	Indicator	β	B	S.E.	CR	AVE
NegEmo	res	0.85	1.09	0.079	0.96	0.71
	ang	0.89	1.15	0.078		
	dsp	0.91	1.36	0.089		
	ina	0.81	0.97	0.075		
	acq	0.74	1.01	0.088		
	wor	0.78	1.06	0.086		
	fru	0.91	1.30	0.086		
	grv	0.83	1.09	0.082		
	notA	0.89	1.31	0.075		
	sce	0.80	1.00			
Accpt	a4	0.75	0.88	0.076	0.88	0.59
	a5	0.84	1.05	0.077		
	a6	0.77	0.86	0.071		
	a7	0.64	0.82	0.086		
	a8	0.83	1.00			
Engage	v1	0.79	1.09	0.104	0.91	0.57
	v2	0.77	1.11	0.109		
	de1	0.87	1.21	0.105		
	de2	0.62	1.09	0.132		
	v3	0.75	1.14	0.114		
	ab1	0.70	0.90	0.097		
	de3	0.78	1.18	0.114		
	ab2	0.71	1.00			
Turn	t1	0.87	1.00		0.88	0.65
	t2_re	0.68	0.83	0.079		
	t3	0.85	1.03	0.071		
	t4	0.81	1.08	0.080		
Structural	d1	0.74	1.00		0.85	0.54
	d2	0.83	0.94	0.084		
	d3	0.83	1.01	0.089		
	d4	0.72	0.84	0.086		
	p5	0.51	0.62	0.092		
Social	ave it1it2	0.85	1.00		0.90	0.55
	it3	0.81	1.00	0.052		
	it4	0.70	0.89	0.085		
	if1	0.76	0.87	0.074		
	if3	0.78	0.87	0.072		
	if4	0.74	0.97	0.086		
	if5	0.54	0.75	0.099		
Fear	ash	0.52	0.62	0.093	0.79	0.50
	sca	0.77	0.88	0.092		
	jit	0.58	0.65	0.086		
	afr	0.89	1.00			
Disgruntle	irr	0.62	1.00		0.68	0.42
	dis	0.60	0.88	0.151		
	ups	0.73	1.22	0.194		

Note. B = unstandardised estimate β = standardised estimate
all p-value were ***

Table J7

*Discriminant validity index summary for **NegEmo, Accpt, Engage, Turn, Structural, Social, Fear** and **Disgruntle***

Construct	NegEmo	Accpt	Engage	Turn	Structural	Social	Fear	Disgruntle
NegEmo	**0.84**							
Accpt	-0.38	**0.77**						
Engage	-0.15	0.50	**0.75**					
Turn	0.44	-0.50	-0.42	**0.81**				
Structural	-0.39	0.65	0.47	-0.45	**0.74**			
Social	-0.47	0.66	0.33	-0.46	0.56	**0.74**		
Fear	0.15	-0.11	-0.10	0.21	-0.02	-0.09	**0.70**	
Disgruntle	0.49	-0.16	-0.11	0.28	-0.21	-0.26	0.40	**0.65**

Appendix K
Supporting SEM results for Model 1

Table K1

The standardised residual covariance of Model 1

	it4	it3	it1it2	if1	a8	a7	t1	t2_re	t3	t4	a6	a5	a4	v1	v2	de1	de2	v3	ab1	de3	ab2	res	ang	dsp	ina	acq	wor	frs	grv	notA	sce	if5	if4	if3	p3	d4	d3	d2	d1
it4	0.0																																						
it3	0.5	0.0																																					
it1it2	0.3	0.0	0.0																																				
if1	-0.1	0.2	0.2	0.0																																			
a8	0.0	0.1	0.5	0.8	0.0																																		
a7	-0.1	-0.1	-0.5	0.4	1.1	0.0																																	
t1	1.3	0.1	-0.1	-0.2	0.4	0.6	0.0																																
t2_re	1.1	-0.4	-0.6	-1.1	-1.8	-0.3	0.1	0.0																															
t3	1.4	0.3	0.1	-0.3	0.2	0.3	-0.1	0.0	0.0																														
t4	1.9	0.9	0.7	0.3	0.7	1.2	0.1	-0.6	0.2	0.0																													
a6	-1.2	-0.4	-1.0	-1.2	-0.4	-0.8	0.7	-2.0	0.2	0.7	0.0																												
a5	-0.9	0.0	-0.8	-0.1	-0.1	-0.2	1.2	-1.7	0.8	1.2	0.8	0.0																											
a4	-0.2	0.9	0.3	0.8	-0.5	-0.4	-0.8	-1.0	-1.2	-0.4	0.0	0.0	0.0																										
v1	-0.6	-0.8	-1.1	0.0	-0.3	0.1	-1.7	-1.4	-1.5	-1.2	0.6	-0.1	0.7	0.0																									
v2	-0.8	-0.4	-0.6	-0.5	0.2	-0.9	-0.7	-1.4	-0.4	-0.8	0.3	-0.2	-0.8	0.0	0.0																								
de1	-1.6	-0.6	-1.2	0.4	-0.3	-0.7	-0.3	-2.1	-0.7	-1.1	1.0	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.0																							
de2	-0.9	0.1	-0.8	-1.0	-0.3	1.9	-0.2	-0.8	-1.4	-0.8	0.5	-1.0	0.1	-0.2	-0.5	0.1	0.0																						
v3	-1.4	-0.4	-1.1	-0.4	-0.1	-0.2	-1.9	-2.5	-2.6	-2.0	0.7	0.1	1.3	0.5	-0.2	-0.4	-0.2	0.0																					
ab1	-1.6	-0.3	-1.0	-1.0	-0.7	0.0	-0.4	-0.7	-1.1	-0.9	0.7	-0.8	0.4	-0.3	0.0	-0.3	1.2	0.4	0.0																				
de3	-0.3	0.5	-0.3	-0.9	0.2	-0.3	1.1	-1.5	0.5	1.2	0.1	0.1	-0.6	-0.7	0.1	0.2	0.3	-0.2	-0.2	0.0																			
ab2	-1.4	0.0	-0.7	-0.1	-1.4	-1.2	-0.6	-1.5	-0.4	-0.2	0.0	-1.3	0.7	0.2	0.0	-0.2	-0.9	0.6	0.1	0.5	0.0																		
res	-0.7	-1.0	-0.7	0.1	-0.2	0.3	0.9	-0.6	0.2	0.6	1.4	0.8	-0.9	0.3	0.4	0.7	0.6	-0.7	-0.2	1.3	-1.0	0.0																	
ang	-0.5	-1.0	-0.4	0.6	-0.1	-0.1	-0.4	-1.5	-0.9	-1.1	1.3	1.2	-0.5	0.6	0.3	1.3	0.8	-1.1	-0.2	0.8	-0.6	0.1	0.1																
dsp	-0.1	-0.6	-0.1	0.6	-0.2	-0.7	0.4	-0.9	-0.4	-0.3	1.3	0.6	-0.6	0.7	0.8	2.0	0.7	-0.7	0.5	1.9	-0.5	0.1	0.3	0.0															
ina	-0.2	-0.7	-0.1	0.0	-0.1	-0.6	0.2	-1.1	-0.3	0.2	1.1	0.8	-0.4	0.4	0.5	0.8	0.1	-1.6	-1.2	1.0	-0.2	-0.1	-0.3	-0.2	0.0														
acq	1.0	0.2	1.0	1.6	1.4	0.5	-0.6	-1.7	-1.7	-0.9	1.2	1.3	0.6	0.2	0.3	0.7	-0.4	-0.6	-0.7	1.8	-0.2	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.5	0.0													
wor	0.6	-0.1	0.7	0.5	0.0	0.2	-0.1	-0.6	-0.3	0.1	0.8	0.7	0.3	0.5	-0.2	0.9	0.1	-2.0	-1.1	1.3	-0.3	-0.3	0.0	0.3	0.4	0.0	0.0												
frs	-0.4	-1.4	-0.1	0.2	-0.5	-1.0	0.6	-0.3	0.1	0.2	-0.2	-0.3	-1.8	-1.0	-0.4	0.2	-1.0	-1.9	-1.4	0.2	-1.6	0.2	0.1	-0.2	0.0	0.6	-0.3	0.0											
grv	-0.6	-1.4	-0.4	-1.0	-0.3	-0.4	1.1	0.5	0.9	1.0	0.0	-0.3	-1.4	-0.5	-0.3	-0.5	-0.7	-1.9	-1.6	0.2	-1.0	0.0	-0.1	-0.7	0.6	-0.5	-0.1	0.1	0.0										
notA	-0.2	-1.0	-0.1	-0.3	-0.4	-1.3	1.1	0.0	0.1	0.5	0.5	-0.1	-1.3	-0.6	0.0	0.0	-1.0	-2.2	-0.4	0.9	-0.4	-0.3	-0.2	0.1	0.0	-0.4	-0.2	-0.1	0.4	0.1									
sce	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.3	-0.3	0.1	1.1	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	-0.7	-0.3	0.9	0.2	-0.2	-1.7	-0.5	0.5	-0.6	-0.2	-0.6	0.5	0.1	0.0	0.8	-0.3	-0.1	0.2	0.0								
if5	0.2	-0.1	0.4	-1.2	0.2	1.4	0.8	0.2	0.2	1.0	-1.5	-0.5	-0.6	-1.5	-0.6	-1.7	-1.2	-2.0	-0.9	-1.1	-2.4	-0.7	-1.0	-1.3	-0.9	0.3	-1.3	-1.1	-1.4	-2.1	-0.6	0.0							
if4	0.5	-0.4	-0.3	-0.6	1.4	2.3	-0.3	-1.0	-0.9	-0.9	-0.5	0.3	1.2	-0.3	-0.5	-0.4	1.0	-0.2	0.0	-0.6	-1.1	-1.6	-1.1	-1.2	-1.1	-0.4	-0.8	-1.0	-1.1	-1.7	-1.0	0.1	0.1						
if3	-0.6	-0.3	0.0	0.2	1.2	2.3	0.0	-1.2	-0.6	-0.2	0.1	-0.2	0.5	-1.3	-1.5	-1.1	-1.1	-0.5	-0.2	-1.0	-2.0	-0.2	-0.6	-0.2	-0.6	1.1	-0.1	-0.1	-0.4	-0.4	0.5	0.7	0.2	0.0					
p3	2.3	1.1	1.6	1.1	2.4	2.2	-1.7	-1.7	-1.0	0.2	1.1	1.5	2.4	1.5	0.8	0.6	1.2	2.3	2.3	1.4	1.8	-1.7	-1.4	-1.6	-1.8	0.2	-1.0	-1.6	-2.4	-1.7	-1.9	1.3	2.8	1.9	0.0				
d4	0.1	-0.9	-0.7	0.5	0.6	-0.6	-0.8	-1.9	-0.8	0.2	-0.2	-0.2	0.9	0.7	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.2	-1.0	-0.7	0.1	0.6	0.1	0.6	0.6	0.9	-0.8	-1.0	-1.4	-0.7	1.0	0.0	0.1	-0.2	0.0			
d3	-0.2	-0.2	0.2	-0.2	-0.1	-1.2	0.0	-0.9	-0.7	0.4	0.2	-1.1	0.2	2.2	0.9	0.6	0.4	0.9	1.2	-0.2	-0.4	0.5	0.5	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.0	-0.4	-0.1	0.0	-0.1	0.1	0.3	0.7	0.1	-0.1	0.0		
d2	-0.6	-1.7	-1.0	-0.2	0.0	-1.1	1.5	0.6	0.1	1.1	0.0	-1.3	0.5	0.5	-0.3	0.5	0.0	-0.5	0.4	-1.5	-0.7	1.2	1.5	1.9	1.9	2.0	1.7	0.9	0.5	1.1	0.8	-1.4	-0.6	0.0	-0.8	0.2	0.3	0.0	
d1	1.7	-0.5	-0.1	1.8	1.1	0.2	1.0	-0.4	0.8	0.5	-0.3	0.0	0.5	1.4	0.6	1.0	-0.3	0.0	-0.8	0.7	0.5	0.6	1.0	0.9	1.3	1.8	1.5	-0.2	-0.5	-0.5	-0.1	-0.2	0.2	-0.5	-0.6	-0.1	-0.3	0.5	0.0

