



저작자표시-비영리-변경금지 2.0 대한민국

이용자는 아래의 조건을 따르는 경우에 한하여 자유롭게

- 이 저작물을 복제, 배포, 전송, 전시, 공연 및 방송할 수 있습니다.

다음과 같은 조건을 따라야 합니다:



저작자표시. 귀하는 원저작자를 표시하여야 합니다.



비영리. 귀하는 이 저작물을 영리 목적으로 이용할 수 없습니다.



변경금지. 귀하는 이 저작물을 개작, 변형 또는 가공할 수 없습니다.

- 귀하는, 이 저작물의 재이용이나 배포의 경우, 이 저작물에 적용된 이용허락조건을 명확하게 나타내어야 합니다.
- 저작권자로부터 별도의 허가를 받으면 이러한 조건들은 적용되지 않습니다.

저작권법에 따른 이용자의 권리는 위의 내용에 의하여 영향을 받지 않습니다.

이것은 [이용허락규약\(Legal Code\)](#)을 이해하기 쉽게 요약한 것입니다.

[Disclaimer](#)

스포츠 매니지먼트 석사 학위논문

**Factors Influencing Employees'
Acceptance of Performance
Appraisal System in the Korean
Olympic Committee**

인사평가제도 수용성에 영향을 미치는 요인:
대한체육회를 중심으로

February 2016

**Seoul National University Graduate School
Department of Physical Education
Park, Do Kook**

Factors Influencing Employees’ Acceptance of Performance Appraisal System in the Korean Olympic Committee

Advisor Kim, Kihan

**Thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of Master of Sport
Management
December 2015**

**Seoul National University Graduate School
Department of Physical Education
Park, Do Kook**

**Park, Do Kook’s Master’s Degree Thesis in Sport
Management is hereby certified
December 2015**

Committee Chair 임 충 훈 (인)

Committee Vice Chair 김 유 겸 (인)

Committee Member 김 기 한 (인)

Abstract

Factors Influencing Employees' Acceptance of Performance Appraisal System in the Korean Olympic Committee

Do Kook Park
Department of Physical Education
Graduate School
Seoul National University

This Master's research has been performed for the purpose of testing the relationship between organizational justice and employees' acceptance of the performance appraisal system.

To be specific, this research has been aimed at exploring the main effects of the independent variables (procedural and distributive justice) on the dependent variable (employees' performance appraisal system acceptance) and the moderating effects of interactional justice on the relationships between the two organizational justices (procedural and distributive justice) and employees' performance appraisal system acceptance.

A total of 175 employees of the Korean Olympic Committee (KOC) participated in this research, and 165 out of 175 responses were finally used for the statistical data analysis. Using a convenience sampling approach, a survey was conducted with a questionnaire.

All four variables (procedural justice, distributive justice, interactional justice, and employees' performance appraisal system acceptance) were measured by a five-point Likert scale - 25 items (22 items for organizational justice, and three items for employees' performance appraisal system acceptance) were finally utilized in the data analysis.

The data was analyzed in the following three steps: step 1, the reliability of each variable was tested by Cronbach's α and the validity of each construct was examined by the Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA); step 2, descriptive statistics and correlations were examined; step 3, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed to identify the influence of organizational justice (procedural and distributive justice) on employees' performance appraisal system acceptance and to examine the moderating effects of interactional justice.

As a result of empirical analysis, three sub-constructs (validity of performance appraisal standards, adequacy of performance appraisal feedback, and participation during the performance appraisal process) in procedural justice and distributive justice were proven to positively affect employees' performance appraisal system acceptance.

In the case of moderating effects, interactional justice showed moderating effects on the relationships between the validity of performance appraisal standards (adequacy of performance appraisal feedback) and employees' performance appraisal system acceptance.

However, the relationship between employees' performance appraisal system acceptance and the other two variables (participation during the performance appraisal process and distributive justice) were not statistically moderated by interactional justice.

These unexpected findings, compared to previous research results, might be attributed to several different factors, such as research variables, subjects, method, the sample size, organizational situations, and culture.

This research has a significant meaning in that it was the first attempt to study factors influencing employees' performance appraisal system acceptance in the non-profit sport organization context, that it provided some recommendations to increase employees' performance appraisal system acceptance, and that it suggested theoretical and practical implications, which might be useful in Human Resource Management (HRM) in non-profit sport organizations in Korea.

Lastly, limitations of this research were presented with productive suggestions for additional future studies.

.....

Key words: organizational justice, procedural justice, distributive justice, interactional justice (moderating effect), performance appraisal system acceptance
Student ID no.: 2013-23403

Table of Contents

Abstract	i
Table of Contents	iv
List of Tables	vii
List of Figures	ix
List of Abbreviation	x
Chapter 1. Introduction	1
1. 1. General Background	1
1. 2. Purpose of the Study	4
1. 3. Research Questions and Hypotheses.....	5
1. 4. Significance of the Study	7
1. 5. Overview of the Study	8
Chapter 2. Literature Review	10
2. 1. Performance Appraisal.....	10
2. 1. 1. Performance Appraisal in General	12
2. 1. 2. Performance Appraisal in Sport Management	17
2. 1. 3. Downside of Performance Appraisal.	22
2. 1. 4. Defining Performance Appraisal Acceptance.	24
2. 1. 5. Factor Identification for Performance Appraisal Acceptance.	29
2. 2. Organizational Justice in Performance Appraisal	37
2. 2. 1. Procedural Justice	41
2. 2. 2. Distributive Justice.....	46
2. 2. 3. Interactional Justice.....	48

2. 2. 4. Organizational Justice in Sport Management.....	54
2. 3. Analysis of the Target Organization.....	57
2. 3. 1. Brief History	58
2. 3. 2. Organization Structure	60
2. 3. 3. Human Resources	62
2. 3. 4. Budget.....	62
2. 3. 5. Performance Appraisal System	63
2. 3. 6. Current Issues of Performance Appraisal System.....	65
Chapter 3. Research Design and Methodology	68
3. 1. Research Model	69
3. 2. Establishment of Hypotheses	70
3. 3. Operational Definition of Variables	75
3. 3. 1. Independent Variable.....	76
3. 3. 2. Moderator Variable	77
3. 3. 3. Dependent Variable	78
3. 3. 4. Control Variable	78
3. 4. Research Instrument.....	79
3. 5. Sample Selection and Data Collection.....	82
3. 6. Data Analysis Process	83
3. 6. 1. Purification Process.....	85
3. 6. 2. Investigation of Unidimensionality	88
3. 6. 3. Reliability Analysis	91
3. 6. 4. Validity Analysis	92

Chapter 4. Results	97
4. 1. Preliminary Analysis.....	97
4. 1. 1. Demographic Information.....	98
4. 1. 2. Descriptive Statistics.....	101
4. 1. 3. Mean Comparison between Groups.....	110
4. 1. 4. Correlation Analysis.....	117
4. 2. Tests of Hypotheses.....	120
4. 2. 1. Prerequisite before Test of Hypotheses.....	120
4. 2. 2. Procedure of Examining Main and Moderating Effects.....	122
4. 2. 3. Results of Hypotheses Tests.....	126
Chapter 5. Discussion	153
5. 1. Findings.....	153
5. 2. Implications.....	159
5. 2. 1. Theoretical Implications.....	160
5. 2. 2. Practical Implications.....	163
5. 3. Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research.....	170
References.....	172
Appendices.....	186
Appendix A. Survey Questionnaire (English Version).....	186
Appendix B. Survey Questionnaire (Korean Version).....	191
Abstract in Korean.....	196

List of Tables

Table 1. Extant Literature Related to Performance Measurement and Management in NPSOs.....	21
Table 2. Definitions/Perspective and Factors/Dimensions of PA System Acceptance.....	28
Table 3. Identified Factors Influencing Performance Appraisal System Acceptance.....	36
Table 4. Definitions/Perspective and Factors/Dimensions of Organizational Justice.....	52
Table 5. Current Status of Human Resources in 2015	62
Table 6. Current Status of Budget in 2015.....	63
Table 7. Reflection Ratio of Performance Appraisal	65
Table 8. Structure of the Questionnaire.....	81
Table 9. Questionnaire Distribution Return Rate.....	83
Table 10. Corrected Item-Total Correlation (a).....	86
Table 11. Corrected Item-Total Correlation (b).....	86
Table 12. Alpha if Item Deleted (a).....	87
Table 13. Alpha if Item Deleted (b)	87
Table 14. Unrotated Component Matrix	89
Table 15. Corrected Item-Total Correlation and Alpha if Item Deleted.....	90
Table 16. Unrotated Component Matrix of PA System Acceptance	91
Table 17. Cronbach's α after Purification Process and Unidimensionality Test ..	92
Table 18. Cronbach's α after Exploratory Factor Analysis	94
Table 19. Rotated Factor Matrix	95

Table 20. Verified Variables (Items) for Tests of Hypotheses	96
Table 21. Demographic Information	100
Table 22. Descriptive Statistics of All Variables	103
Table 23. Descriptive Statistics of Validity of PA Standards.....	104
Table 24. Descriptive Statistics of Adequacy of PA Feedback.....	105
Table 25. Descriptive Statistics of Participation during the PA Process	106
Table 26. Descriptive Statistics of Distributive Justice.....	107
Table 27. Descriptive Statistics of Interactional Justice.....	108
Table 28. Descriptive Statistics of PA System Acceptance	109
Table 29. Mean Comparison: Validity of PA Standards	111
Table 30. Mean Comparison: Adequacy of PA Feedback	112
Table 31. Mean Comparison: Participation during the PA Process.....	113
Table 32. Mean Comparison: Distributive Justice	114
Table 33. Mean Comparison: Interactional Justice	115
Table 34. Mean Comparison: PA System Acceptance	116
Table 35. Results of Correlation Analysis.....	119
Table 36. Mean of PA System Acceptance by Interactional Justice and Validity of PA Standards	132
Table 37. Test Results of Hypotheses 1a and 1b	134
Table 38. Mean of PA System Acceptance by Interactional Justice and Adequacy of PA Feedback	138
Table 39. Test Results of Hypotheses 2a and 2b	141
Table 40. Test Results of Hypotheses 3a and 3b	146
Table 41. Test Results of Hypotheses 4a and 4b	151
Table 42. Summarized Test Results of Hypotheses	152

List of Figures

Figure 1. Purposes of Performance Appraisal.....	17
Figure 2. The role of Employee Voice, Information Validity, and Performance Appraisal Effectiveness	33
Figure 3. Diagram of the Proposed Integrative Theoretical Model	50
Figure 4. Internal Structure of the KOC.....	60
Figure 5. External Structure of the KOC	61
Figure 6. Research Process	68
Figure 7. Research Model for Test of Hypotheses	69
Figure 8. Composition of the Questionnaire	80
Figure 9. Data Analysis Process.....	84
Figure 10. Moderator Model.....	124
Figure 11. Test Process of Main and Moderating Effects	126
Figure 12. Moderating Effects of Interactional Justice for H1b	132
Figure 13. Summarized Test Results of Hypotheses 1a and 1b	133
Figure 14. Moderating Effects of Interactional Justice for H2b	139
Figure 15. Summarized Test Results of Hypotheses 2a and 2b	140
Figure 16. Summarized Test Results of Hypotheses 3a and 3b	145
Figure 17. Summarized Test Results of Hypotheses 4a and 4b	150

List of Abbreviation

AF	Adequacy of PA Feedback
ANOC	Association of the National Olympic Committee
BARS	Behaviorally Anchored Rating Scale
BOS	Behavioral Observation Scale
DJ	Distributive Justice
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
HR	Human Resources
HRD	Human Resources Development
HRM	Human Resources Management
HRMS	Human Resources Management System
IJ	Interactional Justice
IOC	International Olympic Committee
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
KOC	Korean Olympic Committee
KSPO	Korea Sports Promotion Foundation
LMX	Leader-Member Exchange
MBO	Management of Objectives
MCST	Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism
NCAA	National Collegiate Athletic Association
NPSO	Non-Profit Sport Organization
NSO	National Sport Organization
NTC	National Training Center
OCA	Olympic Council of Asia
PA	Performance Appraisal
PDP	Participation during the Performance Appraisal Process
PSA	Performance Appraisal System Acceptance
VPS	Validity of Performance Appraisal Standards

Chapter 1. Introduction

1. 1. General Background

These days, organizations in the world have challenged unlimited competition within accelerated globalization derived from the rapidly changing business environment.

In this global situation, inevitably, institutions have focused on retaining and utilizing human resources to acquire competitiveness for survival and prosperity.

Human resources, which can be interchangeably used with human capital, is one of the key elements for value creation of business and has an important role for sustainable future growth.

Corporations in Korea are not an exception. Since the Asian financial crisis in 1997, which affected the Korean economy greatly, abolished the old traditional, unproductive management system, Korean companies have attempted to establish a structural innovation to adopt a new Human Resources Management System (HRMS).

The merit pay system and the performance-based appraisal system are examples of the new HRMS. Following the current HR phenomenon, the HR trend has shifted from the traditional seniority system to the new HRMS, which emphasizes more productive work performance for important

management decisions to be made, such as pay increases, promotions, demotions, transfer, training, and layoffs.

Under the current HR circumstances, the importance of implementing performance appraisals has been continuously increasing because it is the performance appraisal that is the basis of crucial administrative and management decisions every year.

Therefore, it is commonly seen that public and private organizations have been spending millions of dollars to develop a better, more accurate and fair performance appraisal system.

Performance appraisal, however, has become a controversial topic for more than a half century because no matter how reasonably and elaborately a performance appraisal system is designed, it is almost impossible for organizations to manage the appraisal system efficiently and effectively without employees' acceptance and support of performance appraisals (Huber, 1983).

More so, despite the increasing importance of performance appraisals, the public sector has received only minimal attention to determine elements of an effective performance appraisal system and to assess employees' perception of performance appraisal (Huber, 1983). Hence, it is imperative to develop a fair and accurate appraisal system that will satisfy both employees and employers.

In the case of non-profit sport organizations in Korea, no research was found that investigates issues relevant to employees' performance appraisal acceptance. Only a few researchers have studied issues related to performance management but not to employees' acceptance of the performance appraisal system.

Kim (2007), for example, examined the performance management system of public sport center staff regarding pay satisfaction and organizational effectiveness.

Other scholars such as Park & Lee (2012) explored the structural relationship between the leader trust, organizational commitment, organizational trust, and job performance of public sports facilities' employees.

Hong (2013) also analyzed the effect of a performance management system on organizational commitment and job satisfaction of public sport center employees.

Although, as stated above, several studies were implemented to investigate certain elements and relationships concerning performance management in public sport organizations, scholars and HR professionals have not paid attention to issues in reference to employees' acceptance of the performance appraisal system in the non-profit sport organization context.

Therefore, taking the global changes of human resource management in public organizations into consideration, especially with the emergence of an emphasis on employees' acceptance of the performance appraisal system, it is not too much to say that it will be useful, valuable and meaningful to implement research to determine factors and analyze their relationships with employees' acceptance of the performance appraisal system in a non-profit sport organization in Korea.

1. 2. Purpose of the Study

The present study is aimed at identifying factors and their impacts that may account for employees' acceptance of the performance appraisal system in a non-profit sport organization, the Korean Olympic Committee (KOC), in Korea, including the moderating effects of interactional justice, using theories based on organizational justice: procedural, distributive, and interactional justice.

The need to examine such factors was deemed necessary because there have been apathetic attitudes and perennial problems existing in the organization for many years with regard to the employee performance appraisal system. More specific purposes of this master's thesis are as follows in detail:

Firstly, this research will examine the impact of procedural and distributive justice that affect employees' performance appraisal system acceptance.

Secondly, this research will explore the moderating effects of interactional justice on the relationships between two organizational justices (procedural and distributive justice) and employees' acceptance of the performance appraisal system.

1. 3. Research Questions and Hypotheses

This master's thesis explores these three research questions below.

1) What are the organizational justices that will affect employees' acceptance of the performance appraisal system?

2) What are the relationships between the organizational justices and employees' acceptance of the performance appraisal system?

3) What are the moderating effects of interactional justice on the relationships between the other two organizational justices (procedural and distributive) and employees' acceptance of the performance appraisal system?

Drawing on findings through literature review, especially on the organizational justice theories within the performance appraisal context, this Master's research examines the following eight hypotheses.

H1a. Perceived validity of performance appraisal standards will be positively related to employees' performance appraisal system acceptance.

H1b. When employees' perception of interactional justice is higher, the relationship between validity of performance appraisal standards and employees' performance appraisal system acceptance will be greater.

H2a. Perceived adequacy of performance appraisal feedback will be positively related to employees' performance appraisal system acceptance.

H2b. When employees' perception of interactional justice is higher, the relationship between adequacy of performance appraisal feedback and employees' performance appraisal system acceptance will be greater.

H3a. Perceived participation during the performance appraisal process will be positively related to employees' performance appraisal system acceptance.

H3b. When employees' perception of interactional justice is higher, the relationship between participation during the performance appraisal process and employees' performance appraisal system acceptance will be greater.

H4a. Perceived distributive justice will be positively related to employees' performance appraisal system acceptance.

H4b. When employees' perception of interactional justice is higher, the relationship between distributive justice and employees' performance appraisal system acceptance will be greater.

1. 4. Significance of the Study

There are numerous research in reference to performance management or performance appraisal in both public and private sectors. However, there is insufficient research that have focused on employees' acceptance of the performance appraisal system of non-profit sport organizations, especially in Korea.

It is salient to point out that the importance of employees' acceptance of the performance appraisal system because, without their intrinsic and extrinsic support, performance appraisal cannot fulfill its prime objectives: evaluation and development of human resources.

Despite the importance of employees' performance appraisal acceptance, researchers were more interested in studying factors, such as assessment forms, tools, the cognitive process of raters, partial characteristics of performance appraisals, and effectiveness rather than the actual components such as organizational justice, which might have an influence on employees' performance appraisal system acceptance.

In addition, many academicians examined the importance of interpersonal relationships between managers and employees in organizations (Burke, Weitzel, & Weir, 1980; Bies & Moag, 1986; Greenberg, 1990; Leung, Su & Morris, 2001; Cropanzano, Prehar & Chen, 2002). However, no studies have ever been found to examine the moderating effect of interactional justice on employees' acceptance of the performance appraisal system in the organizational context, especially non-profit sport organizations in Korea.

In this regard, this study has a significant meaning in analyzing one of the unexplored fields of the HRM. Thus, this research will be useful as a guide for those interested in performance appraisal research and who are looking for feasible and practical solutions for operating performance appraisal systems in non-profit sport organizations in Korea.

1. 5. Overview of the Study

This master's thesis is made up of five chapters: introduction, literature review, research design and methodology, results, and discussion.

In chapter 1 (Introduction), general background, the purpose of the study, research questions, hypotheses, significance of the study, and overview of the study are introduced.

In chapter 2 (Literature Review), the existing literature is reviewed as a theoretical framework. This chapter provides detailed information about performance appraisal acceptance (the dependent variable), procedural and distributive justice (the independent variable), and interactional justice (the moderator variable). This chapter also deals with basic information regarding the KOC, which is the target organization for this research.

In chapter 3 (Research Design and Methodology), research design and methodology are explained, which includes research model, establishment of hypotheses, operational definition of variables, research instrument, sample selection, data collection, and the data analysis process.

In chapter 4 (Results), the results of the research are analyzed and hypotheses are tested. In the section of results analysis, demographic information, descriptive statistics, mean comparison between groups, and correlation analysis results are presented.

In the section of tests of hypotheses, a prerequisite before tests of hypotheses, procedure of examining main and moderating effects, and results of hypotheses tests are addressed.

In chapter 5 (Discussion) , a summary of findings, implication (theoretical and practical), limitations, and suggestions for future study are delivered.

Chapter 2. Literature Review

This chapter reviews prior studies on the nature and effectiveness of performance appraisals including acceptance by employees to structure the present research and explain its meaningful contribution to the extant performance appraisal research.

This study also focuses on discovering the rationales to provide empirical evidence for the statement that there are some significant factors that can affect employees' acceptance of the performance appraisal system. Having these purposes in mind, this literature review will commence with a brief sketch of performance appraisal.

2. 1. Performance Appraisal

Performance appraisal (PA), a part of performance management, has been identified as a salient management instrument for assessing employee work performance, clarifying management decisions, such as promotion, demotion, transfer, or retention, and allocating financial rewards, as well as helping reinforce the employees' capability by providing feedback or supporting their training needs (Kim, 2014).

According to Grote (2002), early references to a performance appraisal can be found over a hundred years ago in America. The first prototype of the performance appraisal system in America was the federal

Civil Service Commission's merit rating system, which started in 1887. In 1914, Lord & Taylor initiated a performance appraisal based on 'scientific management', and many companies were under the influence of their new management practice.

However, it was not until World War II that organizations began conducting any formal performance appraisals. Only a few institutions, including the military, used the performance appraisal regularly. Most organizations using performance appraisals concentrated more on personality and the character of employees than actual outcomes of the job performance without proper performance criteria that could measure individual's work achievement (Grote, 2002).

Then, in the 1950s, Peter Drucker introduced a creative idea, Management by Objective (MBO¹), which soon gained popularity (Grote, 2002). In the 1960's and 1970's, studies exploring a rating scale and developing performance criteria reached its peak. Researchers developed several tools and formats for performance measurement including the Behavioral Observation Scale (BOS), the Behaviorally Anchored Rating Scale (BARS) and the Mixed Standard Scale. In the 1980's, major issues of the performance appraisal was to improve the psychometric characteristics of

¹ McConkie (1979) defined that *MBO* is a managerial process in which purposes of organizations are diagnosed and achieved by mutually agreed upon goals and objective performance standards between supervisors and employees.

the rating instrument to reduce the intrinsic subjectivity of performance ratings (Feldman, 1981).

More recent studies from the 1990's to the present of performance appraisal have concentrated on procedural and structural characteristics that impact the attitudes and participants' positive reactions of the system besides psychometric attributes. Research topics frequently studied during this time period were employee attitudes toward performance appraisals, system acceptance, rater and ratee satisfaction (Roberts, 1992).

From the work of Drucker and McGregor to the research dealing with performance appraisals introduced in this section, performance appraisal systems and procedures have matured to the point where most organizations today have adopted a formal appraisal system (Grote, 2002).

2. 1. 1. Performance Appraisal in General

Performance appraisal has become a universal practice and many organizations have adopted a formal or informal assessment which measures performance, contribution, and productivity of employees or organizations.

Grote (2002) defines performance appraisal as an official management practice that provides for evaluating the quality of an individual's performance in an organization. The appraisal is prepared by the employee's direct supervisor or manager. The procedure typically requires

the supervisors to fill out a standardized assessment form, which evaluates the individual on several dimensions with evaluation indices, and then discusses the outcomes of the evaluation with the employee.

Latham and Wexley (1981) insisted that a review of legal requirements, development of an appraisal instrument, selection, and training of observers, and praise or reward for performance are important factors to be considered. After this process, employees are graded on their merits by raters.

Huber (1983) insisted that three main purposes of a performance appraisal are evaluation, development, and employee protection, and stressed the function of a performance appraisal as a method that helps prevent any miscommunication between employees and supervisors.

DeNisi, Cafferty, and Meglino (1984) stated that performance appraisal is a movement within the scope of social perception and cognition rooted in an organizational context in which formal and accurate judgment is required.

Henderson (1984) contended that performance appraisal is an important part of managing organization for its potential influence on various job-related functions. For instance, performance appraisals can provide the information necessary to make administrative decisions (promotions, pay increases) and for developmental purposes (coaching, feedback).

Mohrman, Resnick-West and Lawler (1989) underlined the

significant role of performance appraisal as a communication tool to connect organizations and their employees in the alignment that helps pursue goals of both employees and the organizations.

They also stressed the positive effect of performance appraisals that can facilitate employee motivation and productivity with the one condition that it should be properly applied.

Moreover, the gained information from performance appraisals can be employed for validation of human resource decisions: pay increases, promotion, and transfer, etc. They also highlighted that performance appraisals can provide useful strategic information for organizations to set a plan for employee development.

Lacho, Stearns, and Whelan (1991) emphasized that it is critical to get a performance appraisal system to operate usefully so as to make organizations more efficient and effective.

Research conducted by Roberts (1992) can be construed in such a way that performance appraisal systems that display a higher degree of participation are positively related to increased employee and rater acceptance, which is a significant variable in which appraisal system satisfaction, motivation, and productivity can be generated.

Roberts and Pavlak (1996) revealed that effectively managed

performance appraisal systems can help foster an atmosphere in which employee performance can be enhanced by detailed performance feedback produced by the appraisal system.

They also clarified that performance appraisals help supervisors decide on the importance of training. They mentioned effective operation of performance appraisal systems because increasing employee motivation and productivity is intimately linked to performance appraisal systems.

Longenecker and Nykodym (1996, p.151) encapsulated the core benefits of employing performance appraisals: provides managers with a useful communication tool for employee goal-setting and performance planning, increasing employee motivation and productivity, facilitating discussions with regard to employee growth and development, providing a solid basis for wage and salary administration, and providing data for a host of human resource decisions.

Coens and Jenkins (2000) contended that it is mandatory for organizations to employ a performance appraisal system because they need to judge and rate their employees' individual work performance, behaviors, or traits by raters.

Gabris and Ihrke (2000) noted there are three reasons why organizations operate performance appraisals.

Firstly, it can be a tool to provide employees with periodic and

formal feedback so they can compare their performance level with specific performance goals their organizations set to achieve. Secondly, it can be employed as a way to manage employee behavior and performance outcomes. Lastly, it can be utilized to set standards to decide employee rewards.

Mani (2002) insisted that performance appraisals have a significant role in identifying weaknesses of employees to develop and obstacles to remove within their assigned tasks, ultimately enhancing their job performance. He also put a stress on a useful function of performance appraisals, which can help employees to keep improving their performance and provide affirmative reinforcement. Even those whose job performance is way better than average can be benefited by performance appraisals.

More recent research performed by Oh and Lewis (2009) stated, considering the results-oriented government reform efforts, performance appraisals serve as a vital element of the performance management, and will offer opportunities for organizations to achieve their organizational goals and improve productivity by providing organizational members with constructive feedback for their development and the chances of being motivated by connecting the feedback to performance.

Taking all prior studies reviewed in this section into account, purposes of performance appraisal in general can be conceptually summarized in what Cascio explained in 2012 (see Figure 1, p.17).

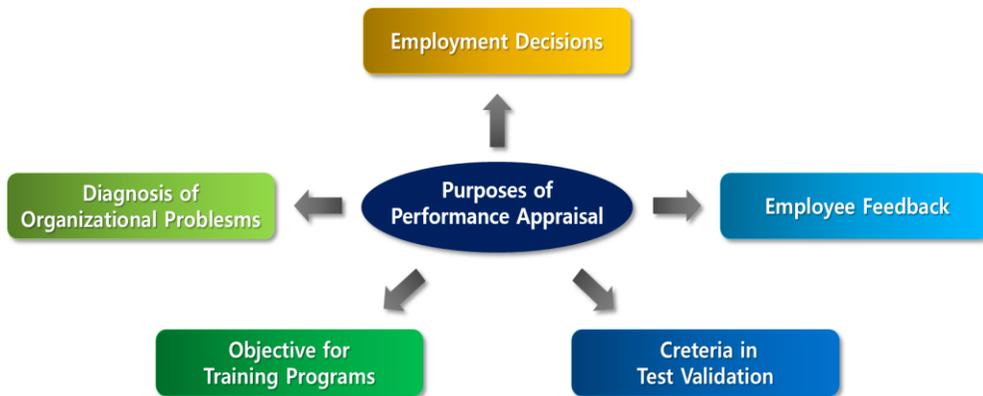


Figure 1. Purposes of Performance Appraisal

Source: Cascio (2012), *Managing Human Resources* 9th Edition, McGraw-Hill, p337.

2. 1. 2. Performance Appraisal in Sport Management

Although the main purpose of non-profit sport organizations is not to generate financial gain, it is still important to measure employees' productivity by which the future of organizations can be determined. As in other organizations, this is done by the use of a performance appraisal system.

Despite its important influence on organizational performance, relatively little research has been conducted on the issues such as performance management or measurement, especially the performance appraisal system in non-profit sport organizations. One of possible answers for the dearth of research in non-profit sport organizations is that academic interest in this field is in its infancy and the research in this field is sporadic.

For this reason, it is difficult to review previous research dealing with the topic regarding the performance appraisal context. A few studies have been performed in Canada and European countries such as Belgium, France, Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain; however, little research has been found dealing with the issues found in Korea. Previous research conducted in European countries is as follows:

Frisby (1986) studied the ability of National Sport Governing Bodies (NSGBs) to secure scarce financial resources concerning its objective of excellence performance in Canadian National Sport Governing Bodies using quantitative methodology (see Table 1, p.21).

Chelladurai and Haggerty (1991) researched Canadian National Sport Governing Bodies to study results of different perceptions of process between volunteers and professional staff by the quantitative approach.

Papadimitriou and Taylor (2000) analyzed twenty Greek National Sport Organizations and found five dimensions of performance: stability of the board and key strategic partnerships, athlete development, internal processes, strategic planning, and the use of emerging sport science with the quantitative tool (see Table 1, p.21).

Bayle and Madella (2002) employed quantitative and qualitative measures to conduct research on forty French National Sport Organizations using six dimensions of performance: social internal, social external, publicity, institutional, and organizational (see Table 1, p.21).

Madella, Bayle, and Tome (2005) noticed human resources, institutional communication, finance, inter-organizational relations and partnership, volume and quality services, and athletes' international performance as five dimensions of performance, conducting research in National Swimming Federations in Greece, Spain, Italy, and Portugal with quantitative and qualitative methodology (see Table 1, p.21).

Shilbury and Moore (2006) used qualitative and quantitative design to study ten Australian Olympic Sport Organizations and noticed diverse dimensions of effectiveness, such as flexibility, resources, productivity, planning stability, and information (see Table 1, p.21).

Winand, Rihoux, Qualizza, and Zintz (2011) explored eighteen National Sport Organizations (NSOs) and discussed performance using qualitative analysis from three perspectives: focusing on elite sport, developing innovative activities, and the use of a wide range of volunteer expertise (see Table 1, p.21).

Winand, Rihoux, Robinson, & Zintz (2012) carried out research in NSOs by quantitative and qualitative research to find three pathways to 'high performance', drawing on five important key factors of performance.

Morrow and Chelladurai (1992) claimed that early research regarding measuring organizational performance in non-profit sport organizations (NPSOs) mostly examined one aspect of performance.

However, considering performance pressures placed on NPSOs by internal and external factors, such as business restructuring or mergers and acquisitions, studies recently conducted have concentrated on a multi-level approach to explore a variety of performance dimensions.

Herman and Renz (1999, p.110) contending that performance within a non-profit organization is multidimensional and can never be “reducible to a single measure.”

Among scholars who studied performance management at the national level within NPSOs, Papadimitriou and Taylor (2000) employed a multiple constituency approach to assessing performance of Greek NPSOs by concentrating on the determinants of their relations with the outcomes of their institutions. Their quantitative performance measurement approach presented an outline of organizational performance within these NPSOs.

As stated above, most of the research themes were all related to determinants of performance management and focused on the performance management itself. Some research was implemented to explore stakeholder satisfaction, but none of them directly studied issues concerning employees’ responses or perceptions of performance appraisal systems. Thus, it will be meaningful to plan and execute research to explore factors affecting the PA system acceptance in a non-profit sport organization, especially in Korea.

Table 1. Extant Literature Related to Performance Measurement and Management in NPSOs

Authors	Design	Sample	Major results and findings
Frisby (1986)	Quantitative	Canadian National Sport Governing Bodies	The ability of NGBs to secure scarce financial resources is related to its goal of excellence
Chelladurai et al. (1987)	Quantitative	Canadian National Sport Governing Bodies	Results focus on process effectiveness perception differences between volunteers and professional staff
Papadimitriou & Taylor (2000)	Quantitative	20 Greek National Sport Organizations	Provides five dimensions of performance: Stability of the board and key strategic partnerships, athlete development, internal processes, strategic planning and the use of emerging sport science
Bayle & Madella (2002)	Quantitative Qualitative	40 French National Sport Organizations	Provides six dimensions of performance: institutional, social internal, social external, finance, publicity, organizational
Madella et al. (2005)	Quantitative Qualitative	National Swimming Federations in Portugal, Greece, Spain and Italy	Provides five dimensions of performance: Human resources, finance, institutional communication, partnership and inter-organizational relations, volume and quality of services, athletes' international performance
Shilbury & Mooree (2006)	Quantitative Qualitative	10 Austrian Olympic Sport Organizations	Provides various dimensions of Effectiveness including: Productivity, flexibility, resources, planning, information, stability
Winand et al. (2011)	Qualitative	18 NSOs in Belgium	Discusses performance from three perspectives: focusing on elite sport, developing innovative activities, the use of a broad range of volunteer expertise
Winand et al. (2012)	Quantitative Qualitative	18 NSOs in Belgium	Develops three pathways to 'high performance' based on five key determinants of performance

Source: O'Boyle, I., & Hassan, D. (2014). Performance management and measurement in national-level non-profit sport, p.304.

2. 1. 3. Downside of Performance Appraisal

In spite of its vital role and widespread use in an organizational context, performance appraisal has become one of the most challenging tasks that are continually criticized and debated by not only ratees but also raters (Walsh, 2003; Kim, 2014). Attention and resources have been applied to the practice; however, employees are still dissatisfied with the procedure, and systems are often regarded as unfair and inaccurate (Church, 1985).

According to McGregor (1972), one reason why managers or supervisors who conduct a critical role as raters have negative views toward performance appraisal is that raters have uncomfortable feeling when criticizing employees' performance because of low validity of the performance appraisal process and lack of capacity to perform a performance appraisal interview with employees.

Most importantly, he contended that the negative connotation rooted in the concept of conventional performance appraisal: passive role of employees, pointing out employees' weakness or mistakes, would be one of the primary causes that result in the resistance from managers and employees.

Morrisey (1983) claimed that performance appraisal practice in governmental institutions should be criticized because most managers don't put more efforts into the process that was the absolute necessity to meet paperwork requirement of the work.

Hughes (1986) stated that discouragement, lower perceived value, and negative perceptions are the major characteristics that describe the process of performance appraisal in the public sector.

Within the psychometric perspective, a design and construction of performance appraisal system can be appropriate; however, on the whole, still practically ineffective because users feel uncomfortable or don't accept it. The effectiveness of a PA system, hence, particularly relies on the users' attitudes of the system, both raters and ratees (Roberts, 1990).

Daley (1992) pointed out that it doesn't matter whether a performance appraisal system is well structured or designed, it will not become useful if employees do not accept the performance appraisal, or they do not regard it as useful or valid.

Mulvaney, McKinney, and Grodsky (2012) analyzed the pay-for-performance system operated in the Elmhurst Park District in Illinois by asking employees' satisfaction with appraisal interviews and their perceptions of integrity in the process. Their empirical finding presented that when employees were not allowed to have chances to express their concerns in the appraisal process, and when feedback from a supervisor is not clear enough and less job-related to help employees find their weak area to enhance upon, their satisfaction with the process and its integrity decreased.

As already explored in the previous section, despite its positive aspects, performance appraisal has been none the better because system users: raters and ratees are not satisfied with the process and validity of performance appraisal system. Especially, employees view appraisal system neither accurate nor fair. Hence, it is imperative to unearth factors that make performance appraisals inaccurate and unfair to increase the level of employees' performance appraisal system acceptance.

2. 1. 4. Defining Performance Appraisal Acceptance

Efforts to comprehend employees' acceptance of performance appraisals have been widely made in the applied and social psychology (Greenberg, 1986b; Carroll & Schneier, 1982; Murphy & Cleveland, 1995).

Despite useful, valid and reliable functions for measuring acceptance of performance appraisals to improve the process of performance appraisals practically and expand the theoretical framework in the public administration, little empirical research has been performed (Kim, 2014). In other words, there is a weakness in existing performance appraisal studies: a lack of clear and consistent definition of performance appraisal acceptance (Roberts 1994).

A word, 'acceptance', according to the Longman online dictionary², means to agree to take something such as an idea, statement, or explanation that you have been offered.

² **Source:** <http://www.ldoceonline.com/dictionary/acceptance>

Kossek (1989) defined performance appraisal acceptance as an indicator where employees had a favorable attitude toward the HR system and stressed that employees' acceptance including their positive attitudes to the process may result in changes in their behavior and improvement in their work performance (see Table 2, p.28).

Murphy and Cleveland (1995) postulated that procedural and distributive justice perceived by employees can affect performance appraisal acceptance if these two justices are related to the performance appraisal process with its perceived accuracy.

Hedge and Teachout (2000) stated that performance acceptance is an important factor for the success of a performance appraisal system, and the level of acceptance can be determined by the employees' perception of fairness, rating accuracy, and confidence.

Reinke (2003) suggested that performance appraisal acceptance is the extent to which employees of organizations view their appraisal system as assessing their job-related performance and contributions and also trust the system to compensate their performance (see Table 2, p.28).

Koo, Kang, and Kim (2004) claimed that acceptance of performance appraisals is a degree in which appraisal is regarded as a legally acceptable, necessary and fair procedure, and employees all agree to employ the outcomes as basic information for the appraisal purpose (see Table 2, p.28).

Interestingly, most scholars dealt with fairness or accuracy of performance appraisals as one of the keys to increasing employees' appraisal acceptance, and thought performance appraisal is a management tool to be utilized for making administrative decisions on promotion, pay increases, layoffs, etc.

However, there were some researchers (Beer, 1982; Daley, 1992; Boswell & Boudreau, 2000) who approached this issue from a different point of view. They stated that employees' acceptance of performance appraisals can be a way to help develop employees' potential, and appraisal acceptance can be enhanced by its developmental purposes.

Beer (1982) insisted that the developmental function occurs when a manager opens his or her mind to start to communicate with an employee and present career opportunities. He also contended that an easier, favorable, and effective appraisal process depends on the extent to which a performance appraisal session concentrates on the development of employees before making management decisions.

Daley (1992) also stated that if a performance appraisal is employed as a developmental function, employee acceptance and motivation can be enhanced since it suggests that the employees' contribution can be improved by constructive feedback (see Table 2, p.28).

Boswell and Boudreau (2000) found that providing useful suggestions and training chances can give employees more satisfaction with a performance appraisal if it is designed and applied for the purpose of employee development.

As mentioned above, acceptance of performance appraisals requires certain basic components such as awareness of its importance, behavior and attitude changes, which means if employees can accept their performance appraisal system, they will be more likely to agree to the importance and necessity of their performance appraisal system.

Thus, the performance appraisal system acceptance can be defined as an attitude in which employees accept the system internally and externally that results in their behavioral changes (Ryu, 2012; see Table 2, p.28).

In conclusion, taking all of the statements of the academic authors in this section into account, performance appraisal system acceptance can be defined as employees' attitudes of accepting the practical importance and value of the performance appraisal system to develop and strengthen competencyies to reach their potential, doing their utmost to increase job performance, and achieve organizational objectives not only for employees themselves but also for their organizations.