Table K2

*The size of mediated effect of **Fair** in the relationships (Model 1)*

Relationship	Mediation effect of Fair	Effect size
NegEmo --> Fair --> Accpt	0.13	medium
NegEmo --> Fair --> Engage	0.00	small
NegEmo --> Fair --> Turn	0.23	medium

Table K3

*Testing **Fair** as a mediator in the relationship between **NegEmo** and **Engage** (Hypothesis 5)*

Relationship	β	p-value	Result
NegEmo --> Fair (a)	-0.57	0.005	Significant
Fair -->Engage (b)	0.69	0.002	Significant
NegEmo --> Engage ©'	0.22	0.014	Significant
a * b a * b > c'	-0.39 mediation occurred	Partial mediation since direct effect ©' was still significant	

Table K4

*The bootstrapping results showing the significance of direct and indirect effects for relationship between **NegEmo** and **Engage** (Hypothesis 5)*

	Indirect effect	Direct effect
Bootstrapping p-value	0.003	0.031
Result	Significant	Significant
mediation type	Partial mediation since direct effect ©' was still significant	

Table K5

*Testing **Fair** as a mediator in the relationship between **NegEmo** and **Turn** (Hypothesis 6)*

Relationship	β	p-value	Result
NegEmo --> Fair (a)	-0.57	0.005	Significant
Fair --> Turn (b)	-0.55	0.004	Significant
NegEmo --> Turn ©'	0.13	0.144	Not significant
a * b a * b > c'	0.31 mediation occurred	Full mediation since direct effect ©' was no longer significant	

Table K6

*The bootstrapping results showing the significance of direct and indirect effects for relationship between **NegEmo** and **Turn**(Hypothesis 6)*

	Indirect effect	Direct effect
Bootstrapping p-value	0.004	0.31
Result	Significant	Not significant
mediation type	Full mediation since direct effect ©' was no longer significant	

Table K7

Goodness-of-fit indices of Model 1

Model	X^2	df	cmin/df	CFI	NNFI	RMSEA
Model 1	1107	683	1.62	0.93	0.92	0.06
Model 1 with control variables	1200	753	1.59	0.92	0.91	0.06