Table 2. Definitions/Perspective and Factors/Dimensions of PA System Acceptance

Author	Definition / Perspective	Factor / Dimension
Kossek (1989)	Indicator where employees have a favorable attitude toward the HR system	Positive attitude to the process
Hedge et al. (2000)	Important factor for the success of the performance appraisal system	Perceived fairness, Rating Accuracy, Confidence
Reinke (2003)	The extent to which members of organizations view their appraisal system as precisely assessing their job-related performance	Job-Related performance
Koo et al. (2004)	The degree in which appraisal is regarded as a legally acceptable, necessary and fair procedure	A Fair Procedure
Beer (1982); Daley (1992); Boswell et al. (2002)	Way to help develop employees' potential and can be enhanced by its developmental purposes	Developmental Purposes
Beer (1982)	Enhanced by easier, favorable, and effective appraisal process	Development-Based Appraisal
Daley (1992)	Increased by developmental function	Constructive Feedback
Boswell et al. (2000)	Satisfied if it is applied as a developmental purpose	Training Chances, Useful Suggestions
Ryu (2012)	The attitude in which employees accept the system internally and externally that results in their behavior changes	Behavioral changes

Note. Summarized from the literature reviewed for this master's thesis.

2. 1. 5. Factor Identification for Performance Appraisal Acceptance

Many scholars analyzed performance appraisal initiatives.

Most researches explored the process, functions, and roles of performance appraisals to enhance organizational productivity and effectiveness within the performance management perspective (Latham & Wexley, 1981; Henderson, 1984; Lacho et al., 1991).

Others concentrated on the conditions, such as rating formats, criteria, and motivation that impact the reliability or validity of a performance appraisal (Korsgaard & Roberson, 1995; Murphy & Cleveland, 1995).

Although these previous studies recognized a significant role to be played by management to help reinforce comprehension of the performance measurement system, most of them handled the issue from the top-level management point of view (performance monitoring, strategy formulation, making administrative decisions, and resource allocation; Roberts 1994; Kim 2014).

That is, relatively little attention was paid to employees' perspective of performance appraisal acceptance. Employee acceptance is a salient element for operating a performance appraisal system effectively. The participants' attitudes of a system are the key in, not only short, but long term success of a performance appraisal system (Carroll & Schneier, 1982; Bernardin & Betty, 1984; Roberts, 1990; Roberts, 1992).

If those who make administrative decisions ignore the importance of employees' reactions toward performance appraisals and their supportive behaviors to an organizational context, performance appraisals are less likely to be employed to attain its intended performance management objectives.

Furthermore, negative perceptions of performance management have been found to result in resistance or obstacles to the appraisal process, which further brings about burnout, job related stress and even underperformance (Gabis & Ihrke, 2000).

Landy, Barnes, and Murphy (1978) stated that employees' perception of the appraisal process is the key to success of a performance appraisal system and such factors as satisfaction and acceptance of the appraisal system are relevant to the effectiveness of appraisals.

In addition, how employees perceive the process of appraisals has been proven to impact the effectiveness of the appraisal system because productivity and profitability of organizations are highly influenced by them (Langan-Fox, Bell, McDonald, & Morizzi, 1996). Hence, it is critical to uncover elements that can contribute to employees' acceptance of performance appraisals.

Carroll and Schneier (1982) emphasized the acceptance of a performance measurement system can be influenced by factors such as fairness of administration, psychological contract, system congruence with

goals & values, ability to use the system effectively, trust in the organization, system requirements congruent with personal values, relevance, and legitimacy of procedures.

Greenberg (1986b) suggested that employees' performance appraisal acceptance can be associated with the extent to which employees perceive that managers evaluate employees' work performance fairly and that the appraisals are connected to rewards by applying the notions of procedural and distributive justice (The organizational justices will be dealt with in details in the organizational justice section, see pp.37~52). The study results postulated that procedural justice is as important as distributive justice in shaping employees' reaction, to be more specific, employees' acceptance of the process.

In summation, the performance appraisal process to evaluate employees' performance has impacts on their belief with respect to fair performance assessment.

Alexander and Ruderman (1987) explored the relation between fairness of procedural and distributive justice in job satisfaction, conflict, and harmony, trust in management, and evaluation of supervisors. The measures they included were organizational policies, employees' participation in developing standards, and fairness in performance appraisal procedure. They ask employees' perspectives on pay fairness, and promotion-performance contingency for measurement of distributional fairness.

Their study concluded that a stronger relationship was found between procedural fairness and outcomes of employees' behaviors. Their findings follow that of Greenberg's research (1986b): when employees believe the performance appraisal to be fair and valid, they perceive it to be accurate and reliable (Kim, 2014).

Roberts (1992) emphasized the importance of employees' acceptance of performance appraisal. He said that employees' acceptance is maximized when the performance measurement process is considered accurate, the system is managed fairly, the system is consistent or does not conflict with the employees' personal goals and values, and when the rater's authority is respected during the appraisal process.

Roberts (1992) utilized the acceptance framework of Carroll and Schneier (1982) in a sample of 240 human resource managers of the municipal government.

In his research, the regression analysis revealed that the information validity variables and the voice variables of participation, goal setting, and feedback were positively related to higher levels of perception of acceptance, and explained the greatest amount of the variance.

Roberts (1992), with findings of other researchers' (Folger & Greenberg, 1985; Greenberg, 1986a; Greenberg, 1986b) studies that dealt with some variables derived from the procedural justice literature, established the conceptual framework, which is presented in Figure 2 (p.33).

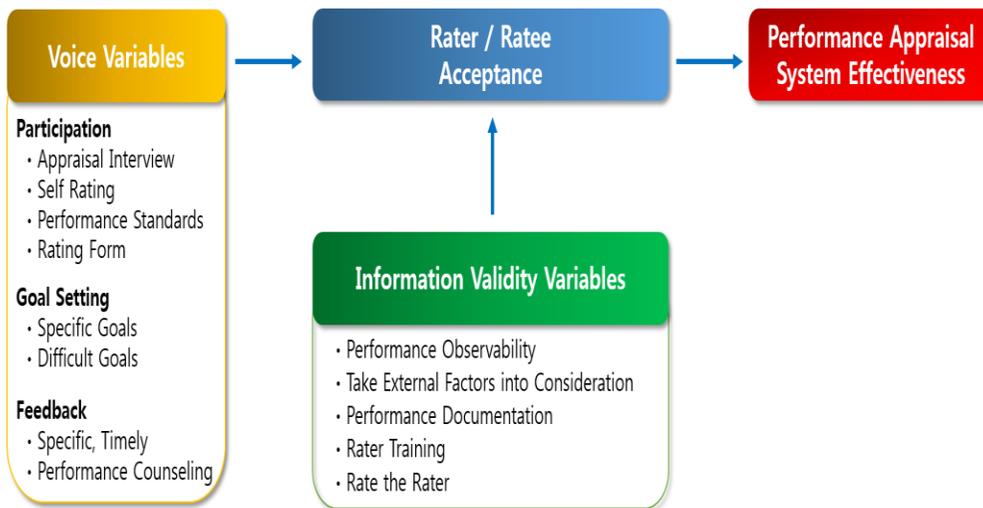


Figure 2. The role of Employee Voice, Information Validity, and Performance Appraisal Effectiveness

Source: Roberts (1992), Linkages between performance appraisal system effectiveness and rater and ratee acceptance. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 12(3), p.21.

Figure 2 indicates identified factors that might impact employees' perceptions of the acceptance of a performance appraisal system.

Within this conceptual framework, it is important to note that most variables are related to the organizational justice theory: procedural justice and distributive justice.

In the case of PA system acceptance in Korea, especially in the non-profit sport organization context, no empirical research was found to cover the topic regarding employees' PA system acceptance, and most PA studies in Korea were conducted in non-sport related sectors. However, they will be a useful and meaningful guidance because of their practical approach in that some of them were carried out under the non-profit organization context.

Guk, Mok, and Lee (2007), for instance, performed research to identify factors that have effects on government employees' acceptance of the performance appraisal system in the Ministry of Patriots and Veterans Affairs. Their results indicated that employee participation during the developing process for a performance index was a highly influential element on employees' appraisal acceptance. They also stated that there is a relationship between indicators and strategic alignment, such as vision, strategy, and performance indicators of organizations.

Hwang, Choi, and Kim (2008) formulated the relation between organizational commitment, job commitment, and performance appraisal acceptance. They analyzed 659 samples from central government employees, employing organizational commitment and job commitment as independent variables. Their research proved job commitment was a stronger variable than organization commitment on acceptance of performance appraisal. Among control variables in their research, 'usefulness of information system' was turned out to be the statistically influential variable and 'reliability of the indicator' and procedural justice followed.

According to Kang (2008), organizational structure (autonomy, formality, complexity), organizational culture (hierarchy, group, communication, and performance index, leadership) was correlated to performance appraisal acceptance. Their regression study produced a theory

that there was a positive relation between acceptance of performance appraisals and factors related to individual autonomy, development, culture, and flexibility.

Kim (2011) studied the results of the survey conducted by the Office of Personnel Management in America in 2008 to understand organizational components that would enhance the employees' acceptance of performance appraisals. What he found from the research was that there is sufficient support to believe leadership, performance management system, organizational competency, and training on the appraisal system were the necessary organizational ingredients to foster performance-oriented organizational culture.

Ryu (2012) performed a regression analysis to discover the relation between factors and organizational trust using performance appraisal acceptance as an independent variable. In his research, variables, such as index usability, democracy in index set-up, and communication were statistically significant as a meaningful factor for organizational reliability.

Index usability, democracy in index set-up, fairness in evaluation procedure, and performance appraisal acceptance appeared to be statistically significant components of organizational trust.

Compared to studies conducted in other countries, those dealing with performance appraisal acceptance in Korea approached the issue with a

slightly different perspective, focusing on organizational culture, organizational commitment, and leadership.

So far, the researcher has reviewed existing literature to establish a theoretical frame to determine the linkage between performance appraisal acceptance and predictive variables (see Table 3, p.36).

Considering all related constructs including the employee survey results conducted by the KOC with regard to the performance appraisal system in 2011, it is logical and plausible in this research to employ the organizational justice theories as the theoretical foundation to determine factors influencing employees' performance appraisal acceptance.

Table 3. Identified Factors Influencing Performance Appraisal System Acceptance

Author	Variable			Sample	Method
	Independent	Control/ Mediator	Dependent		
Alexander, Ruderman (1987)	Fairness of Procedural Justice and Distributive Justice		Job Satisfaction, Conflict/ Harmony, Trust in Management, Evaluation of Supervisors	Government Employees at Six Federal Installations	Regression
Roberts (1992)	Voice Variable - Participation - Goal setting - Feedback Information Validity Variable		Performance Appraisal System Effectiveness	Employees of Municipal Government	Regression

Kang (2008)	Organizational Structure, Organizational Culture, Communication, Performance Index and Indicators, Leadership		Performance Appraisal Acceptance	Central Government Employees	Regression
Kim (2011)	Leadership Support, Performance Management System, Organizational Competency, Training		Performance Oriented Organizational Culture	Federal Employees In America	Regression
Ryu (2012)	Index usability, Democracy in Index Set-up, Communication, Evaluation Fairness, Training, Leadership, Information System	(Mediator) Performance Appraisal Acceptance	Organizational Trust	Local Government Employees	Regression

Source: Adapted from 박성민, & 김민영. (2013). 성과평가제도 수용성의 선행요인 및 결과에 관한 연구-한국 NGO를 중심으로. *한국행정학회 하계학술발표논문집, 2013* (단일호), 1289-1337.

2. 2. Organizational Justice in Performance Appraisal

Drawing on research conducted by Moorman (1991), organizational justice can explain the role of fairness in the workplace. To be specific, organizational justice relates to how workers feel as to whether they have received fair treatment in their jobs and how those determinations impact other work-related factors.

Previous research of organizational justice literature provides a strong background for expounding and improving perceptions about

performance appraisals. Organizational justice was mainly derived from the social exchange theory, which made two basic assumptions concerning human behavior (Mowday, 1991): individuals' contribution to their work expecting certain outcomes, and their evaluating the fairness of exchanges with information attained through social interactions.

Two prominent researchers in this field of study are Adams³ (1963) and Homans (1961). They suggested the original social justice theory, which suggested that individuals believed social exchanges to be fair when they felt that what they contributed to organizations was in balance with proper rewards or compensation.

In other words, early researchers had a belief that this perceived fairness and decisions based on fairly allocated resources determined employees' positive intention toward work.

Because of its relation with and involvement in the allocation or distribution of resources, this 'equity theory' became the conceptual foundation of 'distributive justice.' Subsequent research demonstrated that employees will be inclined to accept a certain level of unfairness when they think the perceived process by which decisions for distribution are made is fair (Cropanzano & Folger, 1991).

³ *Adams' (1963) equity theory* explains that individuals' job commitment and satisfaction are determined by perceived fairness in their own work context.

Organizational justice examines the function of fairness, and especially perceptions of fairness, in the workplace (Greenberg, 1990).

Topics dealing with organizational justice continue to be significant since research has supported proof of relations between organizational justice and job performance, organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Mahony, Hums, Andrew, & Dittmore, 2010).

It was not until the latter half of the 20th century that matters of organizational justice were considered by scholars.

Mahony et al. (2010) stated that organizational justice can be chronologically categorized into three waves in terms of development in research and theory: the distributive justice wave (1950's to 1970's), procedural justice wave (mid-1970's to mid-1990's), interactional justice wave (mid-1980's to present).

Byrne and Cropanzano (2001) defined that organizational justice as the study of fairness at work. Scholars who study organizational justice generally agree that fairness can be categorized into three most important types: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice.

Historically, distributive justice is considered the first accepted type of justice. Distributive justice refers to the fairness of the results of a particular decision and tends to relate more strongly with reactions to specific outcomes (Cropanzano et al., 2002).

The second type of justice is procedural justice, which is commonly explained as the fairness of the process that results in the outcome. Salient components of procedural justice in performance appraisal are: the amount of employee voice, the appropriateness of evaluation criteria, and the accuracy of the information employed to make a decision (Cropanzano et al., 2002).

These two types of justices have established the theoretical background of the majority of research performed in the field over the last twenty years (Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001).

The third type of justice, introduced by Bies and co-workers, is interactional justice, which mainly explores the quality of interactions among people in work situations (Bies & Moag, 1986). They considered interpersonal treatment a significant element of perception of fairness in which organizational outcomes are distributed by organizational procedure.

There has been progress in organization justice theories. Employees appear to assess the fairness of three classes of events: the rewards they receive from the organization (distributive justice), formal procedures or policies by which rewards are distributed (procedural justice), and the interpersonal treatment they receive from organizational decision makers (interactional justice).

The difference among distributive justice, procedural, and interactional justice appears fairly and widely accepted (Cropanzano & Ambrose, 2001). However, it is not yet fully explained whether procedural and interactional justice are distinct constructs with theoretical ambiguities (Cropanzano, Prehar, & Chen, 2002).

Up until now, the history, definitions, and differences of three different types of organizational justice were examined briefly. The next step is to frame them in more detail by providing a practical and theoretical analysis of each organizational justice through reviewing existing literature.

2. 2. 1. Procedural Justice

Procedural justice can be defined as perceived fairness of the procedures to make an organizational decision with respect to appraisal outcomes (Greenberg, 1986a).

The main concept of procedural justice is the perceived fairness of the procedures to allocate company resources. (Korsgaard & Roberson, 1995; Cawley, Keeping & Levy, 1998). The significance of procedural justice is emphasized, considering that employees can have more positive attitudes by a fair process, despite the nature of the result itself (Korsgaard & Roberson, 1995).

There is a way that procedural justice can be regarded as a part of the performance appraisal process. Fairness of procedural justice can be enhanced by some components, such as consistency of standards for employees, feedback exchange, and opportunities for participation (Igoumenopoulos, 2001).

According to Greenberg (1986a), consistent application of performance standards can serve as a distinctive role to explain the relation between procedural justice and fairness of the performance appraisal acceptance.

It has often been observed that an accurate reflection of employee performance by objective performance standards can persuade employees to satisfy their performance outcomes (Erdogan, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001).

The purpose of developing performance standards is to let employees have a chance to see the difference between what they should achieve and what they have actually achieved by the objectives (Bernardin & Beatty, 1984).

The rating should be based on performance records, and evidence should be objective and unbiased. Managers should not determine management decisions with their subjective judgment.

Employees can only agree with the fact that a performance appraisal is accurate and fair without inconsistency when managers assess employees'

performance with objective and unbiased performance criteria without personal prejudice, dishonesty, or external pressure (Folger, Konovsky, & Cropanzano, 1992). Thus, performance rating must be conducted with a thorough examination and reflect the principles of fairness and honesty.

Studies often put emphasis on the importance of judgment based on evidence and criteria to perceived procedural justice. For example, Nathan, Mohrman, & Milliman (1991) claimed that evaluation should be based on results achieved, skills and abilities and job-related behaviors.

Greenberg (1986a) argued that performance appraisals performed on documented observations are much more important than undocumented appraisal ratings.

Workers accept the performance appraisal system as being fairer if an organization fosters an atmosphere where they can express their honest opinions against the negative results (Greenberg, 1987).

Landy et al. (1978) also concluded that the opportunity to express employees' opinions and feelings has an influence on performance appraisal fairness.

In defining procedural justice, feedback or what Greenberg (1986b) labeled 'two-way communication' is a useful indicator to have employees perceive procedural justice as more acceptable and more reasonable.

Therefore, it is highly probable that having employees respond to decisions made by the management with clarifications is expected to increase employees' perception of performance appraisal justice.

Employee participation, employee voice, and response to organizational decisions are the significant variables that impact procedural justice (Korsgaard & Roberson, 1995; Dulebohn & Ferris, 1999). Research has proven that employees can strengthen procedural justice in the performance appraisal process by showing their opinions and thoughts (Dulebohn & Ferris, 1999). Such participation includes a debate of problems, sharing of ideas, and an interchange of possible solutions (Greller, 1998).

Affirmative perception of the appraisal or positive attitudes have been linked to an opportunity to express one's voice in the performance appraisal procedure (Landy et al, 1978).

The way employees involved in a certain performance appraisal context behave positively can be also improved if they may respond to matters they disagree on (Greenberg, 1986a).

Participation is a natural phenomenon noticed at all levels of the performance appraisal process. The opportunity may exist to 'solicit and use input' from employees (Greenberg, 1986b). For instance, managers who intend to make the appraisal process more effective make efforts to find solutions by communicating with employees.

This kind of participation provides employees with an opportunity in which they can feel more positive and confident about the fairness of the performance appraisal process because their voices are heard.

Paese, Lind, and Kanfer (1988) also contended that employees' perception of fairness toward performance appraisals can be improved by participation in which employees are actually involved in the discussion defining performance criteria.

The opportunity to prepare for the performance appraisal can increase perception of fairness as well when employees are allowed to do so for their performance appraisal.

Through this process, employees have a chance to review performance goals, performance appraisal criteria, and decide on the strength and weakness of each individual including career development (Bernardin & Beatty, 1984).

Therefore, given all definitions and examples regarding procedural justice, procedural justice in the performance appraisal context in organizations can be categorized into three individual constructs: perceived validity of performance standards, perceived adequacy of performance appraisal feedback, and perceived participation during the performance appraisal process, which might have an influence on employees' acceptance of a performance appraisal system.

2. 2. 2. Distributive Justice

Conception of distributive justice was derived from Adams' (1965) equity theory. In his theory, Adams claimed that individuals' perception of fairness is measured by comparing their work achievement (rewards) to the total amount of inputs (contribution) they make with reference to the input to outcome ratio of their colleagues.

Therefore, employees' perception of fairness regarding appraisal rating, any compensation, or rewards is regarded as fair if these mirror the workers' inputs and contributions.

Greenberg (1986b), Korsgaard, and Roberson (1995) defined distributive justice as the perceived equity of the resource distribution. It focuses on employee evaluations of equity pertaining to decisions or the results that may affect things such as monetary rewards or promotions.

Since one of the primary objectives of the performance appraisal is to make merit-based employee decisions (Saal & Knight, 1988), perceptions with respect to this facet of the appraisal are salient.

According to Greenberg (1986a), distributive justice can be identified by two factors that influence employees' perception of distributive justice.

The first is the perception of fairness from the evaluation grade based on the employees' performance.