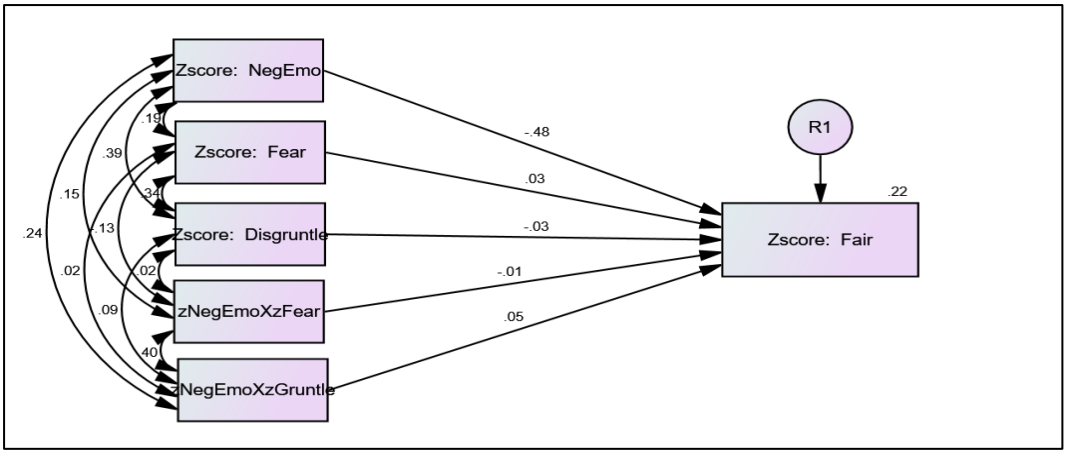


Figure K1. Moderation of **NegAff** on path **NegEmo → Fair**

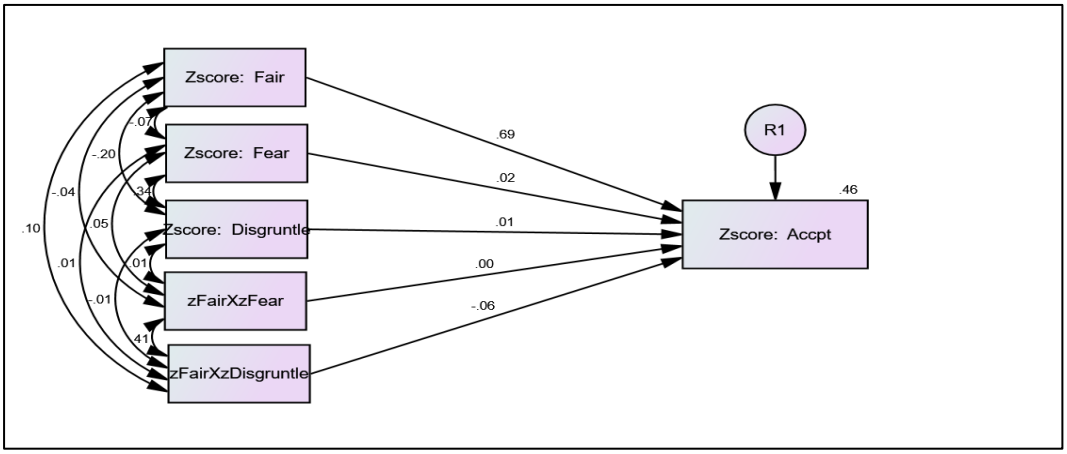


Figure K2. Moderation of **NegAff** on path **Fair → Accpt**

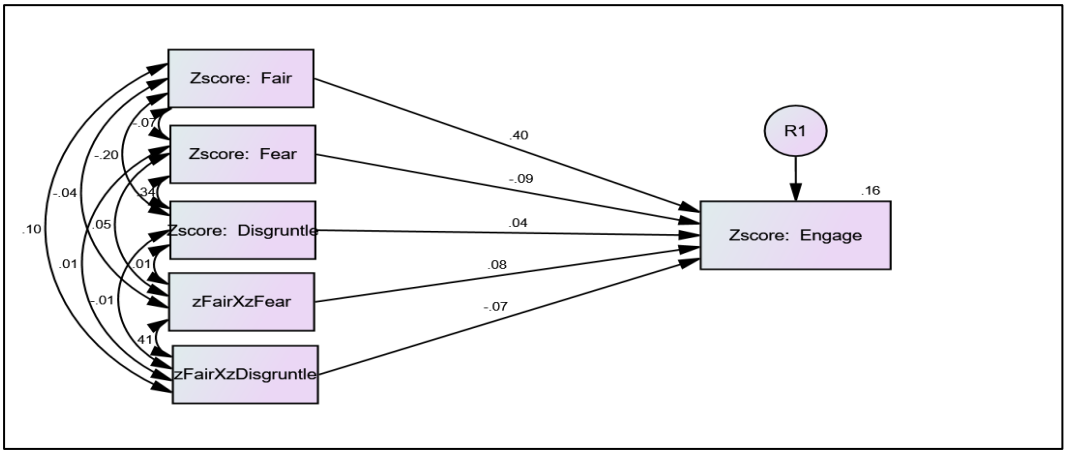


Figure K3. Moderation of **NegAff** on path **Fair → Engage**

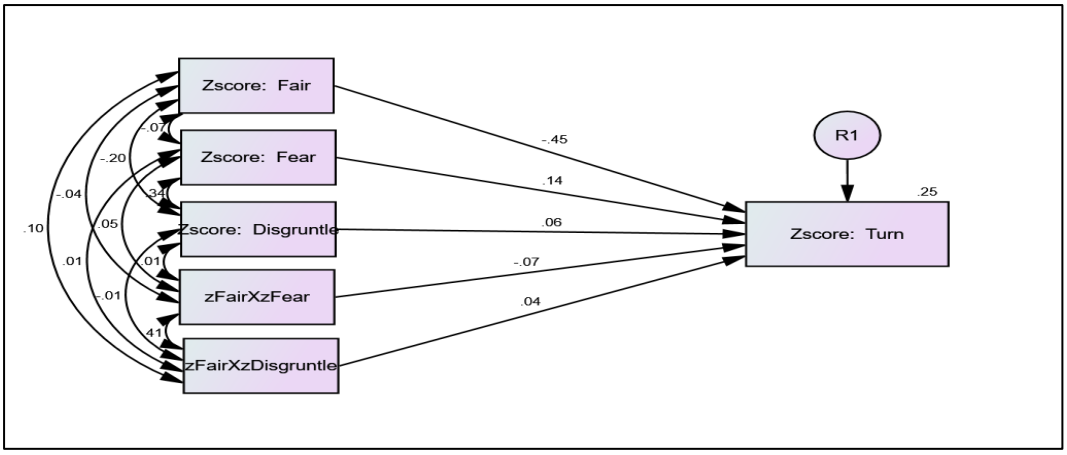


Figure K4. Moderation of **NegAff** on path **Fair → Turn**

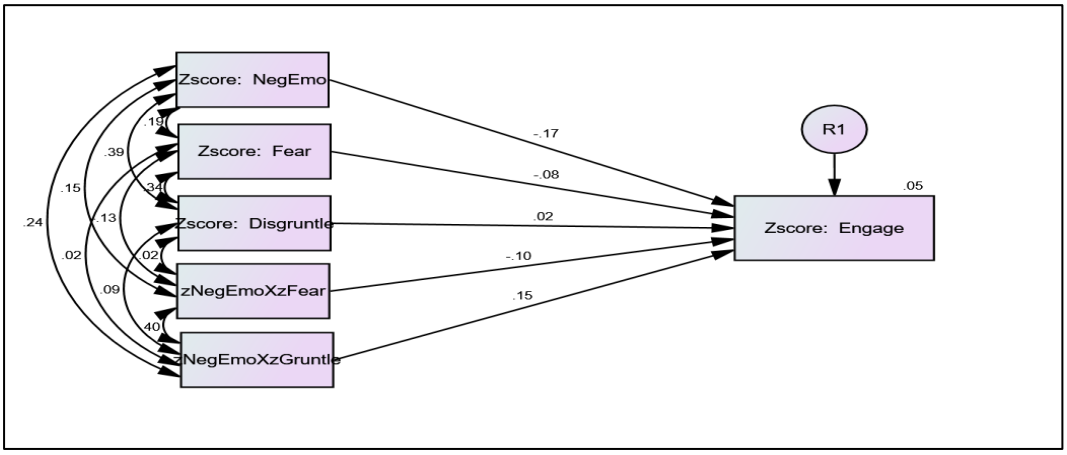


Figure K5. Moderation of **NegAff** on path **NegEmo → Engage**

Appendix L
Supporting SEM results for Model 2

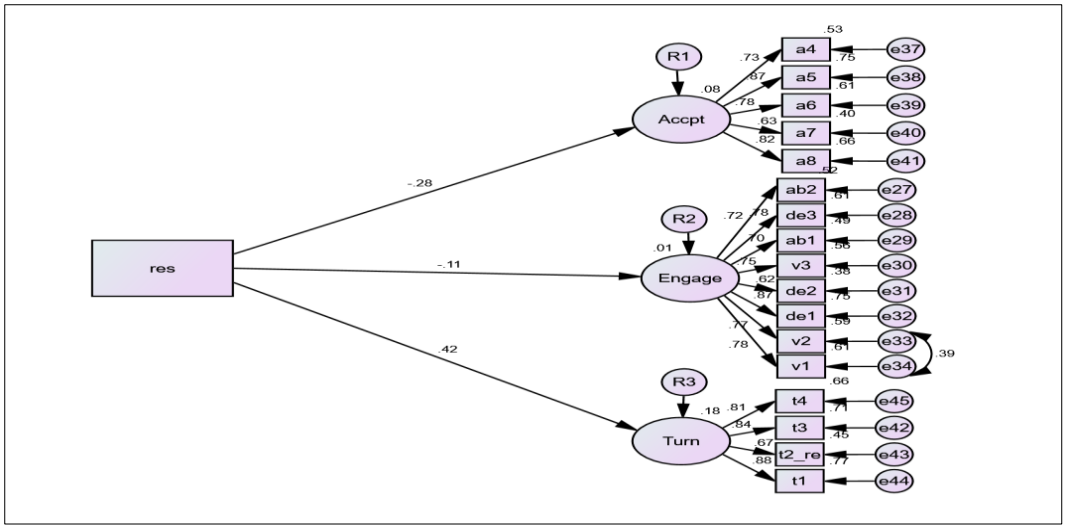


Figure L1. Modelling the total effect of **res-Accpt/Engage/Turn** relationships

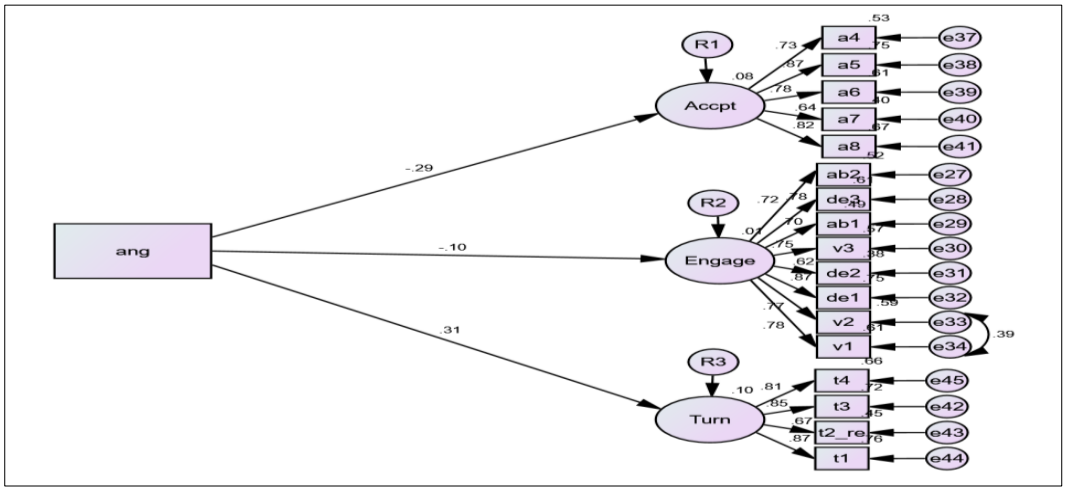


Figure L2. Modelling the total effect of **ang-Accpt/Engage/Turn** relationships

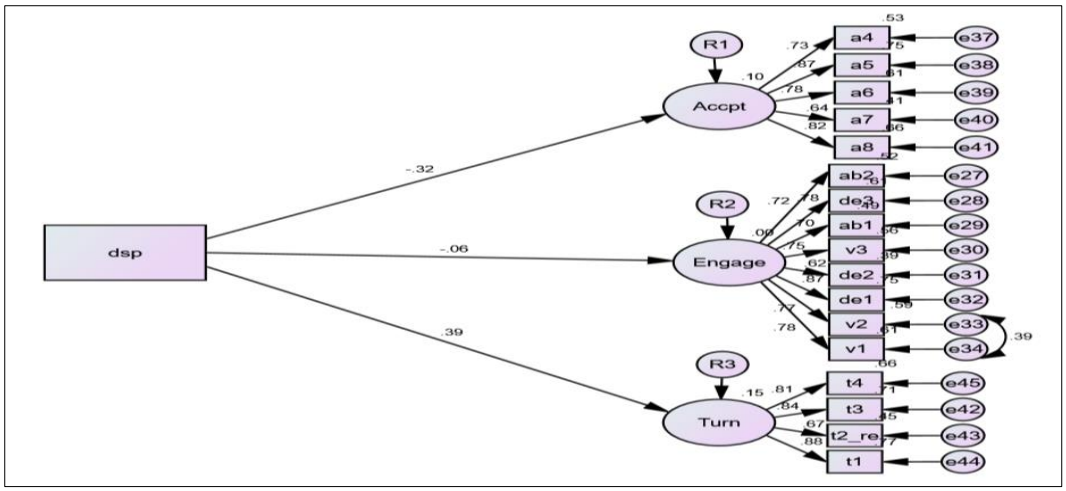


Figure L3. Modelling the total effect of **dsp-Accpt/Engage/Turn** relationships