The second is the perception of fairness of any type administrative action including compensation or rewards, such as merit pay increase and promotion with regard to the grading. Hence, the level of employees' perception of their own performance is determined by their input or contribution in both cases.

There is a volume of studies that support significant findings of Greenberg's (1986a) distributive justice factors. For example, Tang and Sarsfield-Baldwin (1996) studied 200 employees from a Veterans Administration Medical Center to determine the relation between distributive justice and organizational variables, such as job satisfaction, commitment, and involvement. The result proved that distributive justice relates to satisfaction with pay, promotion and performance appraisal and workers highly satisfied with the salary and promotion showed favorable perceptions of distributive justice.

Moorman (1991) surveyed 270 employees from two medium-sized companies in a supplier-client relationship in the midwestern United States. Utilizing distributive justice items with a five-item scale developed by Price and Mueller (1986), he confirmed that distributive justice can be measured by fair rewards based on comparison with education level, effort, and performance.

Hence, it is assumed that precise and accurate rating of employees' performance achievement would reinforce the degree of positive attitudes in perception of distributive justice, and attitudes like satisfaction will be enhanced if appraisal ratings result in performance-based rewards such as promotions, or pay raises.

2. 2. 3. Interactional Justice

In performance appraisals, it is often stated that interactional justice refers to the fairness of communication and interaction between both raters and ratees.

According to Leung, Su, and Morris (2001) employees' positive reactions toward managers, including the organization, can be evoked by the fairness of interpersonal treatment by managers.

Supervisory behaviors have a crucial role in determining the level of interactional justice. Paying attention to employees' voices and giving them chances to speak affect the fairness (Burke, Weitzel, & Weir, 1980; Erdogan, 2002). Similarly, Bies & Moag (1986) and Erdogan (2002) defined interactional justice as the fairness of interpersonal treatment received during the execution of a procedure. They insisted that truthfulness, respect, and justification are core factors as fairness criteria of communication between

supervisors and subordinates while the fairness of outcomes are major concerns of distributive justice, and the fairness of procedures for making decisions is the core component of procedural justice.

Bies (2001) claimed that the term 'interactional justice' means people's concerns about the quality of interpersonal treatment they perceive during the enactment of organizational procedures.

One of the frequently debated issues of organizational justice among researchers in the performance appraisal context is the relationship between procedural and interactional justice (Bies 2001; Narcisse & Harcourt 2008).

Some justice researchers, for instance, Afzalur Rahim, Magner and Shapiro (2000), emphasized the similarity between procedural justice and interactional justice because they believed that interactional justice is either a subcomponent or an interpersonal component of procedural justice.

On the other hand, Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, and Taylor (2000) found the conceptual difference between two justices (procedural justice and interactional justice). They showed that there was a direct relation between employee evaluation of their managers and perception of interactional justice, while perception of procedural justice was associated with employees' assessment of systems in the organizations.

Likewise, researchers such as Cropanzano, Prehar and Chen (2002) , claimed that the two organizational justices should be distinguished from one

another since procedural justice is related to trust in top management and satisfaction with the performance appraisal system and considered interactional justice was closed to the perceived quality of treatment received from managers.

In addition, Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) and Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, and Ng (2001) conducted a meta-analysis to examine the correlation of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice using 190 studies samples, with 64,757 participants. They found that the construct of these three organizational justices were different from each other and provided a support for discrimination properties of interactional justice.

Therefore, through reviewing existing literature, interactional justice in this research will be considered a separate justice component for the statistical data analysis.

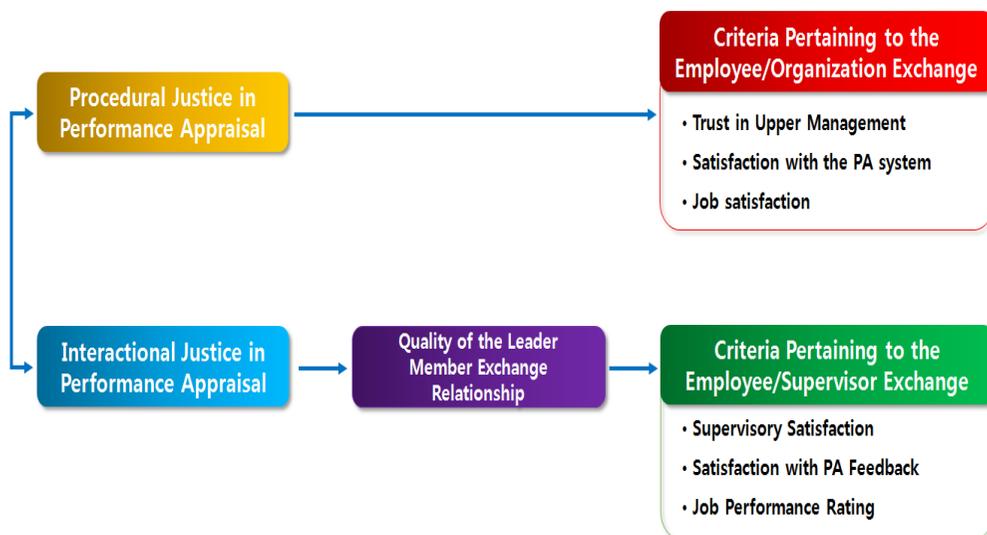


Figure 3. Diagram of the Proposed Integrative Theoretical Model

Source: Cropanzano, R., Prehar, C. A., & Chen, P. Y. (2002). Using social exchange theory to distinguish procedural from interactional justice. *Group & Organization Management*, 27(3), p328.

The integrative theoretical model, a diagram, presented in Figure 3 (p.50), portrays encapsulated primary differences between procedural justice and interactional justice in the performance appraisal context.

As we can see, procedural justice in performance appraisal mainly focuses on the criteria regarding the exchange between employees and organizations. Given the social exchange perspective, it can be predicted that procedural justice is related to attitudes toward organizational decision makers and global work attitudes, such as trust in upper management and job satisfaction (Cropanzano, Prehar, & Chen, 2002).

In contrast to the statements of scholars who studied procedural justice, interactional justice in the PA context concentrates on different types of transactions coming from supervisors. It can be suggested that interactional justice relates to responses directed toward one's supervisor, such as supervisory satisfaction and satisfaction with PA feedback (Cropanzano et al., 2002).

The following is the summary of the literature review regarding three organizational justices (procedural , distributive, and interactional) in the performance appraisal context (see Table 4, p.52).

Table 4. Definitions/Perspective and Factors/Dimensions of Organizational Justice

Authors	Definition/Perspective	Factors/ Dimensions	Category
Moorman (1991)	The role of fairness in the workplace related to the way employees feel whether have received the fair treatment	Procedural, Distributive, Interactional, Justice	O
Greenberg (1986a, b)	Perceived fairness of the procedures to make an organizational decision regarding appraisal outcomes	Performance Standards, Documented Observation, Feedback, Two-way Communication	P
Cropanzano et al. (2002)	The fairness of the process that results in the outcome	Employee voice, Performance Criteria, Accurate Information	P
Moorman (1991)	Measured by fair rewards based on comparison with education level, effort, performance and etc.	Fair Rewards	D
Greenberg (1986b) Korsgaard et al. (1995)	Perceived equity of the resource distribution	Monetary Rewards, Promotion	D
Bies et al. (1986), Erdogan (2002)	Fairness of interpersonal treatment received during the execution of a procedure	Truthfulness, Respect, Justification	I
Cropanzano et al. (2002)	Perceived quality of interpersonal treatment received from managers	Supervisory Satisfaction, Satisfaction with PA feedback, PA rating	I

Note. O = Organizational Justice, P = Procedural Justice, D = Distributive Justice, I = Interactional justice, summarized from the literature reviewed for this master's thesis.

2. 2. 3. 1. Interactional Justice as Moderator Variable

As reviewed in the previous section, many empirical findings suggest employees' perceptions toward performance appraisals can be enhanced by supervisors' interpersonal treatment.

In other words, interactional justice can reinforce the relation between employee performance appraisal acceptance and procedural and distributive justice in the performance appraisal context.

Despite its significant role in performance appraisals, none of the researchers have paid attention to exploring the moderating effect of interactional justice between organizational justice and employees' acceptance of the performance appraisal system in the non-profit sport organization context.

In Korea, only a few studies analyzed the moderating effect of interactional justice. For example, H. C. Kim, D. K. Kim, and Kang (2005) measured differential effects of distributive and procedural justice and moderating effects of interactional justice on personnel outcomes (job satisfaction, pay satisfaction) and organizational outcomes (organizational trust and commitment in the organization).

They found moderating effects of interactional justice between distributive justice and pay satisfaction, and between procedural justice and organizational outcomes.

Choi, Lee, and Jeon (2014) also analyzed the moderating effect of interactional justice between procedural justice of performance appraisal and employees' job attitudes. They concluded that interactional justice was only effective as a moderator between participation in the PA process and job satisfaction, and validity of PA standards and turnover intention.

However, there has been, to my knowledge, no serious research germane to the moderating effect of interactional justice in the performance appraisal context of NPSOs.

2. 2. 4. Organizational Justice in Sport Management

Studies on organizational justice in sport have been explored during the last twenty five years. Although the importance of organizational justice in the performance appraisal context has gradually increased, little extensive research regarding this topic can be found in any country. Therefore, in this literature review section, the researcher will review prior organizational studies carried out in only limited ranges: the perceived fairness of equity, equality, and need in intercollegiate athletics when making resource distributions with distributive justice (Mahony et al, 2010).

The test of distributive justice in sport organizations began from the work of Hums and Chelladurai (1994). This initial work focused on the view of National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) coaches and administrators.

The scholars employed not only contributions drawing on productivity, effort, ability, and need but also the allocation principles of equality of treatment, equality of results, equality of opportunity with resource allocation scenarios: distribution and retribution (Hums and Chelladurai, 1994).

Mahony, Riemer, Breeding, & Hums (2006) investigated distributive justice perceived by college student athletes and other college students registered for sport management classes. Their research uncovered that women tend to support more equal distributions and equal reductions, but men are more likely to be supportive when deciding based on need and contribution.

Scholars have also examined two different justices in the organizational context. Procedural justice that refers to decision-making processes is the first organizational justice, and interactional justice that refers to the communication of those decisions is the second. They also studied the impacts of organizational justice on organizational results, and job satisfaction (Mahony et al, 2010).

Whisenant's (2005) examined the relations between the three aspects of organizational justice (distributive, procedural, and interactional) and intention of student-athletes to continue participating in sport, as well as coaches' behaviors.

The results indicated that a statistically significant linear relationship was found between three organizational justices and students' intentions to participating in sport.

To be specific, first-year college students displayed significantly lower degrees of procedural and interpersonal justice perception than other students in both cases.

Whisenant and Smucker (2007) tested the relationship between three facets of organizational justice and coaches' job satisfaction with specific job aspects, such as supervision, promotion, pay, co-workers, and the work itself.

In the research, significant linear relationships were presented between all three dimensions of organizational justice and satisfaction of supervision, satisfaction of promotion, and satisfaction of the job.

Other researchers, Jordan, Turner, and DuBord (2007), who examined the similar topic among university recreation department student workers also found significant correlations between three different organizational justice and job satisfaction. They discovered that job satisfaction level can be enhanced by perceived positive organizational justice and when workers are positive about their duties, employees' work performance appears to improve.

Although these studies revealed the relationship between three dimensions of organizational justice and different organizational variables: equity, equal resource distribution, and job satisfaction, it is critical for researchers to note that more careful and detailed analysis should be conducted and expanded to the unexplored area such as the performance appraisal context including employees' acceptance of the performance appraisal system in non-profit sport organizations.

2. 3. Analysis of the Target Organization

This section consists of six sub-sections: brief history, organization structure (internal and external), human resources, budget, performance appraisal system, current issues of the target organization, the KOC.

In the first sub-section, the brief history of the KOC and organizational characteristics are introduced. In the second sub-section, internal and external structures of the KOC are presented in organization charts. In the third sub-section, the composition of human resources is displayed. In the fourth sub-section, the total size and composition of the budget in the KOC for 2015 are shown. In the fifth sub-section, the current performance appraisal system is encapsulated. Lastly, current issues employees of the KOC have been facing regarding the performance appraisal system are addressed.

2. 3. 1. Brief History

The Korean Olympic Committee (KOC) is the National Olympic Committee in the Republic of Korea for the Olympic Games movement and one of the non-profit sport organizations affiliated with the Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism (MCST).

According to the website of the KOC⁴, the brief history of the KOC is as follows:

“The Choson Sports Council was established on Jul 13, 1920. In 1938, it was forcefully dissolved during the Japanese imperial rule.”

“The Choson Sports Council was revived and reinstated in 1945. It was re-named as the Korea Sports Council in 1948.”

“The Korean Olympic Committee (KOC) was established in 1946 and became an IOC member country at the 41st IOC Session in 1947.”

“In January 1948, Korea sent a delegation to the Olympics for the first time at the Winter Games in Saint-Moritz, Switzerland.”

“The following July, in 1948, Korea marked its first participation in the Summer Games in London.”

“Since then, Korea has sent a delegation to every celebration of the modern Olympic Games except for the 1952 Winter Games in Oslo and the 1980 Summer Games in Moscow.”

“Even during the Korean War, Korea participated in the 1952 Summer Games in Helsinki, which manifested the true spirit of Olympism.”

⁴ **Source:** <http://www.sports.kr/home/020101/0000/main.do>

“In 1968, the Korean Olympic Committee and Korean School Sports council were partly-merged with the Korea Sports Council.”

“The complete merger of the Korea Sports Council & the Korean Olympic Committee was concluded in 2009.”

“Accordingly, a single legal entity was established, retaining the title of the merged organization as the Korean Olympic Committee and the abbreviation , KOC.”

Officially authorized by the International Olympic Committee (IOC), the KOC is the sole legal entity that supports spreading the Olympic Movement in accordance with the Olympic Charter.

“The mission of the KOC is to enhance and enrich the quality of life by encouraging people to participate in sports, to elevate international sports competitiveness by supporting the National Federations and training athletes, and to contribute towards the development and harmony of the Olympic Movement worldwide.”

According to Statutes of the KOC (2009), the KOC has the exclusive authority over all matters pertaining to the representation of Korea at the Olympic Games and at the regional, continental or world multi-sports competitions patronized by the IOC. In addition, the KOC represents the Republic of Korea in international sports organizations such as the IOC, the Association of the National Olympic Committees (ANOC), and the Olympic Council of Asia (OCA).

2. 3. 2. Organization Structure

The organizational structure of the KOC is portrayed from two different perspectives: the internal and external structure.

The internal structure of the KOC is similar to that of government organizations because the KOC has been highly influenced by the government ministry since it was established (see Figure 4, p.60).

The KOC has one President, one Secretary General, one Chief of National Training Center, and one Deputy Secretary General. The internal structure of the KOC is composed of one general management, four divisions, one center, and one public relations. The total number of departments is 18.

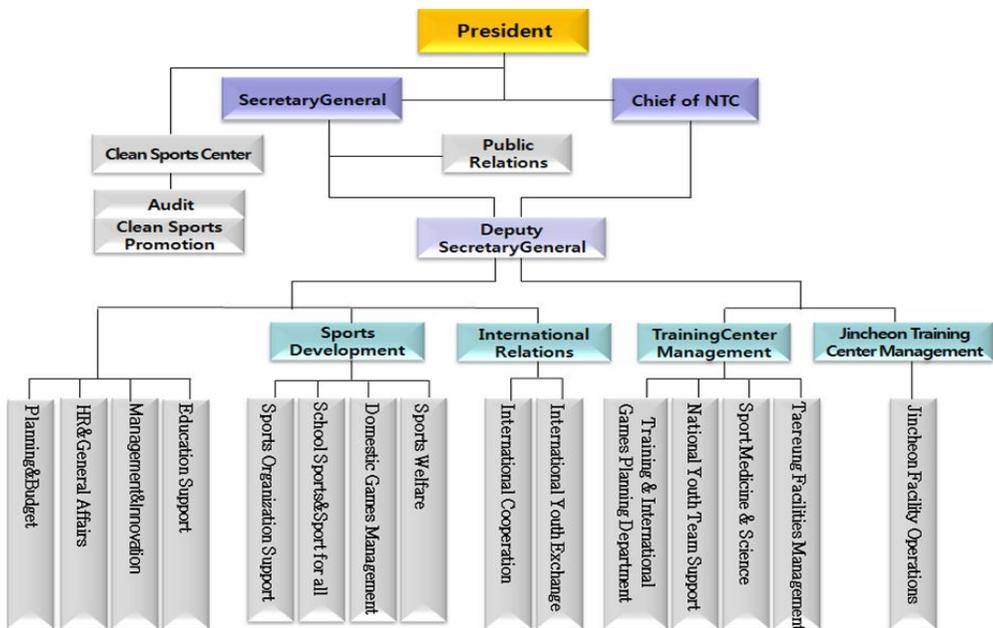


Figure 4. Internal Structure of the KOC

Source: <http://www.sports.kr/home/020102/0050/main.do>

The external structure of The KOC is more complicated than the internal structure because a wide range of international and domestic stakeholders are involved (see Figure 5, p.61). The KOC, being part of the Olympic Movement, undertakes to fully observe the Olympic Charter, and the World Anti-Doping Code and to abide by the decisions of the IOC (Statutes of the KOC, 2009).

Local sports organizations may become an affiliated member of the KOC. The KOC organizational membership is categorized as Full Member, Associate Member, and Recognized Member. The KOC may have local divisional offices in Seoul, metropolitan cities/provinces in fulfillment of their own duties or business. Member Organizations and Local Branches should comply with the Statutes of the KOC.

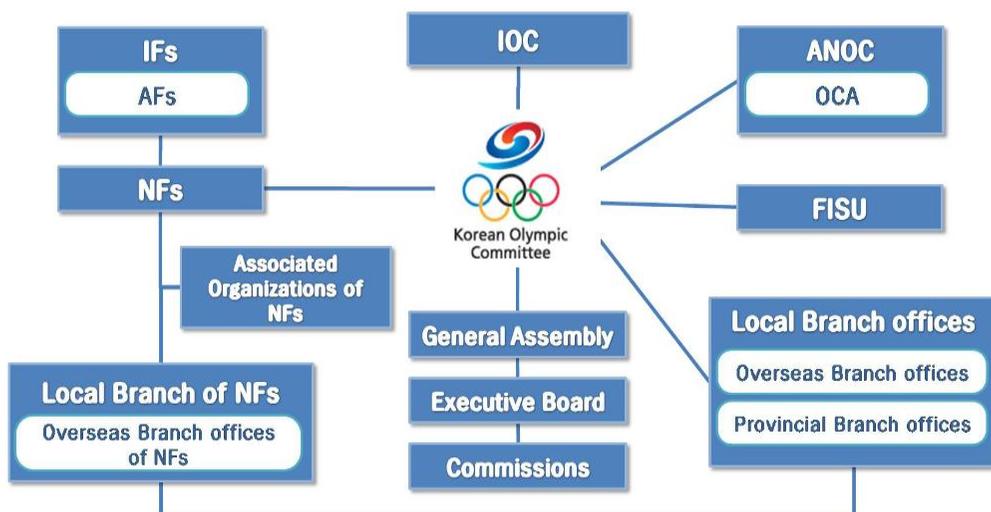


Figure 5. External Structure of the KOC

Source: <http://www.sports.kr/home/020102/0050/main.do>

2. 3. 3. Human Resources

The total number of employees of the KOC is 174, and currently there are four positions vacant (see Table 5, p.62). New employees are hired by the open recruitment system when there is a specific official vacancy announcement.

The recruitment procedure of the KOC generally consists of three steps: 1) a selection of candidates by examining their résumé that contains objective criteria, such as a GPA, foreign language test scores, and relevant job experience and certificates, with a letter of self-introduction, 2) a written exam, and 3) in-depth interviews including an English interview.