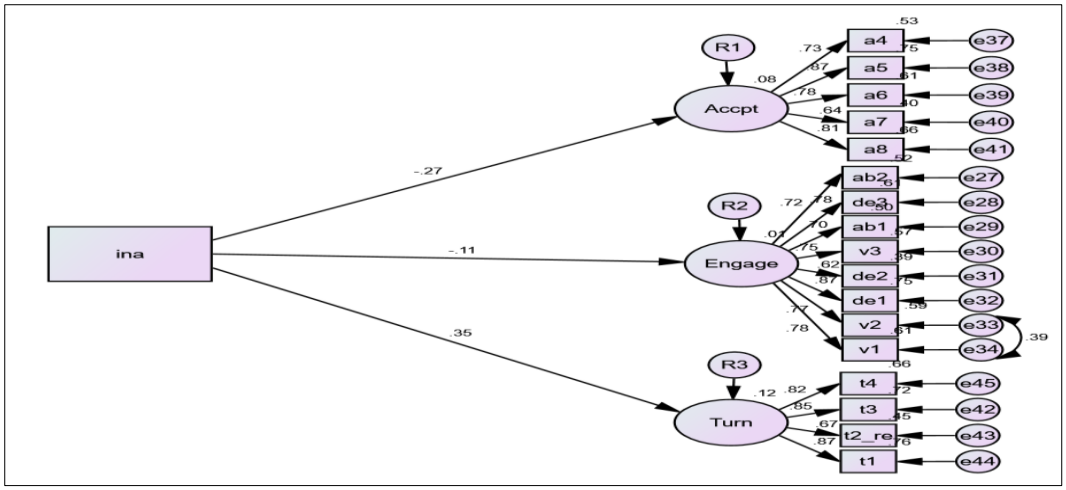


Figure L4. Modelling the total effect of **ina-Accpt/Engage/Turn** relationships

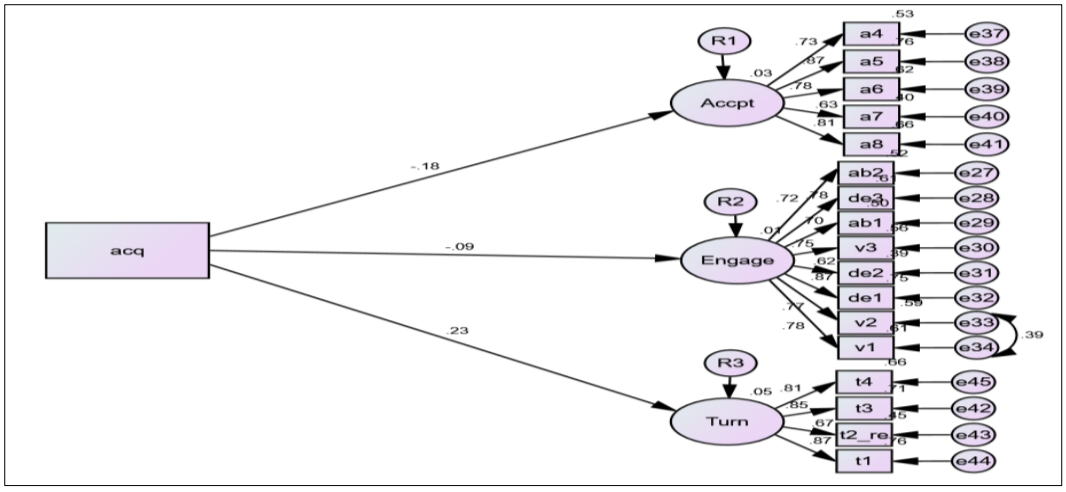


Figure L5. Modelling the total effect of **acq-Accpt/Engage/Turn** relationships

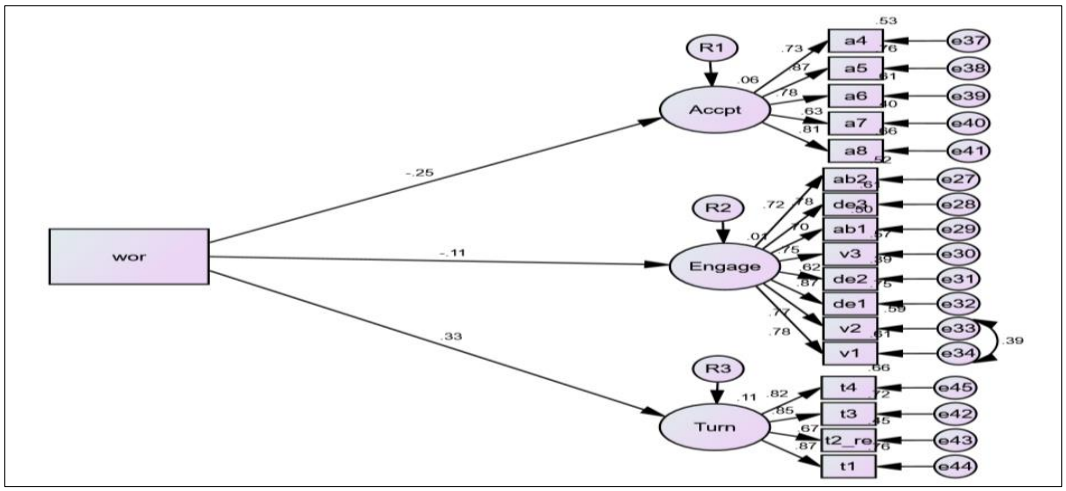


Figure L6. Modelling the total effect of **wor-Accpt/Engage/Turn** relationships

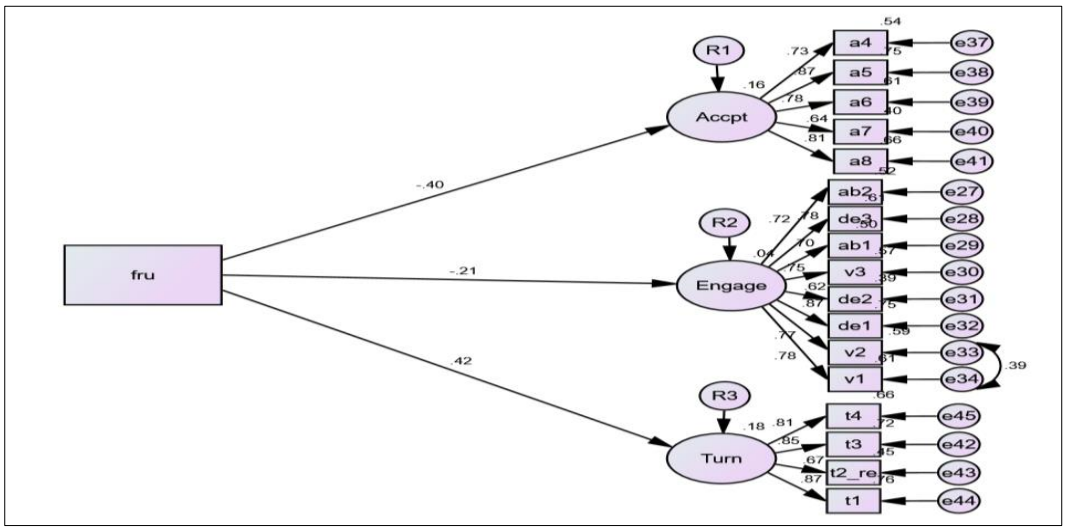


Figure L7. Modelling the total effect of **fru-Accpt/Engage/Turn** relationships

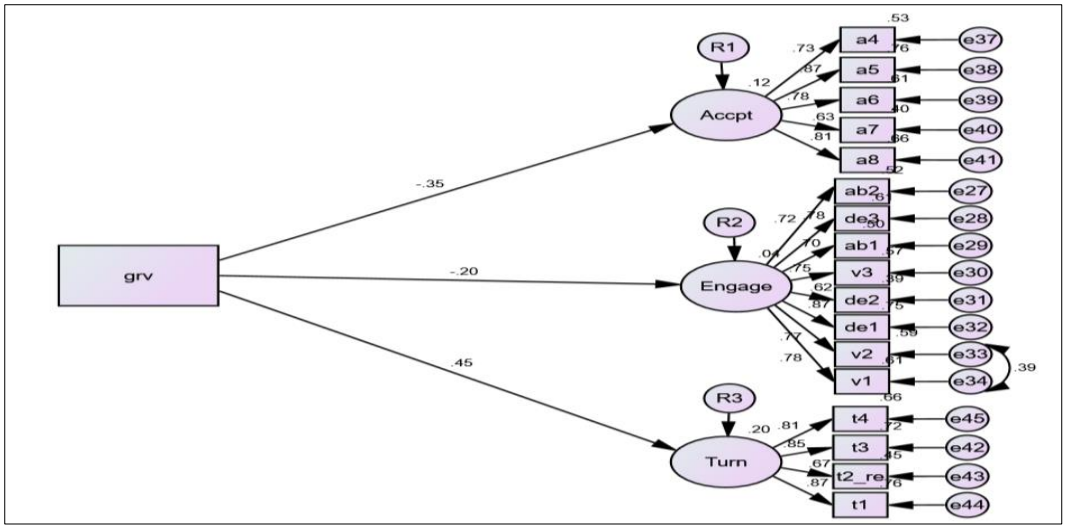


Figure L8. Modelling the total effect of **grv-Accpt/Engage/Turn** relationships

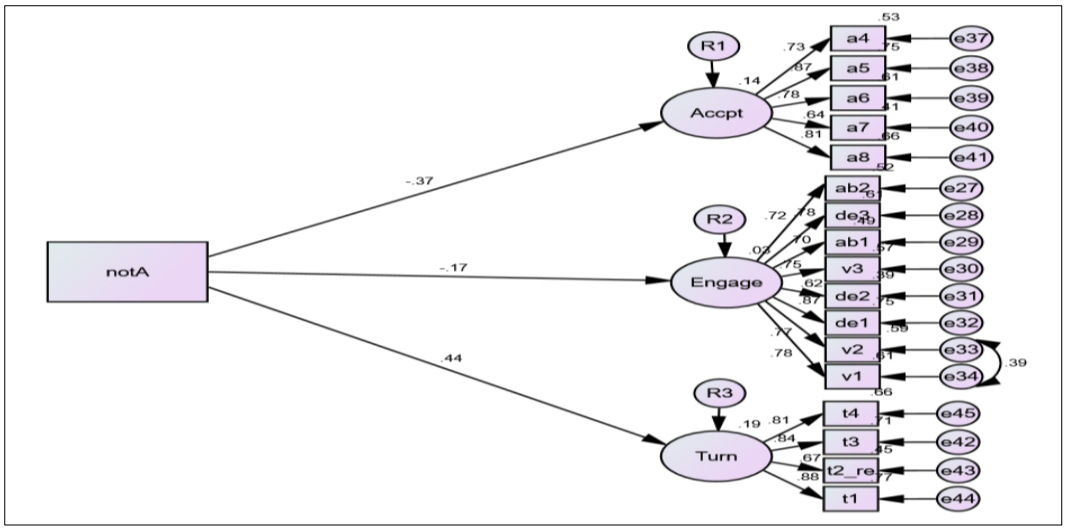


Figure L9. Modelling the total effect of **notA-Accpt/Engage/Turn** relationships

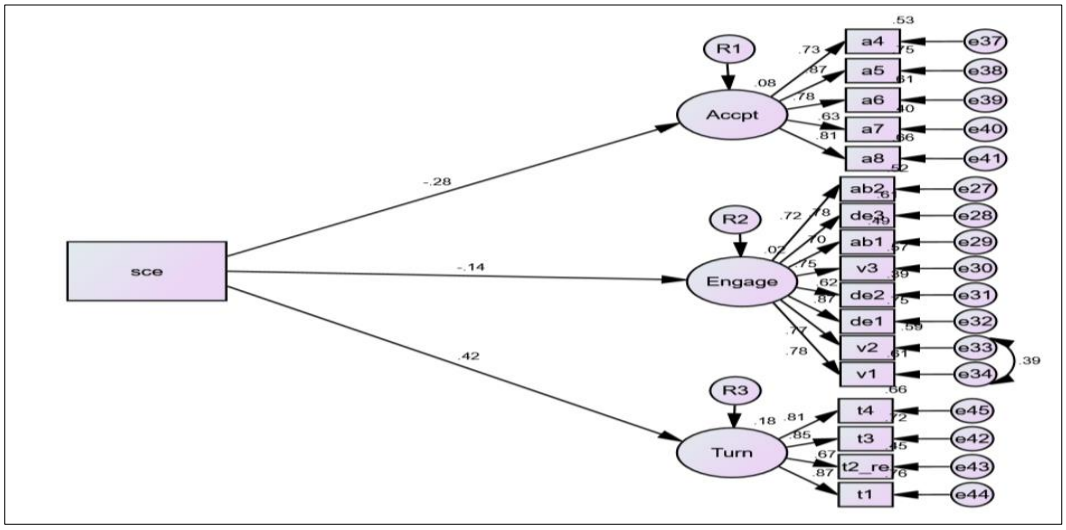


Figure L10. Modelling the total effect of **sce-Accpt/Engage/Turn** relationships

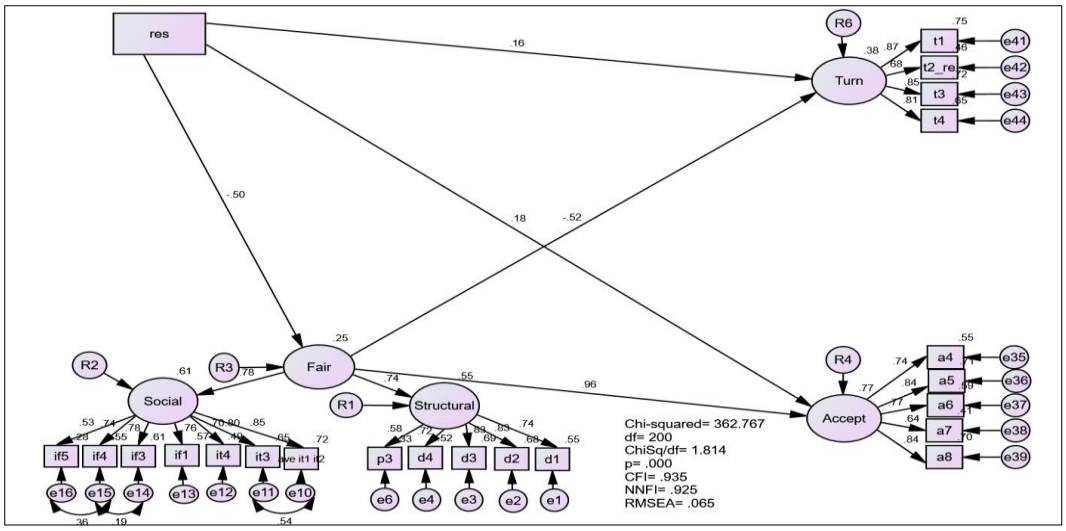


Figure L11. The standardised path coefficient for the structural Model 2-**res** (without control variables)

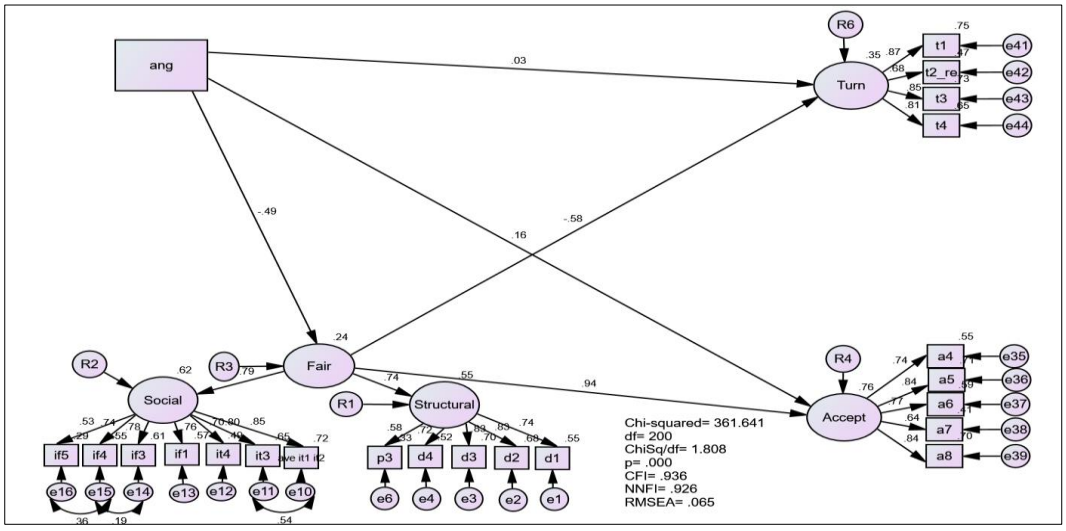


Figure L12. The standardised path coefficient for the structural Model 2-**ang** (without control variables)

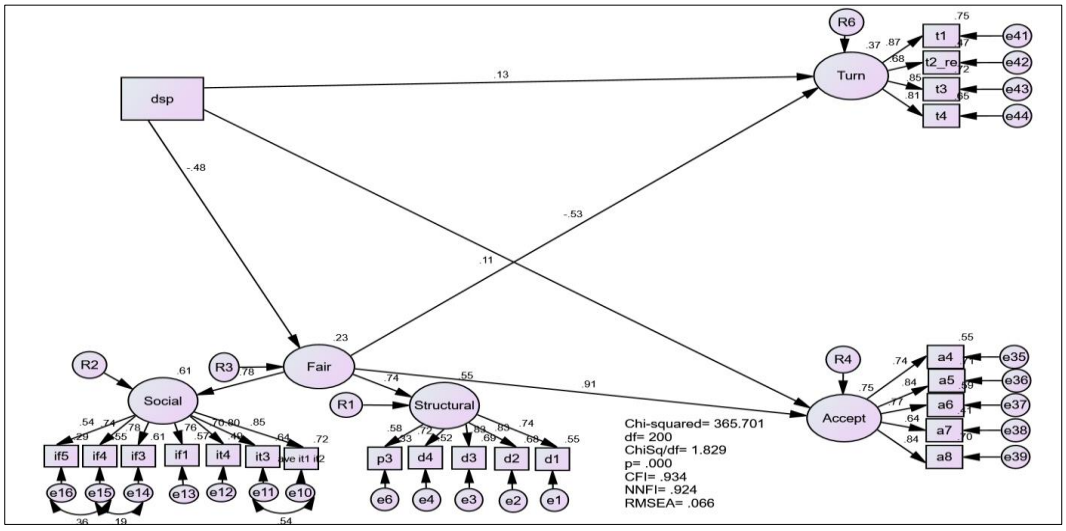


Figure L13. The standardised path coefficient for the structural Model 2-**dsp (**without control variables)

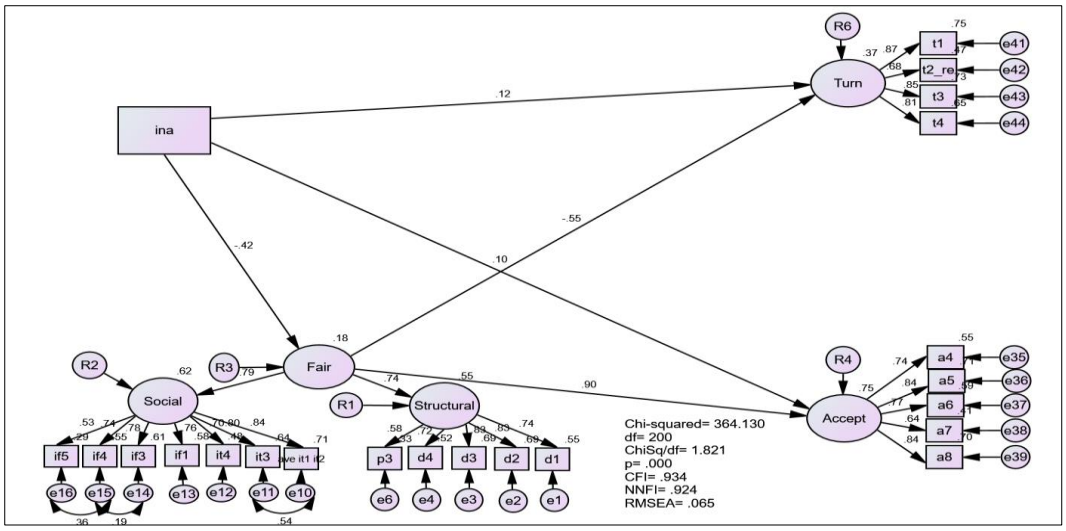


Figure L14. The standardised path coefficient for the structural Model 2-**ina** (without control variables)

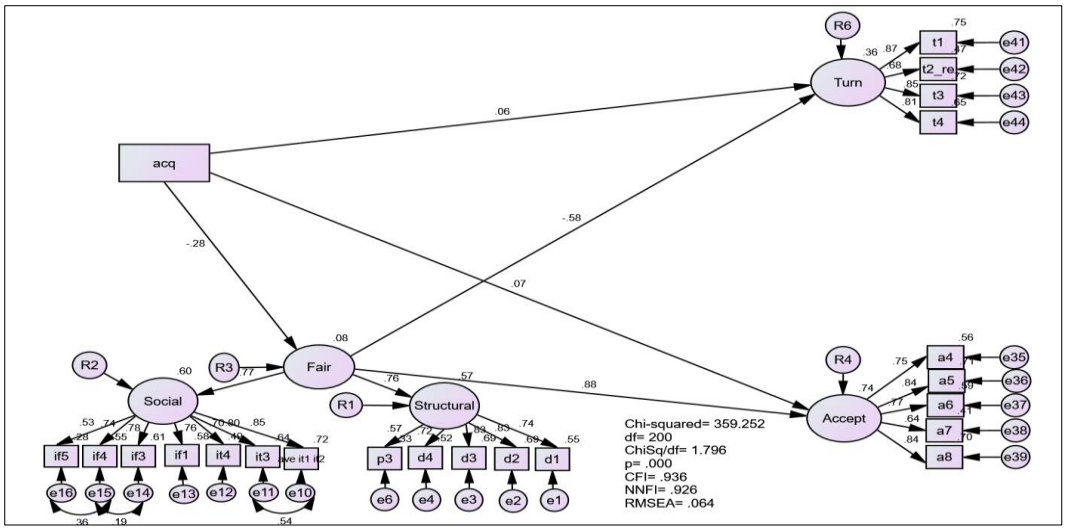


Figure L15. The standardised path coefficient for the structural Model 2-**acq** (without control variables)