Table 5. Current Status of Human Resources in 2015

(2015. 3)

	AE	AS	PA	EP	TS	PC	Total
Max (a)	2	128	5	1	35	3	174
Present (b)	2	114	5	1	44	4	170
a-b		Δ14			9	1	Δ4

Note. - AE: Administrative Executive - EP: Emergency Planning
 - AS: Administrative Staff - TS: Technical Staff
 - PA: Professional Advisory - PC: Permanent Contract Employee

2. 3. 4. Budget

The budget of the KOC consists of the sports promotion fund and its own budget. Over 90% of the budget comes from the sports promotion fund distributed by Korea Sports Promotion Foundation (KSPO), and less than 10% of their budget is raised by its own business (see Table 6, p.63).

Table 6. Current Status of Budget in 2015

(Unit: ₩, million won / 2015. 3)

Grand Total		2014 (a)	2015 (b)	(b-a)
		197,137	208,646	11,509
Sports Promotion Fund	Sub Total	184,992	198,967	13,975
	Domestic Sports	171,622	185,499	13,877
	International Sports	13,370	13,468	98
The KOC's Own Budget		12,145	9,679	Δ2,466

Source: Internal Budget Report of the KOC (2015)

2. 3. 5. Performance Appraisal System

The KOC conducts the employee performance appraisal once a year. The performance appraisal system is composed of two parts: performance evaluation and competency evaluation. Any kind of written exams or performance interviews have not been mandatory or required yet.

The competency evaluation was implemented in 2011, and the performance evaluation was developed in 2014.

The competency evaluation encourages employees to develop their knowledge, skills, abilities, and other characteristics required for their jobs while the performance evaluation was designed to measure employees' performance of their tasks, duties, and responsibilities (Pucik and Lim, 2001).

The five-letter grade system (S: 10%, A: 15%, B: 50%, C: 15%, D: 10%) is used in the performance appraisal. The final grade for each employee is determined by the summation (100%) of the result of the competency evaluation (85~95%) and the performance evaluation (5~15%).

The results of the performance and the competency evaluation have a major impact on human resources management factors such as promotion, pay increase, transfer, training, and development.

A team manager and a division director have a different evaluation ratio for each employee when they conduct the competency evaluation: a first rater (e.g. Director: 60%), a second rater (e.g. Director General: 40%).

The grade of the performance evaluation for a team is decided by the evaluation committee, which consists of 3~5 external evaluation experts to secure transparency and objectivity. The performance evaluation of an individual employee has not been conducted yet, considering that 2014 is the first year for the KOC to implement the performance evaluation. For this reason, the performance evaluation for each individual employee will be commenced after the team performance evaluation system is fully stabilized.

Employees' competencies are measured by the competency evaluation⁵ criteria such as common competency, leadership competency, and job competency. The performance evaluation is conducted by reviewing a performance report written and submitted by each team. The team performance report describes detailed annual performance results of their major tasks to evaluate the degree in which each team achieves or reaches their performance objectives established by the management and the team.

⁵ Competency evaluation is applied to evaluate competencies of administrative employees. Technical employees are evaluated by different type of assessment tool so called job evaluation, but the reflection ratio is the same as that of administrative employees to determine the final grade.

The evaluation weight and ratio are determined by the employee's position. The higher position an employee has, the higher performance evaluation ratio and the lower competency evaluation ratio he or she gets, and vice versa (see Table 7, p.65).

Table 7. Reflection Ratio of Performance Appraisal

Position	Competency Evaluation (85~95%)			Performance Evaluation (5~15%)
	Weight	Common	Leadership	
Director General	85%	20%	80%	15%
Director	90%	20%	40%	10%
Deputy Director/Manager	95%	30%	10%	60%
Deputy Manager		30%	70%	5%

Source: Performance Appraisal Plan of the KOC (2014)

The final results graded by the summation of the competency and performance evaluation are utilized when making administrative decisions such as salary determination, promotion, and a training opportunity.

2. 3. 6. Current Issues of Performance Appraisal System

According to Pucik and Lim (2001), the problems resulting from inappropriate and unfair appraisals seem to create mistrust of appraisal results and, eventually, may decrease motivation and commitment because of its influence on compensation, promotion, and training opportunities.

Just like any other organizations, the KOC has wrestled with challenges in operating their performance appraisal system since its adoption. The performance appraisal system can still be regarded as a control-oriented tool rather than an employee developmental tool.

The KOC conducted an internal survey regarding the performance appraisal system in 2011. The survey results revealed several aspects of the problems that have existed in the organization for a long time.

Firstly, descriptions of some of behavioral indicators in competency evaluation are vague and not easy for both raters and ratees to comprehend. This may lead to a certain degree of confusion, and even frustration, which in turn can affect administrative decisions mentioned in the previous section.

Secondly, some raters still have a certain level of bias such as leniency error, strictness error, and central tendency. This affects the validity of the data collection and analysis, which can cause disagreement on fairness and credibility of the performance appraisal.

Thirdly, a perfunctory appeal system makes it difficult for employees to voice their thoughts for what seems to be an ineffective system. This eventually can create a negative atmosphere and result in defensive behavior from both management and employees.

In addition, proper and timely performance appraisal feedback is not enough for employees.

As Meyer (1991) stated in his research, the performance appraisal process itself is a part of the problem. Managers often skip regular discussions of performance appraisals and there is not enough productive and timely feedback that accounts for and supports important messages between managers and employees on the outcomes of performance appraisals. Thus, employees are confused as to what to do to improve their performance.

Furthermore, when employees have appraisal discussions, they are not opportunities for communication, but rather a part of the official decision-making process for rating itself.

Once final grades are determined, it is almost impossible for employees to change their results without there being a significant calculation error occurring during the performance appraisal process.

In the case of the on-going monitoring system, it has not been practiced yet to assess employees' continuous performance. This brings about potential judgment bias that may impact the credibility and fairness of the performance appraisal system.

Performance appraisal results have salient meanings to both organizations and employees when making management decisions, such as salary increase, promotion, transfer, training, and layoffs, etc. However, the issues portrayed in this section, if continues, can lead to employee dissatisfaction and decrease employee's performance appraisal system acceptance, which may hamper an increase in organizational productivity.

Chapter 3. Research Design and Methodology

This research investigated factors influencing employees' acceptance of the performance appraisal system and moderating effects of interactional justice between the predictor variables (procedural justice and distributive justice) and employees' performance appraisal system acceptance.

The researcher, in order to successfully navigate the research process, followed the measure validation process recommended by Nunnally (1978) as a research guiding light for the test of reliability, validity of the research instrument, the questionnaire in this research. All data analysis was processed with IBM Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) ver. 18.0.

This chapter is made up of six sub-sections and each step of the research process is as follows (see Figure 6, p.68):

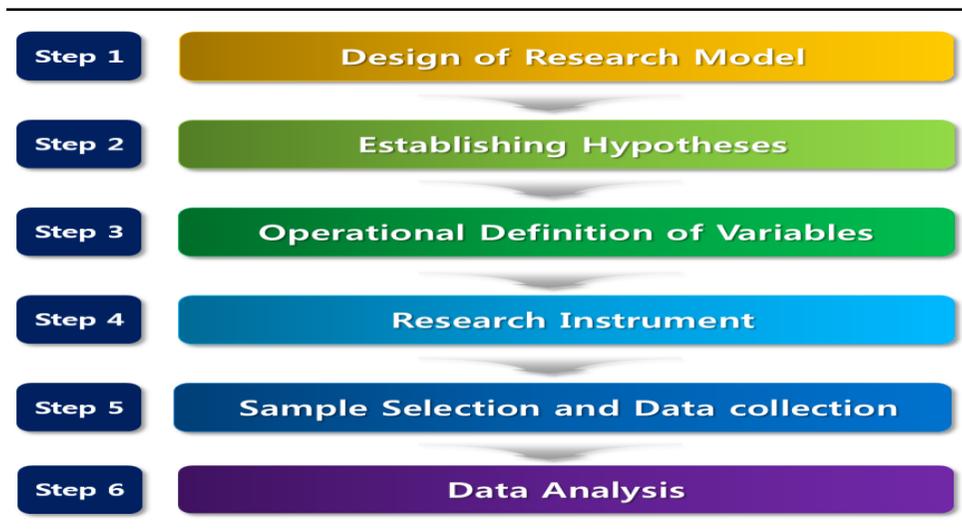


Figure 6. Research Process

3. 1. Research Model

Organizational justice was chosen as a theoretical backbone for the independent variables and the moderator variable. The independent variables were procedural justice (validity of PA standards, adequacy of feedback, and participation during the PA process) and distributive justice. The dependent variable was employees' performance appraisal system acceptance, and interactional justice was used as the moderator variable.

These variables were selected by digesting previous research papers dealing with performance management and performance appraisals. Having reviewed several prior research models (Roberts, 1992; Kim et al., 2005; Kim, 2014), the research model for this study was finally developed as a comprehensive framework for tests of hypotheses (see Figure 7, p.69).

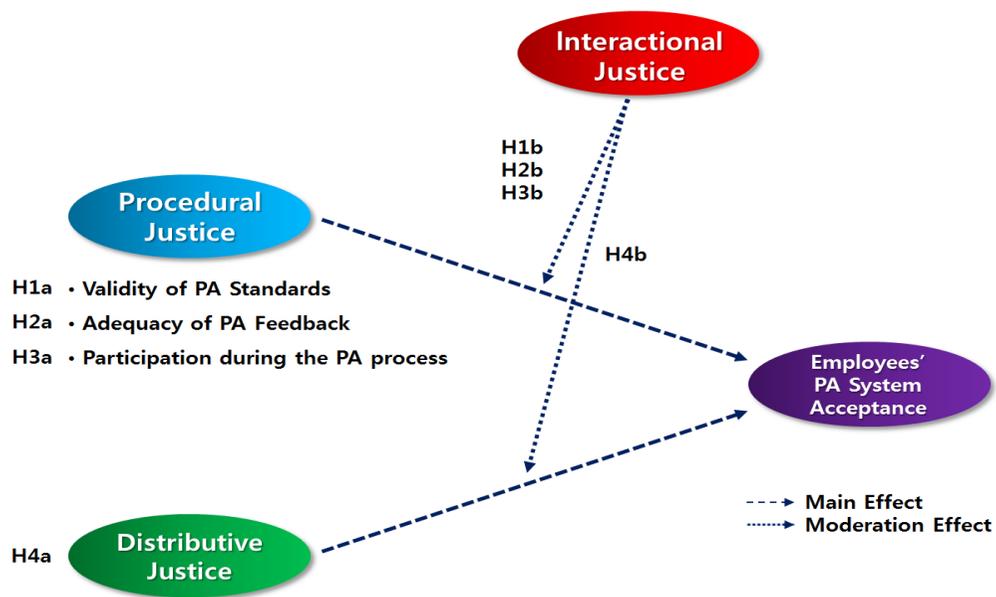


Figure 7. Research Model for Tests of Hypotheses

3. 2. Establishment of Hypotheses

This section establishes logical hypotheses, using large volumes of existing literature and comprises of two sub-sections with major conceptual constructs: ‘procedural and interactional justice in PA system acceptance’ and ‘distributive and interactional justice in PA system acceptance.’

Hypotheses in each sub-section were constructed after a meticulous literature review, which focused on organizational justice theories.

3. 2. 1. Procedural and Interactional Justice in PA System Acceptance

Procedural justice is related to organizational members’ acceptance of the performance appraisal process (Bernardin & Beatty, 1984).

Evaluation by objective performance standards applied consistently with employees can enhance the employee acceptance of the performance appraisal system (Bernardin & Beatty, 1984). Greenberg (1986b) built upon these ideas insisting that consistent application and validity of performance standards be treated as a constituent part of forming a relation between procedural justice and fairness of the performance appraisal acceptance.

In addition, proper feedback that employees receive from supervisors should be a core indicator to enhance employees’ acceptance of the performance appraisal process because honest, objective, and job-related feedback can provide employees with constructive information that will lead

to the improvement of future performance. If there is no feedback, workers will perform under the situation where their objectives of duties are ambiguous and experience lower levels of performance appraisal acceptance (Bernardin & Beatty, 1984).

Employees more accept this form of communication if it is given in a timely manner from their supervisors; however, a lot of supervisor-employee feedback is not received regularly but annually (Cascio, 1998).

Allowing employees to have a chance to be involved in the process in which the appraisal system is developed and implemented can increase the acceptance of the performance appraisal (Saal & Knight, 1988).

That is to say, it is important to realize the level of employee support and acceptance for the performance appraisal system relies on how early they are involved in the appraisal process of their job and their participation (Landy et al., 1978).

Often, employees' perception of fairness can be influenced by the way they are treated while a procedure is being conducted.

Thus, fair formal procedures, fair interpersonal treatment, or both, may have an influence on judgments of procedural justice (Niehoff and Moorman, 1993). Interactional justice is often regarded as one-to-one transactions between people.

Masterson et al. (2000) mentioned that there are more possibilities to form high-quality leader-member exchange⁶ (LMX) relationships if managers treat their subordinates with interactional justice.

On the other hand, managers who manage their employees with interactional injustice are likely to lead to low-quality LMX relationships.

According to Cropanzano et al. (2002), a series of variables, in the end, can be affected by the quality of the LMX relationship. Despite diversity of this set of criterion variables, all variables have a direct association with the relationship between employees and their supervisors.

Particularly, employees in high-LMX relationships are more likely to have better two-way communication, more useful feedback, and more support from their managers. Therefore, it can be predicted that high perception of interpersonal treatment can increase the perception of procedural justice in their organization.

As a result, it is acceptable to establish the following hypotheses.

H1a. Perceived validity of performance appraisal standards will be positively related to employees' performance appraisal system acceptance.

⁶ *The leader-member exchange theory* of leadership focuses on the two-way relationship between supervisors and subordinates. The theory assumes that leaders develop an exchange with each of their subordinates, and that the quality of these leader-member exchange (LMX) relationships influences subordinates' responsibility, decision influence, access to resources and performance
(*Source*: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Leader%E2%80%93member_exchange_theory)

H1b. When employees' perception of interactional justice is higher, the relationship between validity of performance appraisal standards and employees' performance appraisal system acceptance will be greater.

H2a. Perceived adequacy of performance appraisal feedback will be positively related to employees' performance appraisal system acceptance.

H2b. When employees' perception of interactional justice is higher, the relationship between adequacy of performance appraisal feedback and employees' performance appraisal system acceptance will be greater.

H3a. Perceived participation during the performance appraisal process will be positively related to employees' performance appraisal system acceptance.

H3b. When employees' perception of interactional justice is higher, the relationship between participation during the performance appraisal process and employees' performance appraisal system acceptance will be greater.

3. 2. 2. Distributive and Interactional Justice in PA System Acceptance

Greenberg (1986b) argued that performance appraisal acceptance regarding distributive justice relies on how employees perceive the fairness when rewards are distributed in the organization. For instance, with managers' accurate assessment, variables such as ratings and reward

allocations based on outcomes of employees' job performance are supposed to anticipate employees' acceptance of the performance appraisal.

Moreover, he believed that, if the process between the performance appraisal system and allocation of reward is fair and reasonable, employees will react more positively to the administrative decision (Greenberg, 1986b).

This requires managers to keep accurate documentation throughout the year in order to reach unbiased and factual conclusions about employees' performance when they conduct the annual performance appraisals. The high degree of employees' acceptance toward performance appraisals hinges on fair reward distribution (Bernardin & Beatty, 1984; Greenberg, 1986b).

Interactional justice also has an influence on the perception of distributive justice. According to Cropanzano et al. (2002), employees in high-LMX relationships receive a higher work performance grade than those in low-LMX relationships.

Employees show favorable attitudes toward their managers and receive higher performance rewards, such as a higher rating or grade, if they feel that they are being treated with interactional fairness, such as respect, dignity, and explanations of rating procedures (Masterson et al., 2000; Cropanzano et al., 2002). Hence, it can be assumed that high perception of interpersonal treatment can also increase perception of distributive justice in their organization and the literature is persuasive to support the following hypotheses of this study.

H4a. Perceived distributive justice will be positively related to employees' performance appraisal system acceptance.

H4b. When employees' perception of interactional justice is higher, the relationship between distributive justice and employees' performance appraisal system acceptance will be greater.

3. 3. Operational Definition of Variables

An operational definition⁷ is, according to Wikipedia (one of the online encyclopedias), "A result of the process of operationalization and is used to define something (e.g. a variable, term, or object) in terms of a process (or a set of validation tests) needed to determine its existence, duration, and quantity."

By conducting careful and meticulous literature review, the researcher selected six variables to investigate: the independent variables (distributive justice that has no sub-variables, procedural justice that has three sub-variables: validity of performance appraisal standards, adequacy of performance appraisal feedback and participation during the performance appraisal process), the moderator variable (interactional justice) and the dependent variable (employees' performance appraisal system acceptance).

⁷ **Source:** https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Operational_definition

3. 3. 1. Independent Variables

The independent variables are divided into two major predictors: procedural justice and distributive justice.

The first independent variable, procedural justice, has three sub-variables: validity of performance appraisal standards, adequacy of performance appraisal feedback and participation during the performance appraisal process.

While the first predictor has three sub-variables, the second predictor, distributive justice, has no sub-variables. The operational definitions of each independent variable are as follows:

3. 3. 1. 1. Procedural Justice

Procedural justice can be defined as perceived fairness of the procedures followed to make administrative decisions as regards to the context of performance appraisals. Procedural justice, in this research, was investigated by three sub-factors that were previously mentioned.

Validity of Performance appraisal standards can be defined as the extent to which performance criteria are not related to employees' personal characteristics or attributes, but relevant to employees' behaviors, skills, and performance outcomes. This variable was measured with five items employed by Nathan et al. (1991), Kim and Holzer (2014), and Choi (2014).

Adequacy of PA feedback can be defined as the extent to which employees receive timely, proper, and useful feedback related to their work performance. This variable was measured with four questions employed by Kim and Holzer (2014).

Participation during the PA process can be defined as the extent to which employees have opportunities to be involved in the performance appraisal process in which they can ask for job-related information or voice objections toward the performance appraisal system. This variable was measured with four questions used by Moorman (1991) and Choi (2014).

3. 3. 1. 2. Distributive Justice

Distributive justice can be defined as perceived equity of the resource distribution: monetary rewards, promotion. This variable was measured with five questions developed by Price and Mueller (1986).

3. 3. 2. Moderator Variable

There is only one moderator variable - interactional justice - in this research. A moderator variable moderates or alters the relationship between two other variables, usually independent and dependent variables. The operational definition of the moderator variable, interactional justice, is as follows:

Interactional Justice can be defined as interpersonal treatment employees perceive during the performance appraisal process. This variable was measured with six questions employed by Niehoff and Moorman (1993).

3. 3. 3. Dependent Variable

There is only one dependent variable - employees' performance appraisal system acceptance - in this research. The operational definition of the dependent variable, performance appraisal system acceptance, is as follows:

Performance appraisal system acceptance can be defined as an attitude that indicates employees accept the practical importance and value of the PA system for competency development, doing the best to increase job performance, not only for themselves, but also for their organizations. This variable was measured with six questions developed by Roberts (1994) and Ryu (2012).

3. 3. 4. Control Variable

The questionnaire contained seven demographic variables: Gender, Age, Education, Position, Functional Area, Tenure, and Job Location. In many studies, demographic variables are often utilized as control variables.

According to Lee (2014), a control variable can be defined as a variable that should be controlled while conducting certain research because of its general potential to suppress or inflate relationships between other variables.

Generally, if variables are categorical, such as gender and occupation, they should be transformed into dummy variables⁸ to be employed as control variables.

If variables are continuous, such as weight or length, they can be directly used as control variables without being converted into dummy variables (Lee, 2014).

In this study, all seven demographic variables were coded into dummy variables because they were all categorically (either nominal or ordinal scale) measured by a questionnaire, using a five-point Likert scale.

3. 4. Research Instrument

The researcher used a survey questionnaire to conduct empirical data analysis in this study. All constructs in the questionnaire were measured by the multi-item scales developed by several researchers in the United States (U. S.) and Korea, most of which were developed in the U. S.