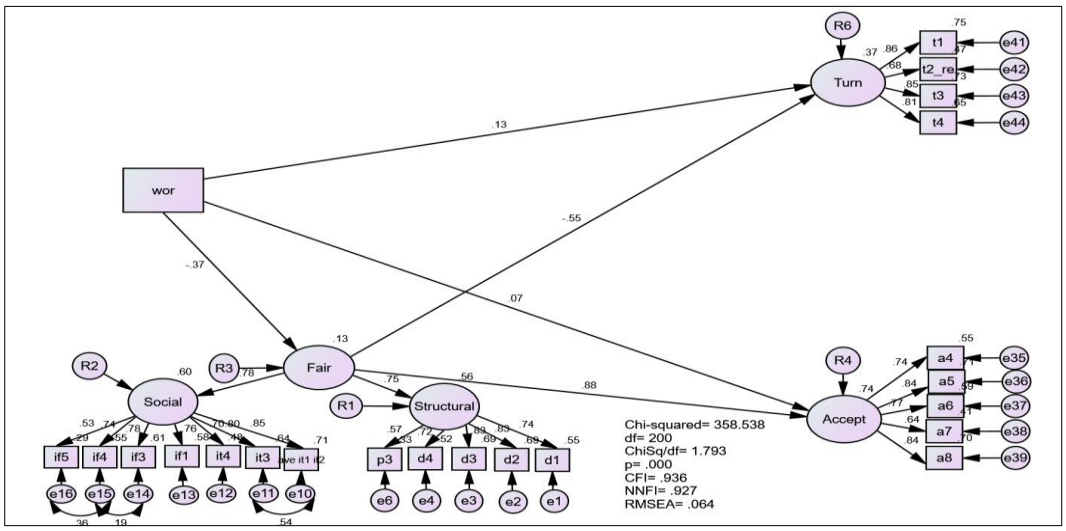


Figure L16. The standardised path coefficient for the structural Model 2-wor (without control variables)

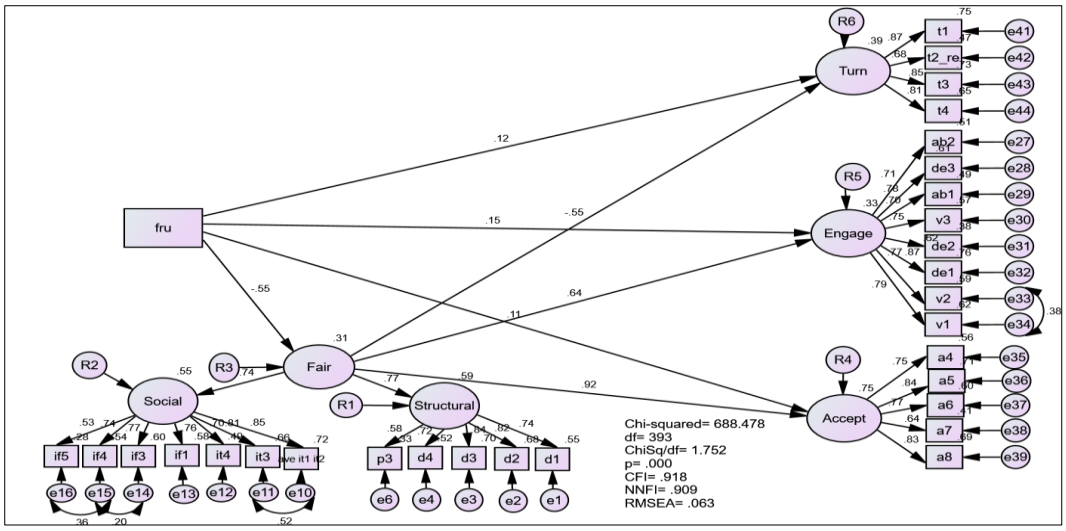


Figure L17. The standardised path coefficient for the structural Model 2-**fru** (without control variables)

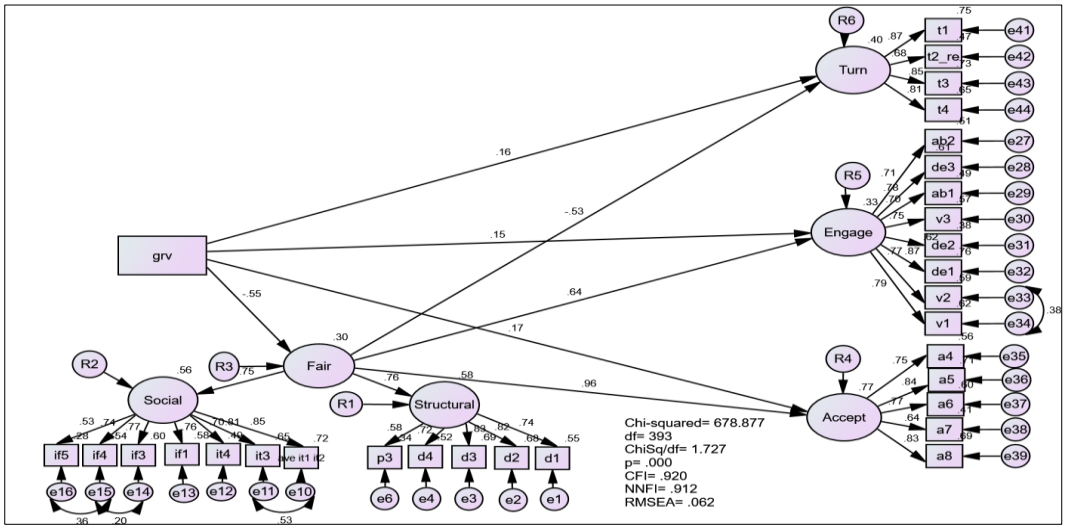


Figure L18. The standardised path coefficient for the structural Model 2-**grv** (without control variables)

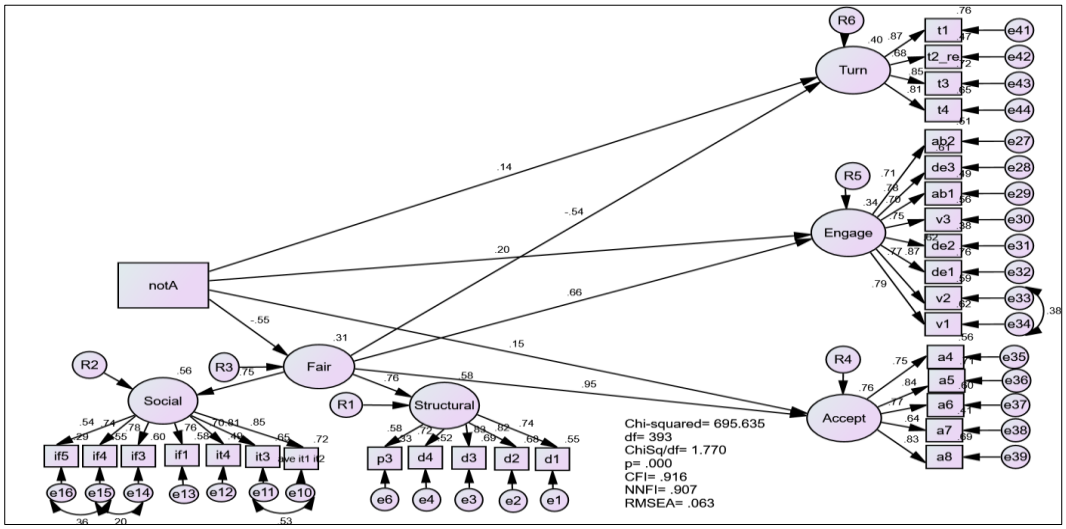


Figure L19. The standardised path coefficient for the structural Model 2-**notA** (without control variables)

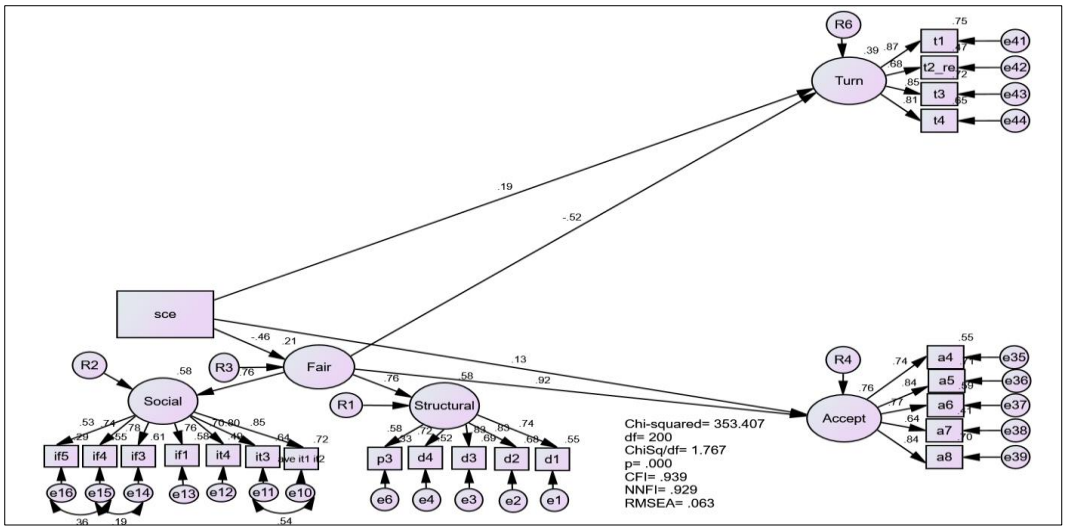


Figure L20. The standardised path coefficient for the structural Model 2-**sce (**without control variables)

Table L1

Goodness-of-fit indices of Model 2 (without the control variables)

Model	X^2	df	cmin/df	CFI	NNFI	RMSEA
Model 2 - res	363	200	1.81	0.94	0.93	0.06
Model 2 - ang	362	200	1.81	0.94	0.93	0.06
Model 2 - dsp	366	200	1.83	0.93	0.92	0.07
Model 2 - ina	364	200	1.82	0.93	0.92	0.06
Model 2 - acq	359	200	1.80	0.94	0.93	0.06
Model 2 - wor	359	200	1.79	0.94	0.93	0.06
Model 2 - fru	699	393	1.75	0.92	0.91	0.06
Model 2 - grv	679	393	1.73	0.92	0.91	0.06
Model 2 - notA	696	393	1.77	0.92	0.91	0.06
Model 2 - sce	353	200	1.77	0.94	0.93	0.06

Table L2

*The size of mediated effect of **Fair** in the relationships of Model 2*

Relationship	Mediation effect of Fair	Effect size
res --> Fair --> Accpt	0.06	small
res --> Fair --> Turn	0.17	medium
ang --> Fair --> Accpt	0.07	small
ang --> Fair --> Turn	0.12	medium
dsp --> Fair --> Accpt	0.10	small
dsp --> Fair --> Turn	0.15	medium
ina --> Fair --> Accpt	0.08	small
ina --> Fair --> Turn	0.12	medium
acq --> Fair --> Accpt	0.04	small
acq --> Fair --> Turn	0.06	small
wor --> Fair --> Accpt	0.09	small
wor --> Fair --> Turn	0.11	medium
fru --> Fair --> Accpt	0.16	medium
fru --> Fair --> Engage	0.03	small
fru --> Fair --> Turn	0.16	medium
grv --> Fair --> Accpt	0.10	small
grv --> Fair --> Engage	0.03	small
grv --> Fair --> Turn	0.17	medium
notA --> Fair --> Accpt	0.13	medium
notA --> Fair --> Engage	0.01	small
notA --> Fair --> Turn	0.16	medium
sce --> Fair --> Accpt	0.07	small
sce --> Fair --> Turn	0.16	medium

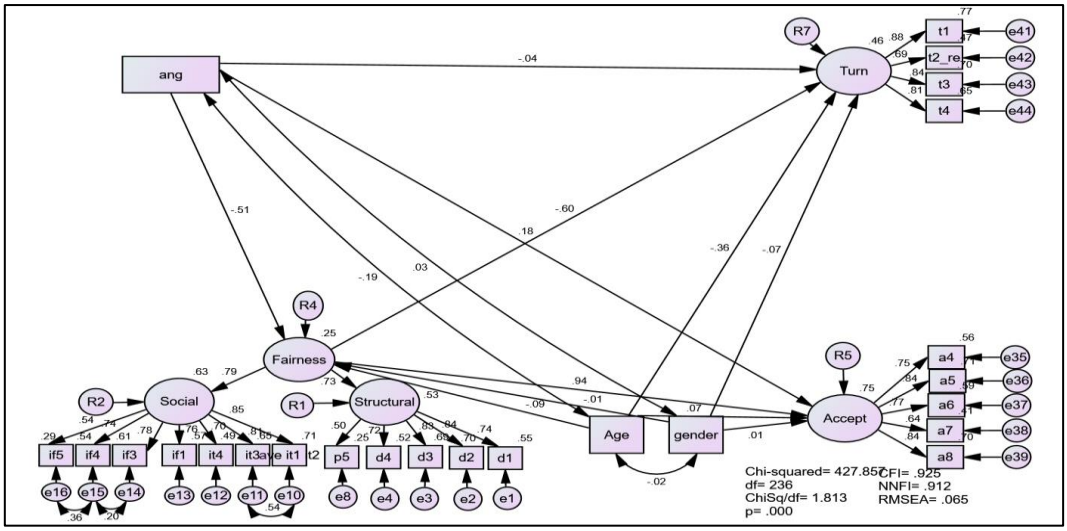


Figure L21. The standardised path coefficient for Model 2-**ang** (with control variables)

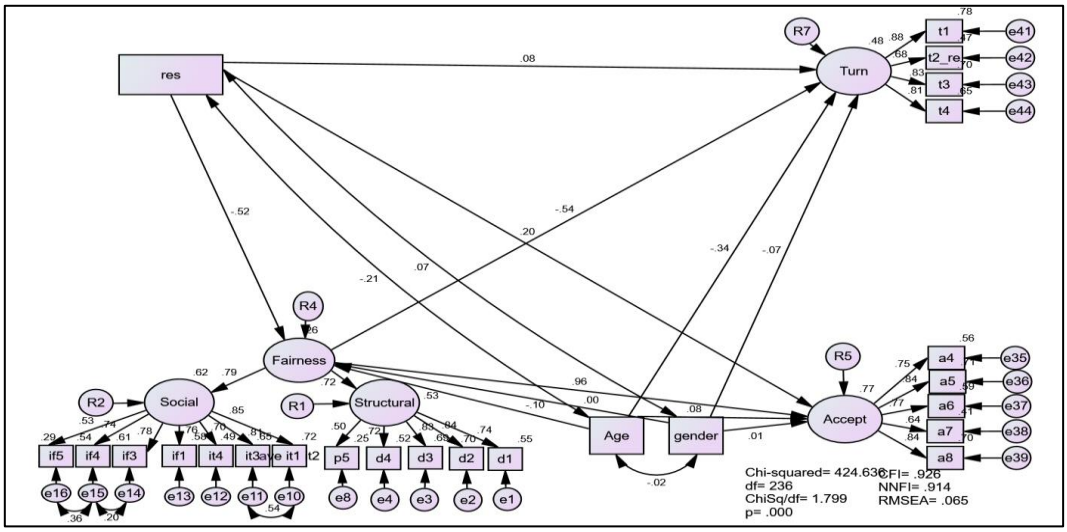


Figure L22. The standardised path coefficient for Model 2-**res** (with control variables)

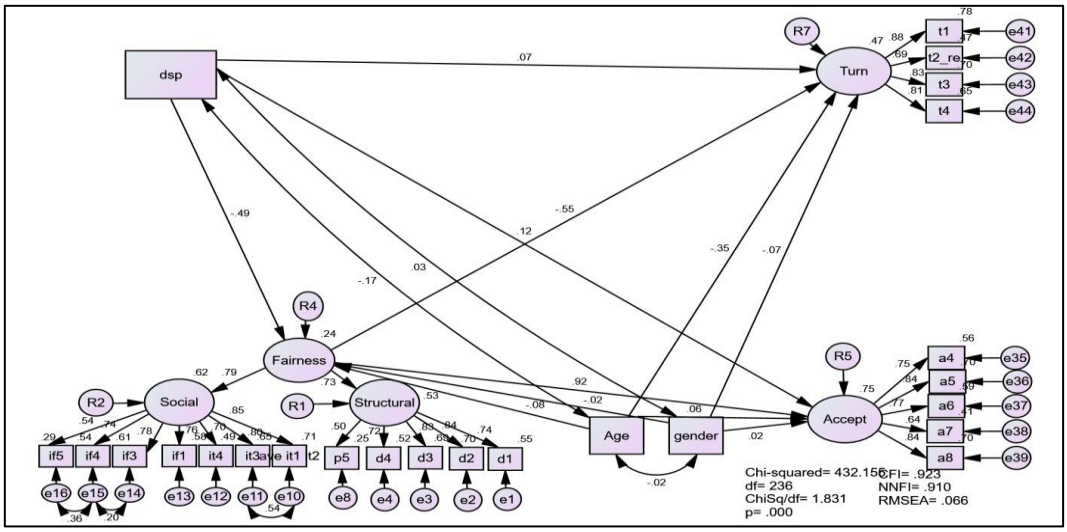


Figure L23. The standardised path coefficient for Model 2-**dsp** (with control variables)

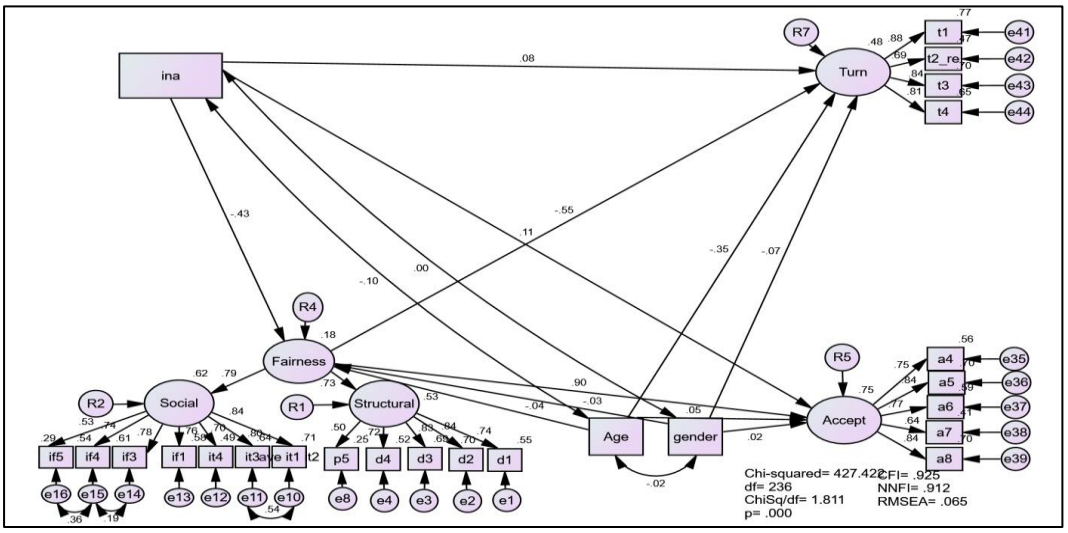


Figure L24. The standardised path coefficient for Model 2-**ina** (with control variables)

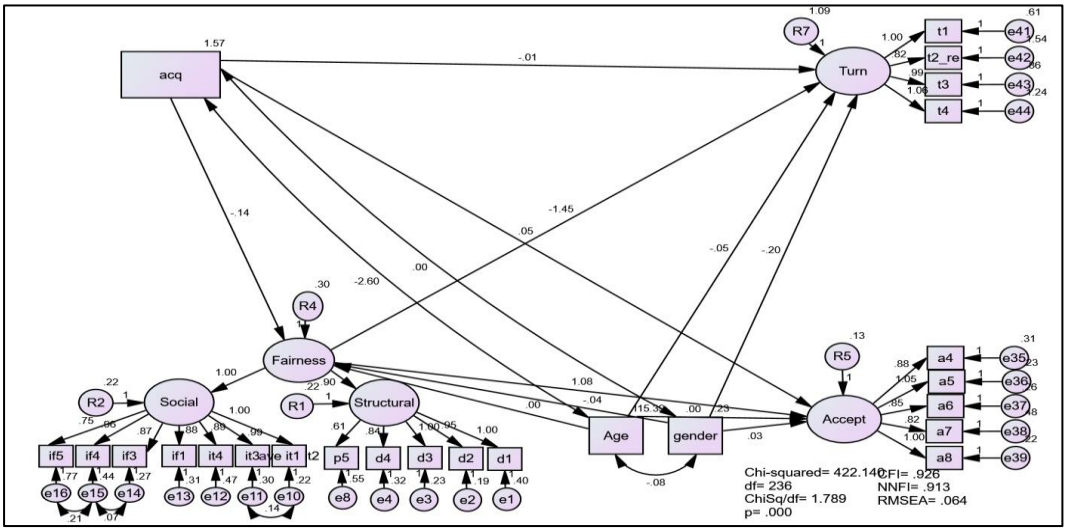


Figure L25. The standardised path coefficient for Model 2-**acq** (with control variables)