⁸ In statistics, a *dummy variable* is one coded into values of only 0 or 1 to indicate the absence or presence of some categorical effect (Field, 2013). In general, 0 (reference) is assigned to the base line group, 1 (event) is assigned to the group that you want to compare against the baseline group (Field, 2013; Lee, 2014).

The questionnaire employed in this study consists of four major sections including demographic variables with 37 items, most of which were translated from English into Korean and modified, considering cultural or situational differences between Korea and America (see Table 8, p.81).

Each item from section 1 to 3 in Figure 8 (p.80) was measured on a five point Likert scale: 1 = strongly disagree; 2 = agree; 3 = neither agree nor disagree (neutral); 4 = agree; 5 = strongly disagree.

The summarized contents of each section in the questionnaire are presented in Figure 8 (p.80) and the structure of the questionnaire and their references are presented in Table 8 (p.81).

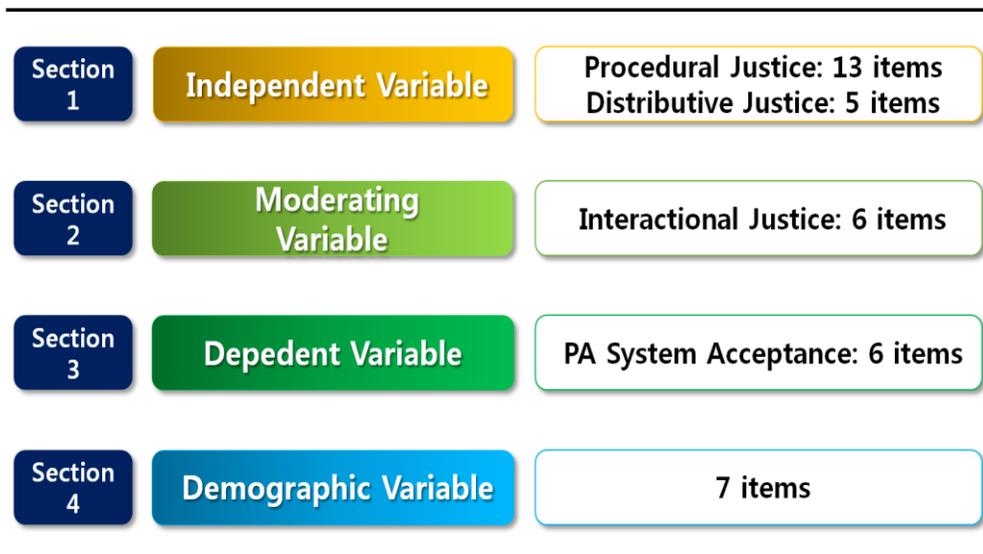


Figure 8. Composition of the Questionnaire

Table 8. Structure of the Questionnaire

Category		Item Number	Number of Items	References
Independent Variable	Validity of PA standards	I - 1	1	Kim and Holzer (2014)
		I - 2	1	Choi (2014)
		I - 3~5	3	Nathan et al. (1991)
	Adequacy of PA feedback	II - 1~4	4	Kim and Holzer (2014)
	Participation during the PA process	III - 1~3	3	Moorman (1991)
III - 4		1	Choi (2014)	
	Distributive Justice	IV - 1~5	5	Price and Mueller (1986)
Moderating Variable	Interactional Justice	V - 1~6	6	Niehoff and Moorman (1993)
Dependant Variable	Performance Appraisal System Acceptance	VI - 1~3	3	Roberts (1994)
		VI - 4~6	3	Ryu (2012)
Demographic Variable	Gender, Age, Education, Position, Functional Area, Tenure, Job Location	VII - 1~7	7	Control variable
Grand Total			37	

3. 5. Sample selection and Data Collection

The researcher used a convenience sampling method to select the population and collect data instead of employing random sampling, or probability sampling.

The reason for utilizing convenience samples for this study is that it is one of the most frequently used sampling methods in quantitative research with easy availability and accessibility to select sample respondents.

The population of this research is composed of employees of the KOC, one of the NPSOs in Korea. The questionnaires were distributed three times for three weeks: via intranet (e-mail) twice and through the online survey system once.

The total number of possible respondents in this organization is approximately 210 (permanent employees: 170, contract employees: 40). Among 170 permanent employees, 147 surveys were returned (response rate of 86.4%), and among 40 contract employees, 28 employees answered (response rate of 70.0%).

The total number of submitted responses was 175 (response rate of 83.3%); however, ten answers were discarded because of the noticeable central tendency and omission of responses. 165 out of 175 answers were finally selected for the data analysis. The questionnaire distribution return rate is provided in Table 9 (p.83).

Table 9. Questionnaire Distribution Return Rate

Distributed	Collected	Return Rate	Excluded	Analyzed	Effective Return Rate
210	175	83.3%	10	165	78.5%

3. 6. Data Analysis Process

The process of data analysis before tests of hypotheses consists of six steps, utilizing the statistics software SPSS 18.0. According to the measure validation process (Nunnally, 1978), reliability and validity of the research instrument were tested before examining the hypotheses.

Firstly (Step 1), reliability of the questionnaire was tested through the purification process in which ‘Corrected Item-Total Correlation’ was employed to look for items to be deleted.

Secondly (Step 2), an exploratory factor analysis was conducted to check whether a main factor has a unidimensionality: items should be extracted into one factor.

Thirdly (Step 3), a reliability analysis was conducted to check each factor with a unidimensionality was reliable using Cronbach’s α .

Fourthly (Step 4), After confirming that each main factor had a unidimensionality, the exploratory factor analysis was performed again to measure validity.

Fifthly (Step 5), the descriptive statistics and correlations were calculated by each descriptive statistics analysis and correlation analysis (see Chapter 4, pp.101~119).

Lastly, (Step 6) a hierarchical multiple regression was conducted to examine the hypotheses, the relation between two organizational justices (procedural and distributive justice) and employees' performance appraisal system acceptance including moderating effect of interactional justice (see Chapter 4, pp.128~152).

The exploratory factor analysis was conducted with two technical methods: principal components analysis for the factor extraction and varimax with Kaiser Normalization for factor rotation.

The data analysis process of this research is summarized and presented in Figure 9 (p.84).

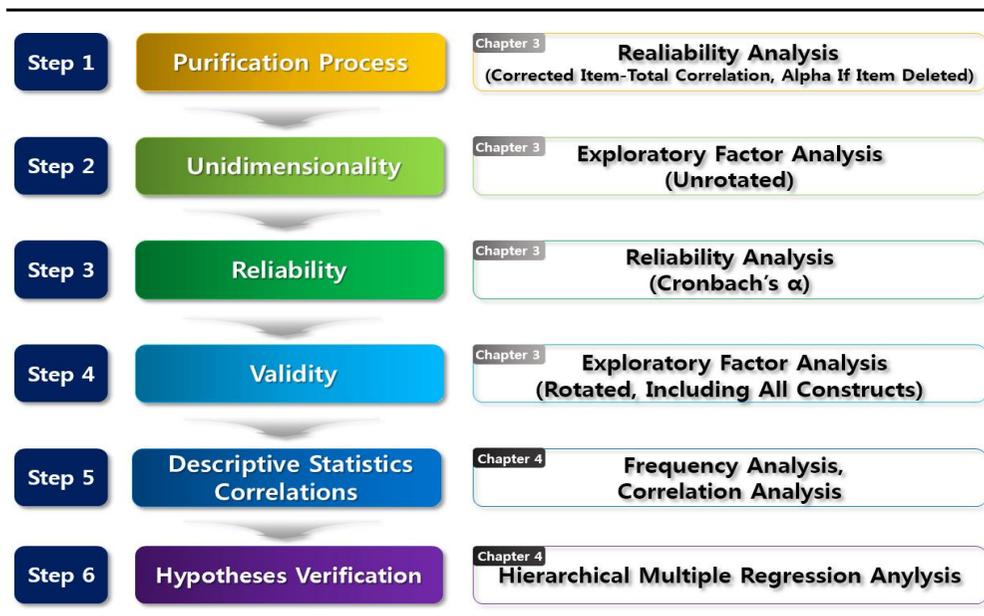


Figure 9. Data Analysis Process

Note. Adapted from Nunnally, J. C. et al. (1967) *Psychometric theory* (Vol. 226). New York: McGraw-Hill.

3. 6. 1. Purification Process

The purification process was executed by the domain sampling model. Basic to the domain sampling model is the concept of an infinitely large correlation matrix presenting all correlations among the items in the domain. (Nunnally, Bernstein, & Berge, 1967; Churchill, 1979). The key assumption in the domain sampling model is that all items have an equal amount of the common core if they belong to the domain of the concept.

That is, if all items in a measure are drawn from the domain of a single construct, responses to those items should be highly intercorrelated. Corrected item-total correlation in reliability analysis was considered for the process in which items with low correlations (less than about .30) had to be removed.

The test results of ‘Corrected Item-Total Correlation’ were displayed in Table 10 and 11 (p.86). As offered in the Table 10 and 11 (p.86), ‘Corrected Item-Total Correlation’ of all items were greater than .30. Hence, no items were deleted.

‘Alpha If Item Deleted’ was needed to be checked because deletion of particular items can improve the overall reliability of the scale (Field, 2013). Based on the instructions by Field (2013), AF 2 was removed to improve the overall reliability of the variable, Adequacy of PA Feedback (α .785 \rightarrow .808; see Table 12 and 13, p.87).

Table 10. Corrected Item-Total Correlation (a)

Independent Variable (Procedural Justice)					
Validity of PA Standard (VPS)		Adequacy of PA Feedback (AF)		Participation During PA (PDP)	
Item	Correlation	Item	Correlation	Item	Correlation
VPS 1	.720	AF 1	.623	PDP 1	.650
VPS2	.754	AF 2	.443	PDP 2	.699
VPS 3	.712	AF 3	.615	PDP 3	.726
VPS 4	.724	AF 4	.702	PDP 4	.569
VPS 5	.614				

Table 11. Corrected Item-Total Correlation (b)

Independent Variable		Moderator Variable		Dependent Variable	
Distributive Justice (DJ)		Interactional Justice (IJ)		PA System Acceptance (PSA)	
Item	Correlation	Item	Correlation	Item	Correlation
DJ 1	.848	IJ 1	.798	PSA 1	.536
DJ 2	.854	IJ 2	.840	PSA 2	.654
DJ 3	.887	IJ 3	.817	PSA 3	.695
DJ 4	.838	IJ 4	.687	PSA 4	.664
DJ 5	.782	IJ 5	.795	PSA 5	.656
		IJ 6	.806	PSA 6	.697

Table 12. Alpha if Item Deleted (a)

Independent Variable (Procedural Justice)					
Validity of PA Standards (VPS)		Adequacy of PA Feedback (AF)		Participation During PA (PDP)	
Item	α (.875)	Item	α (.785)	Item	α (.829)
VPS 1	.844	AF 1	.717	PDP 1	.792
VPS2	.837	<u>AF 2</u>	<u>.808</u>	PDP 2	.769
VPS 3	.846	AF 3	.721	PDP 3	.753
VPS 4	.843	AF 4	.675	PDP 4	.822
VPS 5	.870				

Table 13. Alpha if Item Deleted (b)

Independent Variable		Moderator Variable		Dependent Variable	
Distributive Justice (DJ)		Interactional Justice (IJ)		PA System Acceptance (PAS)	
Item	α (.941)	Item	α (.928)	Item	α (.860)
DJ 1	.926	IJ 1	.914	PSA 1	.855
DJ 2	.925	IJ 2	.908	PSA 2	.836
DJ 3	.919	IJ 3	.911	PSA 3	.828
DJ 4	.929	IJ 4	.927	PSA 4	.834
DJ 5	.938	IJ 5	.914	PSA 5	.835
		IJ 6	.913	PSA 6	.828

3. 6. 2. Investigation of Unidimensionality

According to Segars (1997, p.107), “an essential, but often overlooked, property of measurement, which is assumed in both exploratory and confirmatory statistical techniques, is unidimensionality. Scales which are unidimensional measure a single trait.”

Therefore, the research should examine the unidimensionality of each construct after conducting the purification procedure. In order to confirm the unidimensionality, unrotated factor analysis is required. If items in the unrotated factor matrix are extracted into a single factor, it means that unidimensionality of the extracted factor is confirmed. Otherwise, items should be removed because if not, both reliability and validity are decreased.

After conducting the unidimensionality test, the researcher found that most items were extracted into one factor as expected. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO)⁹ values were all above .50 and significance levels were all below .00; however, items on PA system acceptance were not extracted into a single factor. They were divided into two factors unexpectedly.

So, the researcher rotated these items to determine to which group each item belongs (principal components analysis, varimax rotation).

The rotated component matrix revealed that PSA 4, PSA 5, and

⁹ “**KMO** (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy) varies between 0 and 1: a value close to 1 indicates that patterns of correlation are relatively compact and so factor analysis should yield distinct and reliable factors. Values between .5 and .7 are mediocre, values between .7 and .8 are good, values between .8 and .9 are great and values above .9 are superb” Field (2013, p.877).

PSA 6 were divided into Component A, and PSA 1, PSA 2, and PSA 3 were categorized into Component B (see Table 14, pp.89~90).

Then, the researcher conducted a factor analysis two more times without the factor rotation to determine which Component is more suitable for the factor analysis: the higher the KMO value, the better for the analysis.

As Table 16 indicates, items on Component A have the higher KMO value: Component A (.733) and component B (.681). According to the result of comparison with KMO values between two components, Component A was selected for the next research step (see Table 16, p.91).

Table 14. Unrotated Component Matrix

Factor	Item	Factor Loading	Result	Factor	Item	Factor Loading	Result
Validity of PA Standards (VPS)	VPS 1	.832	1	Interactional Justice (IJ)	IJ 1	.864	1
	VPS 2	.855			IJ 2	.898	
	VPS 3	.826			IJ 3	.879	
	VPS 4	.830			IJ 4	.773	
	VPS 5	.743			IJ 5	.860	
Adequacy of PA Feedback (AF)	AF 1	.828	1		IJ 6	.870.	
	AF 3	.821		PSA 1	.660 .500		
	AF 4	.901		PSA 2	.767 .489		
Participation during PA (PDP)	PDP 1	.812	1	PA System Acceptance (PSA)	PSA 3	.799 .356	2
	PDP 2	.843			PSA 4	.785 -.469	
	PDP 3	.860			PSA 5	.776 -.471	
	PDP 4	.749			PSA 6	.808 -.316	

Distributive Justice	DJ 1	.904	1	* Rotated Component Matrix (PSA 1~PSA6)		
	DJ 2	.909		Component A		Component B
	DJ 3	.931		PSA 4	.893	.195
	DJ 4	.897		PSA 5	.888	.187
	DJ 5	.857		PSA 6	.805	.322
				PSA 2	.225	.882
			PSA 1	.139	.816	
			PSA 3	.339	.806	

Note. The number of result section in this table indicates the number of extracted dimensions.

Table 15. Corrected Item-Total Correlation and Alpha if Item Deleted

Dependent Variable (PA System Acceptance)							
Corrected Item-Total Correlation				Alpha if Item Deleted			
Component A		Component B		Component A		Component B	
Item	Correlation	Item	Correlation	Item	α (.875)	Item	α (.837)
PSA 4	.782	PSA 1	.610	PSA 4	.804	PSA 1	.855
PSA 5	.783	PSA 2	.782	PSA 5	.803	PSA 2	.687
PSA 6	.717	PSA 3	.719	PSA 6	.861	PSA 3	.753

Table 15 (p.90) showed that all ‘Corrected Item-Total Correlation’ of each item was not below .30 and ‘Alpha if item deleted’ on each item was not higher than Cronbach’s Alpha of each component. None of the items of Component A and Component B were removed.

Table 16. Unrotated Component Matrix of PA System Acceptance

Factor	Item	Factor Loading	Result	Factor	Item	Factor Loading	Result
Component A	PSA 4	.907	1	Component B	PSA 1	.810	1
	PSA 5	.907			PSA 2	.913	
	PSA 6	.870			PSA3	.879	
KMO (.733), Sig. (.000)				KMO (.681), Sig. (000)			

Note. The number of result section in this table indicates the number of extracted dimensions.

All three items in Component A were integrated into one dimension, and the others in Component B were all gathered into a single dimension. Therefore, all items in this research were categorized into their own dimension. That is, unidimensionality of all variables was confirmed.

3. 6. 3. Reliability Analysis

In terms of the Domain Sampling Model, after confirming the unidimensionality, the Cronbach’s α coefficient was applied as the standard for the judgment of internal consistencies among the items.

There are different opinions regarding acceptable value for Cronbach’s α . According to Field (2013, p. 709),

“Kline (1999) notes that when dealing with psychological constructs, values below even .7 can, realistically, be expected because of the diversity of the constructs being measured. Some even suggest that in the early stages of research, values as low as .5 will suffice (Nunnally, 1978).”

Considering that this research was conducted within the social science context, values around .80 was good for judgment of internal consistency. All Variables with Cronbach's α after purification process were presented below (see Table 17, p.92). Totally, four items were deleted.

Table 17. Cronbach's α after Purification Process and Unidimensionality Test

Measured Variables	Before Purification		After Purification	
	Number of Items	Cronbach's α	Number of Items	Cronbach's α
I Validity of PA Standards	5	.875	5	.875
I Adequacy of PA Feedback	4	.785	3	.808
I Participation during PA	4	.829	4	.829
I Distributive Justice	5	.941	5	.941
M Interactional Justice	6	.928	6	.928
D PA System Acceptance	6	.860	3	.875
Total Number Items	30		26	

Note. I = Independent Variable, M = Moderator Variable, D = Dependent Variable

3. 6. 4. Validity Analysis

In the social science context, scholars, in many cases, explore their research subjects indirectly. One of the most frequently used research methods is a questionnaire. A questionnaire could be a useful tool; however, it often causes validity problems, and studies whose research instrument is a questionnaire may not be perfectly free from the concerns of validity. Thus, it is vital for researchers to utilize optimal research instrument with a plausible research method to increase validity under given situations.

Keeping the current situation in mind, the research employed the Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), one of the most common factor analytic techniques, to understand the structure of the data set, and re-examine patterns of the data set given that the researcher modified and translated original questionnaires developed by several researchers, and considering cultural and situational differences in Korea.

The researcher utilized varimax rotation with principal component analysis, one of the most popular orthogonal rotation^{1 0} techniques, as a factoring method because it can reduce data to a small number of variables effectively with high factor loadings, and facilitate easier data interpretation with ease of use instead of oblique rotations that reflect the interrelationships between factors (Kieffer, 1998).

There are no absolute criteria for factor loadings to be selected as a significant variable. According to Field (2013, pp.681~682), however, rotated factor loadings above .40 is regarded as a significant variable, and

“Stevens (2002) produced a table of critical values against which loadings can be compared. He recommends that for a sample size of 100 a loading of .512, for 200 it should be greater than .364.”

Referring to his recommendation, the researcher used items with a factor loading value greater than .50. For this reason, after conduction factor

^{1 0} According to Field (2013, p.880), **orthogonal rotation** is a method of rotation in factor analysis that keeps the underlying factors independent (i.e., not correlated).

analysis, one of the items in ‘Participation during the PA process’ was deleted: PDP 4 (.435).

The research conducted the factor analysis again with principal components analysis as the extraction method with orthogonal rotation (varimax) for rotating factors. The KMO verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis, KMO = .912 and five out of six factors had eigenvalues over Kaiser’s criterion of 1.0 except feedback (.944), and in combination explained 76.48% of the variance.

Table 19 (p.95) provided the rotated factor matrix with Cronbach’s α , which was the final result of exploratory factor analysis.

In summation, six factors were extracted with 25 items. Lastly, reliability of variables with Cronbach’s α before and after factor analysis was presented below (see Table 18, p.94).