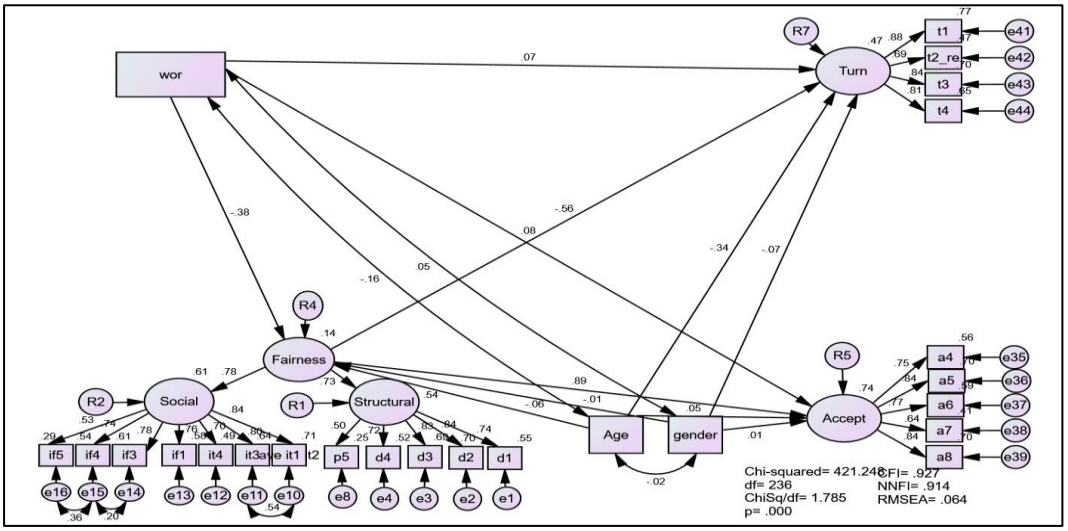


Figure L26. The standardised path coefficient for Model 2-**wor** (with control variables)

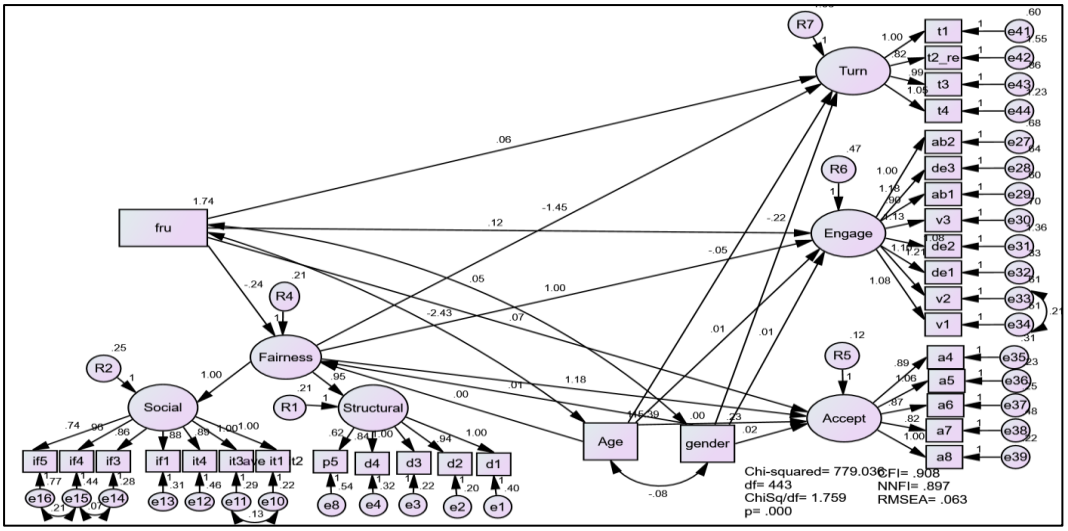


Figure L27. The standardised path coefficient for Model 2-**fru** (with control variables)

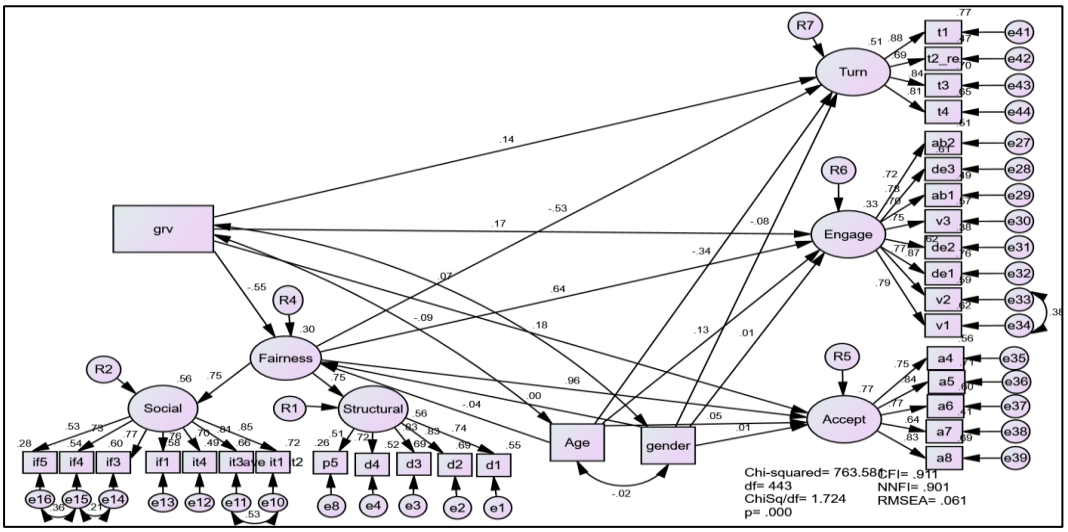


Figure L28. The standardised path coefficient for the Model 2-**grv** (with control variables)

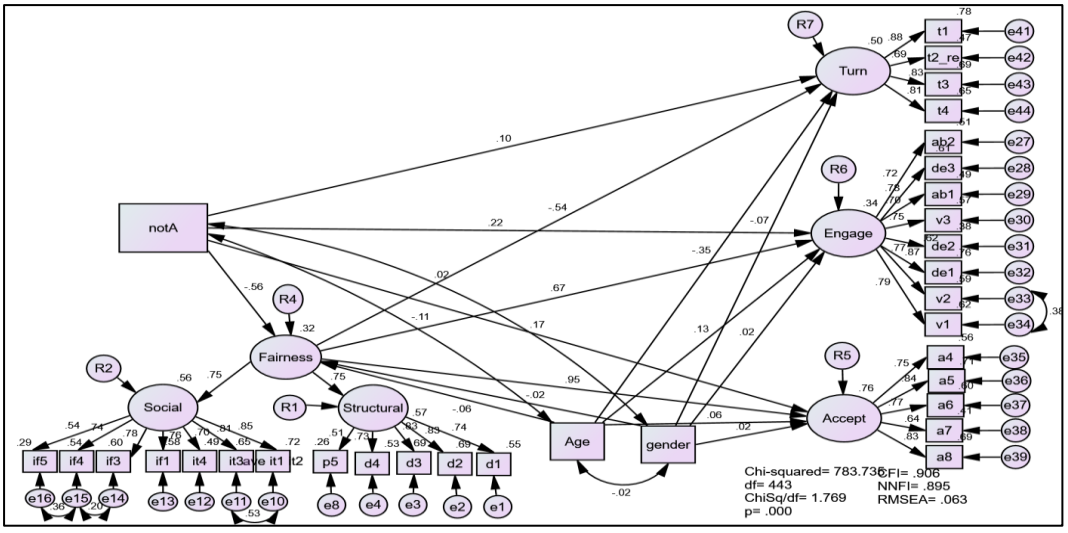


Figure L29. The standardised path coefficient for Model 2-**notA (**with control variables)

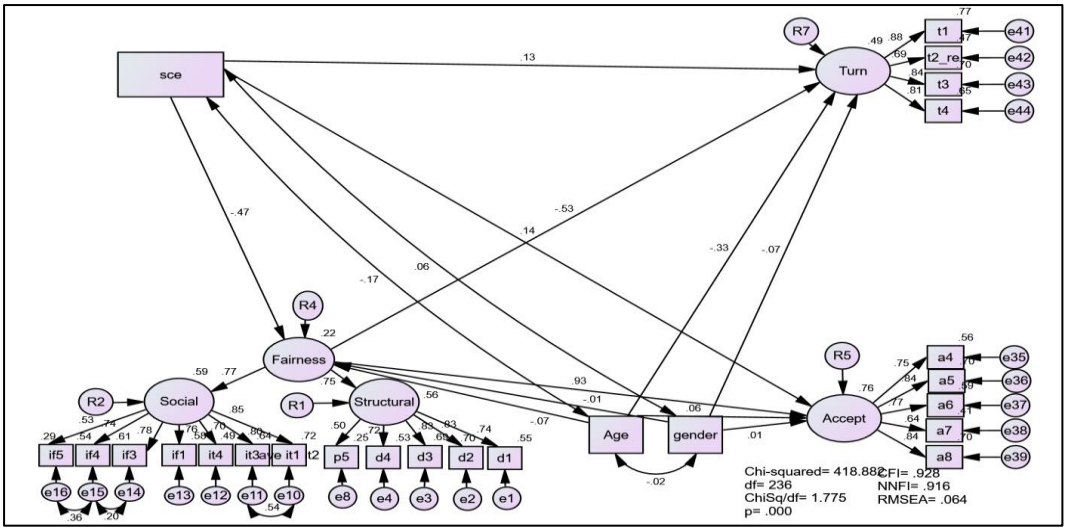


Figure L30. The standardised path coefficient for Model 2-**sce** (with control variables)