Table 18. Cronbach’s α after Exploratory Factor Analysis

Measured Variables	Before Factor Analysis		After Factor Analysis	
	Number of Items	Cronbach’s α	Number of Items	Cronbach’s α
I Validity of PA Standards	5	.875	5	.875
I Adequacy of PA Feedback	3	.808	3	.808
I Participation during PA	4	.829	3	.822
Distributive Justice	5	.941	5	.941
M Interactional Justice	6	.928	6	.928
D PA System Acceptance	3	.875	3	.875
The Number of Total Items	26		25	

Note. I = Independent Variable, M = Moderator Variable, D = Dependent Variable

Table 19. Rotated Factor Matrix

Item	Rotated Factor Loadings						α
	M	I	D	I			
	Interactional Justice	Distributive Justice	PS System Standards	PA System Acceptance	Participation	Feedback	
IJ 5	.802	.165	.221	.054	.079	.193	.928
IJ 3	.785	.270	.169	.037	.136	.150	
IJ 6	.777	.220	.140	.094	.143	.265	
IJ 4	.772	.153	.170	.019	.022	.049	
IJ 2	.768	.341	.117	-.009	.239	.151	
IJ 1	.727	.289	.159	-.026	.282	.162	
DJ 3	.280	.839	.219	.122	.132	.142	.941
DJ 2	.301	.782	.166	.219	.163	.182	
DJ 5	.363	.778	.183	.060	.040	.028	
DJ 1	.236	.774	.264	.163	.181	.178	
DJ 4	.314	.673	.378	.201	.229	.179	
VPS 2	.079	.187	.808	.020	.180	.204	.875
VPS 5	.160	.110	.754	.066	.076	-.013	
VPS 3	.195	.221	.722	.162	.037	.185	
VPS 1	.303	.100	.721	.106	.132	.264	
VPS 4	.152	.358	.711	.140	.017	.169	
PSA 4	-.027	.048	.080	.905	.057	.105	.875
PSA 5	-.030	.181	.158	.868	.145	.001	
PSA 6	.174	.204	.102	.816	.066	.162	
PDP 1	.260	.130	.052	.039	.828	.169	.822
PDP 3	.139	.181	.202	.202	.805	.138	
PDP 2	.536	.251	.194	.159	.555	.132	
AF 3	.325	.094	.149	.141	.040	.764	.808
AF 4	.223	.217	.293	.042	.263	.744	
AF 1	.187	.227	.304	.166	.220	.644	
Eigen Values	11.181	2.496	1.811	1.505	1.184	.944	
% of Variance	44.722	9.984	7.243	6.020	4.737	3.774	

KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin): .912, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Chi-Square: 3206.308, df[p]: 300[.000])

Note. I = Independent Variable, M = Moderator Variable, D = Dependent Variable

Up to now, following the measure validation process recommended by Nunnally (1978), reliability and validity of the items on the questionnaire were examined. Every test step (from step 1 to step 4) was thoroughly conducted to secure the maximum level of reliability and validity.

Ultimately, eliminating five items on the research questionnaire, six factors (four independent variables, one moderator variable and one dependent variable) comprising 25 questions were selected for tests of hypotheses (see Table 20, p.96).

Table 20. Verified Variables (Items) for Tests of Hypotheses

	Variable	Deleted Item	Item for Analysis	Reason for Deletion
	Validity of PA Standards (VPS)	.	VPS 1, 2, 3, 4, 5	
I	Adequacy of PA Feedback (AF)	1 (AF 2)	AF 1, 3, 4	Reliability
	Participation during PA (PDP)	1 (PDP 4)	PDP 1, 2, 3	Validity
	Distributive Justice (DJ)	.	DJ 1, 2, 3, 4, 5	
M	Interactional Justice (IJ)	.	IJ 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6	
D	PA System Acceptance (PSA)	3 (PSA 1, PSA 2, PSA 3)	PSA 4, 5, 6	Factor Extraction

Note. I = Independent Variable, M = Moderator Variable, D = Dependent Variable

Chapter 4. Results

4. 1. Preliminary Analysis

This research explores relations between factors that have an influence on employees' acceptance of the performance appraisal system.

In order to determine the relationship between factors that impact employees' PA system acceptance, a survey was conducted using a questionnaire as a research instrument, and a total 165 responses were collected from employees of the KOC.

This chapter is composed of four sections that provides significant results of data analysis.

Firstly, the result of demographic information analysis will be presented, which consists of seven sub-categories: Gender, Age, Education Level, Hierarchical Position, Functional Area, Organizational Tenure, and Job Location.

Secondly, descriptive statistics of each variable will be shown, which is comprised of four independent variables, one moderator variable, and one dependent variable.

Thirdly, results of a mean comparison between groups will be explained, which deals with all six variables with demographic information with seven sub-sections.

Lastly, correlation of all variables will be analyzed to check whether multicollinearity exists among the variables .

4. 1. 1. Demographic Information

In this section, demographic information of the target organization, the KOC, is presented before displaying descriptive statistics in the next section.

The demographic table consists of seven categories: (1) Gender, (2) Age, (3) Education level, (4) Hierarchical position, (5) Functional area, (6) Organizational tenure, (7) Job location.

Firstly, the ratio of gender: male (67.3%) and female (32.7%) differed somewhat from those in other private and public organizations.

Especially, the percentage of female employees (32.7%) was higher than those in other organizations: private organizations (28.5%), public organizations (25%).^{1 1}

Secondly, in terms of age, 12.1% of respondents were in their 20's (20~29), 33.3% of them were in their 30's (30~39), 18.8% were in their 40's (40~49), and 35.8% were over 50 years old. Compared to other organizations: private organizations (13.9%), public organizations (20.7%), more than one third of employees (35.8%) were over 50 years old.

Thirdly, in the education level, 4.2% of research participants only graduated from high school and 9.7% of them were from two-year college.

^{1 1} **Source:** 전수연. (2014). 공공기관과 민간기업의 임금 비교 분석, 국회예산정책처, p. 52.

62.4% of the respondents graduated from four years of university and 23.6% of employees had a Master's Degree or higher, which means 86% of respondents had at least a Bachelor's Degree (four-year college).

Fourthly, regarding hierarchical position, 79.4% of respondents were team members and the rest of them (20.6%) were managers or higher.

Fifthly, classification by functional area shows that around two thirds of the employees (64.8%) were working in an administrative position, 21.2% of them in a technical position, and 13.9% in a contract position.

Sixthly, organizational tenure was distributed across the following categories: below five years (37.0%), between five to nine years (12.1%), between 10 to 14 years (5.5%), between 15 to 19 (6.1%).

When looking at other organizations in both private and public sectors, the ratio of those working over 20 years in organizational tenure was remarkably high: the KOC (39.4%), private organizations (10.9%) and public organizations (27.5%).

Lastly, 60.6% of respondents belonged to the headquarters and others worked for the National Training Center (NTC): Taereung (23.0%) and Jincheon (16.4%).

Demographic information of the KOC for this Master's thesis was provided in Table 21 (p.100).

Table 21. Demographic Information

Category		Frequency	Percent (%)	Cumulative Percent (%)
Gender	Male	111	67.3	67.3
	Female	54	32.7	100.0
Age	20~29	20	12.1	12.1
	30~39	55	33.3	45.5
	40~49	31	18.8	64.2
	Over 50	59	35.8	100.0
Education Level	High School	7	4.2	4.2
	Two-Year College	16	9.7	13.9
	Bachelor	103	62.4	76.4
	Master or Higher	39	23.6	100.0
Hierarchical Position	Team Member	131	79.4	79.4
	Manager or Higher	34	20.6	100.0
Functional Area	Administration	107	64.8	64.8
	Technical	35	21.2	86.1
	Contract	23	13.9	100.0
Organizational Tenure	Below 5	61	37.0	37.0
	5~9	20	12.1	49.1
	10~14	9	5.5	54.5
	15~19	10	6.1	60.6
	Over 20	65	39.4	100.0
Job Location	Headquarters	100	60.6	60.6
	Taereung NTC	38	23.0	83.6
	Jincheon NTC	27	16.4	100.0
Grand Total		165		

Note. National Training Center (NTC)

4. 1. 2. Descriptive Statistics

This section presents the detailed information of descriptive statistics of all six variables: Validity of Performance Appraisal Standards, Adequacy of PA Feedback, Participation during the Performance Appraisal Process, Distributive Justice, Interactional Justice, and Employees' Performance Appraisal System Acceptance.

The grand mean including the grand standard deviation of six variables^{1 2} on the questionnaire were computed respectively, using SPSS 18.0 with the data from 165 respondents.

According to Table 22 (p.103), the highest mean score was for the variable 'Performance Appraisal System Acceptance' (Mean = 3.11), followed by 'Interactional Justice' (Mean = 3.02), 'Adequacy of PA Feedback' (Mean = 2.94), and 'Validity of PA standards' (Mean = 2.83).

The lowest mean score was for the variable 'Distributive Justice' (Mean = 2.61) followed by 'Participation during PA process' (Mean = 2.65).

In the case of the dependent variable, PA system acceptance, 'The PA system is necessary for the performance management' (PSA 5) had the highest mean score (Mean = 3.42) followed by 'The PA system is necessary for the development of organization' (PSA 4, Mean = 3.41). Thus, it can be assumed that employees of the KOC perceived performance appraisal system

^{1 2} *Note.* 25 out of 30 items were utilized for the hypotheses tests because five items were deleted (see pp. 95~96).

as an important management tool because over 50% of them agreed that performance appraisal was necessary for the development of organization (agree: 40.7%, strongly agree: 12.1%) and the performance management (agree: 44.3%, strongly agree: 9.7%; see Table 28, p.109).

In the case of the independent variable, distributive justice, 'Fairly distributed considering the job responsibilities' (DJ 1) had the highest mean score (Mean = 2.69) and 'Fairly rewarded by job difficulty and stresses' (DJ 5) had the lowest mean score (Mean = 2.44). The result of descriptive statistics of distributive justice presented that approximately 45%^{1 3} of employees thought rewards were not distributed fairly (see Table 26, p.107). It should be noted that more than half of employees believed that when rewarded, job difficulties and stress were not considered fairly (disagree: 44.8%, strongly disagree: 10.3%; see Table 26, p.107).

In summation, except for the variable, 'PA System Acceptance', employees had neutral or somewhat negative attitudes toward the other five variables (see Table 22, p.103).

The results of descriptive statistics of all variables were presented in Table 22 (p.103) and the results of each individual variable were displayed from Table 23 to Table 28 (pp.104~109).

^{1 3} The percentage was calculated by dividing the total number of respondents of each variable who marked 'strongly disagree' and 'disagree' by summation of the total number of frequency of each items ($374/825 \times 100$).

Table 22. Descriptive Statistics of All Variables

Variable	Item	N (Sample)	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	
I	Validity of PA Standards (2.83 / .86)	VPS 1	165	1	5	2.76	.82
		VPS 2	165	1	5	2.74	.80
		VPS 3	165	1	5	2.70	.85
		VPS 4	165	1	5	2.76	.88
		VPS 5	165	1	5	3.16	.86
	Adequacy of PA Feedback (2.94 / .91)	AF 1	165	1	5	2.67	.83
		AF 2	165	1	5	3.41	.89
		AF 3	165	1	5	3.01	.86
		AF 4	165	1	5	2.67	.86
	Participation during the PA Process (2.65 / .90)	PDP 1	165	1	5	2.81	1.00
		PDP 2	165	1	5	2.56	.81
		PDP 3	165	1	5	2.70	.86
		PDP 4	165	1	5	2.54	.88
	Distributive Justice (2.61 / .90)	DJ 1	165	1	5	2.69	.90
		DJ 2	165	1	5	2.65	.89
DJ 3		165	1	5	2.62	.91	
DJ 4		165	1	5	2.67	.94	
DJ 5		165	1	5	2.44	.81	
M	Interactional Justice (3.02 / .86)	IJ 1	165	1	5	3.19	.84
		IJ 2	165	1	5	3.18	.86
		IJ 3	165	1	5	3.13	.82
		IJ 4	165	1	5	2.87	.82
		IJ 5	165	1	5	2.90	.84
		IJ 6	165	1	5	2.89	.92
D	PA System Acceptance (3.11 / 1.00)	PSA 1	165	1	5	2.95	.88
		PSA 2	165	1	5	2.86	1.04
		PSA 3	165	1	5	2.84	.99
		PSA 4	165	1	5	3.41	1.02
		PSA 5	165	1	5	3.42	.97
		PSA 6	165	1	5	3.15	.96

Note. I = Independent Variable, M = Moderator Variable, D = Dependent Variable

Means and standard deviations differ somewhat from those in correlation analysis results on page 119 because 25 items were used for the hypotheses tests instead of 30 items above.

Table 23. Descriptive Statistics of Validity of PA Standards (Independent Variable)

Item	Content	Opinion	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Mean	Std. Deviation
VPS 1	Evaluated by appropriate PA Standards	Strongly Disagree	12	7.3	2.76	.82
		Disagree	43	26.1		
		Neutral	84	50.9		
		Agree	25	15.1		
		Strongly Agree	1	0.6		
	Total		165	100.0		
VPS 2	PA standards reflects job description	Strongly Disagree	8	4.8	2.74	.80
		Disagree	55	33.3		
		Neutral	75	45.5		
		Agree	26	15.8		
		Strongly Agree	1	0.6		
	Total		165	100.0		
VPS 3	Based on results achieved	Strongly Disagree	7	4.2	2.70	.85
		Disagree	67	40.6		
		Neutral	60	36.4		
		Agree	29	17.6		
		Strongly Agree	2	1.2		
	Total		165	100.0		
VPS 4	Based on Abilities and Skills	Strongly Disagree	9	5.5	2.76	.88
		Disagree	56	33.9		
		Neutral	70	42.4		
		Agree	25	15.2		
		Strongly Agree	5	3.0		
	Total		165	100.0		
VPS 5	Based on Job-related behaviors	Strongly Disagree	6	3.6	3.16	.86
		Disagree	28	17.0		
		Neutral	68	41.2		
		Agree	59	35.8		
		Strongly Agree	4	2.4		
	Total		165	100.0		
Validity of PA Standards (No items were deleted)					2.83	.86

Table 24. Descriptive Statistics of Adequacy of PA Feedback (Independent Variable)

Item	Content	Opinion	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Mean	Std. Deviation
AF 1	Usefulness of feedback Regarding my job performance	Strongly Disagree	9	5.5	2.67	.83
		Disagree	62	37.6		
		Neutral	71	43.0		
		Agree	20	12.1		
		Strongly Agree	3	1.8		
	Total		165	100.0		
AF 2	Worthwhile Discussion about performance	Strongly Disagree	2	1.2	3.41	.89
		Disagree	26	15.8		
		Neutral	52	31.5		
		Agree	72	43.6		
		Strongly Agree	13	7.9		
	Total		165	100.0		
AF 3	Training Opportunities to improve skills and performance	Strongly Disagree	1	0.6	3.01	.86
		Disagree	49	29.6		
		Neutral	69	42.0		
		Agree	39	23.6		
		Strongly Agree	7	4.2		
	Total		165	100.0		
AF 4	Timely feedback on performance	Strongly Disagree	12	7.3	2.67	.86
		Disagree	58	35.2		
		Neutral	72	43.6		
		Agree	20	12.1		
		Strongly Agree	3	1.8		
	Total		165	100.0		
Adequacy of PA Feedback (Deleted item: AF 2)					2.94	.91

Table 25. Descriptive Statistics of Participation during the PA process (Independent Variable)

Item	Content	Opinion	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Mean	Std. Deviation
PDP 1	Opportunities to appeal or challenge the PA system	Strongly Disagree	17	10.3	2.81	1.00
		Disagree	49	29.7		
		Neutral	50	30.3		
		Agree	47	28.5		
		Strongly Agree	2	1.2		
	Total		165	100.0		
PDP 2	Rater's intention to hear the concerns	Strongly Disagree	16	9.7	2.56	.81
		Disagree	56	33.9		
		Neutral	78	47.3		
		Agree	14	8.5		
		Strongly Agree	1	0.6		
	Total		165	100.0		
PDP 3	Chances to request for clarification about the rating	Strongly Disagree	11	6.7	2.70	.86
		Disagree	58	35.1		
		Neutral	67	40.6		
		Agree	27	16.4		
		Strongly Agree	2	1.2		
	Total		165	100.0		
PDP 4	Chances to discuss work plans or PA indicators	Strongly Disagree	15	9.1	2.54	.88
		Disagree	72	43.7		
		Neutral	54	32.7		
		Agree	22	13.3		
		Strongly Agree	2	1.2		
	Total		165	100.0		
Participation during the PA Process (Deleted item: PDP 4)					2.65	.90

Table 26. Descriptive Statistics of Distributive Justice (Independent Variable)

Item	Content	Opinion	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Mean	Std. Deviation
DJ 1	Fairly rewarded by the job responsibilities	Strongly Disagree	17	10.3	2.69	.90
		Disagree	48	29.1		
		Neutral	72	43.6		
		Agree	26	15.8		
		Strongly Agree	2	1.2		
	Total		165	100.0		
DJ 2	Fairly rewarded by job experience	Strongly Disagree	18	10.9	2.65	.89
		Disagree	48	29.1		
		Neutral	74	44.9		
		Agree	23	13.9		
		Strongly Agree	2	1.2		
	Total		165	100.0		
DJ 3	Fairly rewarded by the amount of effort	Strongly Disagree	16	9.7	2.62	.91
		Disagree	60	36.4		
		Neutral	64	38.8		
		Agree	21	12.7		
		Strongly Agree	4	2.4		
	Total		165	100.0		
DJ 4	Fairly rewarded by performance	Strongly Disagree	13	7.9	2.67	.94
		Disagree	63	38.2		
		Neutral	60	36.4		
		Agree	23	13.9		
		Strongly Agree	6	3.6		
	Total		165	100.0		
DJ 5	Fairly rewarded by job difficulty and stresses	Strongly Disagree	17	10.3	2.44	.81
		Disagree	74	44.8		
		Neutral	59	35.8		
		Agree	14	8.5		
		Strongly Agree	1	0.6		
	Total		165	100.0		
Distributive Justice (No items were deleted)					2.61	.90

Table 27. Descriptive Statistics of Interactional Justice (Moderator Variable)

Item	Content	Opinion	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Mean	Std. Deviation
IJ 1	Treated with Kindness and consideration	Strongly Disagree	5	3.0	3.19	.84
		Disagree	23	13.9		
		Neutral	80	48.6		
		Agree	50	30.3		
		Strongly Agree	7	4.2		
	Total		165	100		
IJ 2	Treated with respect & dignity	Strongly Disagree	6	3.6	3.18	.86
		Disagree	25	15.2		
		Neutral	74	44.9		
		Agree	54	32.7		
		Strongly Agree	6	3.6		
	Total		165	100		
IJ 3	Treated with a truthful manner	Strongly Disagree	8	4.8	3.13	.82
		Disagree	16	9.7		
		Neutral	94	57.0		
		Agree	41	24.9		
		Strongly Agree	6	3.6		
	Total		165	100		
IJ 4	Raters' consideration for my personal needs	Strongly Disagree	8	4.9	2.87	.82
		Disagree	40	24.2		
		Neutral	85	51.5		
		Agree	29	17.6		
		Strongly Agree	3	1.8		
	Total		165	100		
IJ 5	Raters' concerns my right as an employee	Strongly Disagree	8	4.9	2.90	.84
		Disagree	39	23.6		
		Neutral	86	52.1		
		Agree	27	16.4		
		Strongly Agree	5	3.0		
	Total		165	100		
IJ6	Offering explanations that makes sense to me	Strongly Disagree	8	4.9	2.89	.92
		Disagree	51	30.9		
		Neutral	63	38.2		
		Agree	38	23.0		
		Strongly Agree	5	3.0		
	Total		165	100.0		
Interactional Justice (No items were deleted)					3.02	.86

Table 28. Descriptive Statistics of PA System Acceptance (Dependent Variable)

Item	Content	Opinion	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Mean	Std. Deviation
PSA 1	Accepted Overall	Strongly Disagree	11	6.7	2.95	.88
		Disagree	33	20.0		
		Neutral	76	46.0		
		Agree	43	26.1		
		Strongly Agree	2	1.2		
Total			165	100.0		
PSA 2	Motivated by the PA system	Strongly Disagree	12	7.3	2.86	1.04
		Disagree	56	33.9		
		Neutral	48	29.1		
		Agree	40	24.2		
		Strongly Agree	9	5.5		
Total			165	100.0		
PSA 3	Opportunities for the Growth and Challenge	Strongly Disagree	13	7.9	2.84	.99
		Disagree	49	29.7		
		Neutral	62	37.6		
		Agree	33	20.0		
		Strongly Agree	8	4.8		
Total			165	100.0		
PSA 4	Necessary for the development of organization	Strongly Disagree	7	4.2	3.41	1.02
		Disagree	24	14.5		
		Neutral	47	28.5		
		Agree	67	40.7		
		Strongly Agree	20	12.1		
Total			165	100.0		
PSA 5	Necessary for the performance management	Strongly Disagree	6	3.6	3.42	.97
		Disagree	23	13.9		
		Neutral	47	28.5		
		Agree	73	44.3		
		Strongly Agree	16	9.7		
Total			165	100.0		
PSA 6	Necessary for enhancing competency	Strongly Disagree	5	3.0	3.15	.96
		Disagree	39	23.6		
		Neutral	57	34.6		
		Agree	53	32.1		
		Strongly Agree	11	6.7		
Total			165	100.0		
PA System Acceptance (Deleted items: PSA 1, PSA 2, PSA 3)					3.11	1.00

4. 1. 3. Mean Comparison Between Groups

This section analyzes the mean differences between the two groups. Before testing the hypotheses, based on demographic variables, independent samples t-test was performed to verify the mean differences between the two groups.

Demographic variables employed in this research comprise of seven elements: Gender, Age, Education, Position, Functional Area, Tenure and Job Location. Each demographic variable was converted into dummy variables for the independent t-test.

When conducting the independent samples t-test, it must check ‘Levene’s Test for Equality of Variance’ because the way of data interpretation should differ from whether equal variances are assumed (Song, 2009; Field, 2013; Roh, 2014).

The researcher confirmed that all the Sig. values Levene’s test in this research were larger than .05. Hence, all variances were assumed equal.

4. 1. 3. 1. Validity of Performance Appraisal Standards

As provided in Table 29 (p.111), only three means of variables (position, functional area, and job location) were statistically different. Perceptual differences were significant between positions: ‘Manager or Higher’ and ‘Team Member’

($t = -2.881$, $p = .004$), which means perceptions of team members were lower than those of managers or higher positions in terms of validity of PA standards.

In the case of a functional area, full-time workers perceived validity of PA standards lower than contract workers ($t = -3.869$, $p = .000$).

Lastly, employees working in the Headquarters perceived PA standards were more valid than those working in the National Training Center. ($t = 2.620$, $p = .010$).

Table 29. Mean Comparison: Validity of PA Standards

	Category	Population	Mean	Std. Deviation	t / p	Comparison
Gender	Male	111	2.86	.69	.827 .409	M > F
	Female	54	2.76	.69		
Age	20~39	75	2.87	.65	.756 .470	20~29 > Over 40
	Over 40	90	2.80	.72		
Education	Up to Bachelor's Degree	126	2.86	.69	.968 .335	B's degree > M's degree
	Over Master's Degree	39	2.73	.67		
Position	Team Member	131	2.75	.68	-2.881 .004**	Manager > Team Member
	Manager or Higher	34	3.12	.66		
Functional Area	Full time	142	2.74	.67	-3.869 .000**	Contract > Full time
	Contract	23	3.32	.63		
Tenure	5~14 years	90	2.86	.63	.680 .498	5~14 years > 15 years and above
	15 years and above	75	2.79	.75		
Job Location	Headquarters	100	2.94	.67	2.620 .010*	HQs > TC
	Training Center	65	2.66	.68		

4. 1. 3. 2. Adequacy of PA Feedback

The t-test revealed that only the two pairs of groups showed statistical mean difference. The first case was that those who belong to the group, ‘Up to Bachelor’s Degree’, perceived feedback was more adequate than those whose education level was over Master’s Degree ($t = 2.459$, $p = .015$). The other case was that perceptions of full-time workers were lower than contract workers ($t = -3.923$, $p = .000$; see Table 30, p.112).

Table 30. Mean Comparison: Adequacy of PA Feedback

	Category	Population	Mean	Std. Deviation	t / p	Comparison
Gender	Male	111	2.79	.74	.204 .839	M > F
	Female	54	2.77	.67		
Age	20~39	75	2.88	.76	1.685 .094	20~29 > Over 40
	Over 40	90	2.70	.67		
Education	Up to Bachelor’s Degree	126	2.86	.70	2.459 .015*	B’s degree > M’s degree
	Over Master’s Degree	39	2.54	.72		
Position	Team Member	131	2.75	.71	-1.186 .238	Manager > Team Member
	Manager or Higher	34	2.91	.74		
Functional Area	Full time	142	2.70	.70	-3.923 .000**	Contract > Full time
	Contract	23	3.30	.61		
Tenure	5~14 years	90	2.84	.73	1.229 .221	5~14 years > 15 years and above
	15 years and above	75	2.70	.70		
Job Location	Headquarters	100	2.82	.75	.846 .399	HQs > TC
	Training Center	65	2.72	.67		

4. 1. 3. 3. Participation during the Performance Appraisal Process

The t-test presented that in terms of employee participation during the performance appraisal process, only one group was statistically different.

Employees with a Bachelor's Degree including those only graduating from high school perceived participation during the performance appraisal process higher than those with a Master's Degree or Higher ($t = 2.320, p = .022$). Other cases were not significantly different (see Table 31, p.113).

Table 31. Mean Comparison: Participation during the PA Process

	Category	Population	Mean	Std. Deviation	t / p	Comparison
Gender	Male	111	2.75	.80	1.438	M > F
	Female	54	2.57	.69	.152	
Age	20~39	75	2.66	.80	-.504	Over 40 > 20~29
	Over 40	90	2.71	.75	.615	
Education	Up to Bachelor's Degree	126	2.77	.75	2.320	B's degree > M's degree
	Over Master's Degree	39	2.44	.80	.022*	
Position	Team Member	131	2.64	.76	-1.552	Manager > Team Member
	Manager or Higher	34	2.87	.79	.123	
Functional Area	Full time	142	2.66	.78	-1.400	Contract > Full time
	Contract	23	2.90	.65	.163	
Tenure	5~14 years	90	2.70	.77	.031	5~14 years > 15 years and above
	15 years and above	75	2.69	.77	.976	
Job Location	Headquarters	100	2.75	.77	1.226	HQs > TC
	Training Center	65	2.60	.76	.222	

4. 1. 3. 4. Distributive Justice

The t-test showed the results as offered in Table 32 (p.114). Means of Gender, Education, Position and Job Location were statistically different.

Firstly, male employees perceived distributive justice higher than female coworkers ($t = 2.081, p = .039$). Secondly, perceptions of those whose education level were up to Bachelor's Degree were higher than those of Master's Degree ($t = 2.158, p = .032$). Thirdly, team members perceived distributive justice lower than managers or positions higher than managers ($t = -1.081, p = .281$). Lastly, perceptions of the HQs were higher than those of the National Training Center ($t = 2.526, p = .012$).

Table 32. Mean Comparison: Distributive Justice

Category	Population	Mean	Std. Deviation	t / p	Comparison	
Gender	Male	111	2.70	.84	2.081 .039*	M > F
	Female	54	2.42	.70		
Age	20~39	75	2.63	.76	.293 .770	20~29 > Over 40
	Over 40	90	2.60	.84		
Education	Up to Bachelor's Degree	126	2.69	.78	2.158 .032*	B's degree > M's degree
	Over Master's Degree	39	2.37	.84		
Position	Team Member	131	2.51	.76	-3.121 .002**	Manager > Team Member
	Manager or Higher	34	2.99	.85		
Functional Area	Full time	142	2.59	.80	-1.081 .281	Contract > Full time
	Contract	23	2.78	.79		
Tenure	5~14 years	90	2.64	.73	.483 .630	5~14 years > 15 years and above
	15 years and above	75	2.58	.89		
Job Location	Headquarters	100	2.74	.83	2.526 .012*	HQs > TC
	Training Center	65	2.42	.72		

4. 1. 3. 5. Interactional Justice

The t-test displayed the results in Table 33 (p.115). In the case of interactional justice, there were statistical mean differences in three categories: Education, Position and Job Location.

Employees who graduated from only high school or four-year college perceived interactional justice higher than those who graduated from graduate school or higher educational institutions ($t = 2.886, p = .004$).

However, perceptions of team members were lower than those of managers or higher ($t = -2.054, p = .042$). Lastly, employees in the HQs perceived interactional justice higher than those in the National Training Center ($t = 3.062, p = .003$).

Table 33. Mean Comparison: Interactional Justice

Category	Population	Mean	Std. Deviation	t / p	Comparison	
Gender	Male	111	3.09	.72	1.892	M > F
	Female	54	2.87	.72	.060	
Age	20~39	75	3.10	.76	1.272	20~29 >
	Over 40	90	2.96	.70	.205	Over 40
Education	Up to Bachelor's Degree	126	3.11	.68	2.886	B's degree >
	Over Master's Degree	39	2.73	.82	.004**	M's degree
Position	Team Member	131	2.96	.72	-2.054	Manager > Team Member
	Manager or Higher	34	3.25	.75	.042*	
Functional Area	Full time	142	3.01	.74	-.245	Contract >
	Contract	23	3.05	.67	.806	Full time
Tenure	5~14 years	90	3.07	.71	.981	5~14 years >
	15 years and above	75	2.96	.76	.328	15 years and above
Job Location	Headquarters	100	3.16	.68	3.062	HQs > TC
	Training Center	65	2.81	.75	.003**	

4. 1. 3. 6. Employees' Performance Appraisal System Acceptance

The t-test uncovered the results as stated in Table 34 (p.116).

Employees' performance appraisal system acceptance was statistically different in the two pair of groups.

Male employees' perception of performance appraisal system acceptance was higher than that of female workers ($t = 2.225$, $p = .027$) and team members perceived performance appraisal system lower than managers or higher ($t = -3.302$, $p = .001$).

Table 34. Mean Comparison: PA System Acceptance

Category		Population	Mean	Std. Deviation	t / p	Comparison
Gender	Male	111	3.43	.86	2.225 .027*	M > F
	Female	54	3.11	.88		
Age	20~39	75	3.46	.83	.1727 .086	20~29 > Over 40
	Over 40	90	3.22	.91		
Education	Up to Bachelor's Degree	126	3.30	.90	-.623 .534	M's degree > B's degree
	Over Master's Degree	39	3.41	.79		
Position	Team Member	131	3.22	.87	-3.302 .001**	Manager > Team Member
	Manager or higher	34	3.76	.78		
Functional Area	Full-time	142	3.28	.89	-1.712 .089	Contract > Full time
	Contract	23	3.62	.76		
Tenure	5~14 years	90	3.37	.85	.532 .596	5~14 years > 15 years and above
	15 years and above	75	3.29	.91		
Job Location	Headquarters	100	3.38	.93	.904 .367	HQs > TC
	Training Center	65	3.26	.79		

4. 1. 4. Correlation Analysis

Before testing the hypotheses with the collected data, the researcher performed a Pearson's correlation analysis to identify relations between variables. A coefficient of correlation lies between -1 and 1.

According to Field (2013, p.270),

“A coefficient of +1 indicates a perfect positive relationship, a coefficient of -1 indicates a perfect negative relationship, and a coefficient of 0 indicates no linear relationship at all. Values of $\pm .1$ represent a small effect, $\pm .3$ is a medium effect and $\pm .5$ is a large effect.”

As stated in Table 35 (p.119), all independent and moderator variables were significantly related to the dependent variable: VPS and PSA ($r = .310$, $p = .000$), AF and PSA ($r = .321$, $p = .000$), PDP and PSA ($r = .309$, $p = .000$), DJ and PSA ($r = .381$, $p = .000$), IJ and PSA ($r = .178$, $p = .022$).

In the case of demographic variables, only two variables were significantly related to the dependent variable: DG and PSA ($r = -.172$, $p = .027$), DP and PSA ($r = .250$, $p = .001$).

Interestingly, all demographic variables were significantly related to at least more than one of the variables (independent, moderator or dependent variable); however, two of them were not: DA and DT. In addition, the correlation between DA and DT was greater than .80 (.809**).

Based on Field (2013), if a coefficient of correlations between variables is .80 or greater, a chance of multicollinearity between variables is relatively higher than when that of correlations is smaller than .80.

Therefore, it is important for this research to establish a criterion to utilize demographic variables as control variables in a hierarchical multiple regression analysis and to reduce multicollinearity when performing tests of hypotheses. The criterion for the analysis process mentioned above is to remove variables with coefficient .80 or higher.

As shown in Table 35 (p.119), coefficients of correlations between most variables were smaller than .80, except between DA and DT. For this reason, the five demographic variables were employed as control variables (DG, DE, DP, DFA, and DJL) except DA and DT, considering their correlations when conducting the hierarchical multiple regression analysis for tests of hypotheses.

The meaning of each abbreviation used for this research can be found in either the List of Abbreviation (p.x) or Table 35 (p.119).

Lastly, it might be necessary to remember some of means and standard deviations from items 1 to 6 in Table (p.119) differed slightly from those in descriptive statistics (see Chapter 4, pp. 101~109) because five items were deleted during the data analysis process (see Chapter 3, pp. 95~96), and new variables that represent six constructs were created by arithmetic means to test the eight hypotheses.

Table 35. Results of Correlation Analysis

	Mean	Std. D	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. VPS	2.827	.689	1												
2. AF	2.782	.718	.581**	1											
3. PDP	2.691	.769	.424**	.533**	1										
4. DJ	2.615	.804	.593**	.545**	.524**	1									
5. IJ	3.023	.729	.494**	.576**	.587**	.650**	1								
6. PSA	3.333	.880	.310**	.321**	.309**	.381**	.178*	1							
7. DG	.327	.471	-.065	-.016	-.112	-.161*	-.147	-.172*	1						
8. DA	.546	.499	-.057	-.131	.039	-.023	-.099	-.134	-.297**	1					
9. DE	.236	.426	-.076	-.189*	-.179*	-.167*	-.220**	.049	.098	-.122	1				
10. DP	.206	.406	.220**	.092	.121	.237**	.159*	.250**	-.323**	.465**	-.072	1			
11. DFA	.139	.347	.290**	.294**	.109	.084	.019	.133	.204**	-.300**	-.018	-.162*	1		
12. DT	.455	.499	-.053	-.096	-.002	-.038	-.077	-.042	-.222**	<u>.809**</u>	-.193*	.528**	-.332**	1	
13. DJL	.394	.490	-.201**	-.066	-.096	-.194*	-.233**	-.071	-.060	.138	.106	-.043	-.002	.086	1

1. **VPS:** Validity of PA Standards

2. **AF:** Adequacy of PA Feedback

3. **PDP:** Participation of during the PA Process

4. **DJ:** Distributive Justice

5. **IJ:** Interactional Justice

6. **PSA:** PA System Acceptance

7. **DG:** Gender (0: male, 1: female)

8. **DA:** Age (0: 20~39, 1: over 40)

9. **DE:** Education (0: Up to Bachelor's Degree, 1: over Master's Degree)

10. **DP:** Position (0: Team Member, 1: Manager or higher)

11. **DFA:** Functional Area (0: Full-time, 1: Contract)

12. **DT:** Tenure (0: 5~14 years, 1: 15 years and above)

13. **DJL:** Job Location

(0: Headquarters, 1: Training Center)

- Independent Variable: **1~4**

- Moderator Variable: **5**

- Dependent Variable: **6**

- **D:** Dummy Variable **7~13**

4. 2. Tests of Hypotheses

This section is structured with three sub-sections: 1) Prerequisite Before Tests of Hypotheses, 2) Procedure of Examining Main and Moderating Effect, and 3) Results of Hypotheses Tests.

In the first sub-section, the reason why multicollinearity should be scanned before tests of hypotheses and the way to detect multicollinearity were explained. In the second sub-section, the way of creating interaction terms to examine the main and moderating effects was introduced. Lastly, in the third sub-section, eight hypotheses were tested through the hierarchical multiple regression analysis.

4. 2. 1. Prerequisite before Tests of Hypotheses

When regression analysis is conducted with more than one predictor to test hypotheses, a concern researchers should know of is multicollinearity, which exists when there is a strong correlation between two or more predictors (Field, 2013).

Identifying multicollinearity is an important procedure. If there is multicollinearity between predictors, it becomes impossible to obtain unique estimates of the regression coefficients because of increasing standard errors in each independent variable.

In short, it might cause inaccurate interpretations or distorted conclusions of regression analysis results (Yi, 1994).

According to Lee (2014), multicollinearity should be scanned before examining interaction effects because they are measured by examining relations between dependent variables and interaction variables created by multiplying two variables (a predictor variable \times a moderator variable).

One of the most frequently used methods to reduce the multicollinearity problem that arises when testing interaction effect is mean-centering. Centering is accomplished by subtracting the mean from the values of the predictor variable, thus creating a transformed predictor with a mean of zero. Centering can reduce the problem of multicollinearity in regression equations, improving the overall interpretation (Aiken, West, & Reno, 1991). Dawson (2014, p.12) stated that

“Mean-centering the variables will ensure that the (unstandardized) regression coefficients of the main effects can be interpreted directly in terms of the original variables.”

Therefore, all predictors including the moderator variable, except the criterion variable, were mean-centered to reduce multicollinearity in the estimation, and to improve the overall interpretation of the data.

Besides mean-centering, one common way for identifying multicollinearity is to check the correlation matrix of the predictor variables

including the dependent variable. According to Field (2013), if a coefficient of correlations is .80 or greater, there is a high chance of multicollinearity.

Another important indicator to check multicollinearity is Variance Inflation Factor (VIF).

“If the largest VIF is greater than 10 then there is a cause for concern (Bowerman & O’Connel, 1990; Myers, 1990)” Field (2013, p. 325).

For this reason, before testing hypotheses, the researcher scanned the correlation matrix and checked the VIF to detect multicollinearity.

Correlations of most variables were smaller than .80, except between DA and DT (.809**, these two variables wouldn’t be used as control variables), and the VIF of all variables remained under 10. Therefore, the possibility of having multicollinearity was quite low.

4. 2. 2. Procedure of Examining Main and Moderating Effects

According to Yi (1994) it is common, in social & behavior science, to examine not only main effects^{1 4} but also interaction effects. This research explored both main and interaction effects, following the research trend.

Specifically, this Master’s thesis tested employees’ performance appraisal system acceptance with four predicted main effects variables (validity of PA system standards, adequacy of PA feedback, participation

^{1 4} *Main Effect* means the unique effect of a predictor variable (or independent variable) on an outcome variable, Field(2013, p. 878).

during the PA process, and distributive justice) and analyzed four interaction terms (validity of PA system \times IJ, adequacy of PA feedback \times IJ, participation during the PA process \times IJ, distributive justice \times IJ), which will be explained in detail in the following section.

To reiterate, this research had four interaction terms, and the main effects terms for each part of the interaction variables were included in the equations as well. This increased the possibility of high intercorrelations among the diverse predictors.

In order to solve this concern, as described in the previous section, all independent variables were mean-centered including the moderator variable (Aiken et al., 1991; Dawson, 2014; Lee, 2014).

Referring to the study of McFarlin and Sweeney (1992), in which a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed to test hypotheses, the method employed by them was considered useful, practical, and effective to investigate the effects of control variables, main effects of predictors including the moderator variable, and interaction effects (moderating effects) toward the criterion variables simultaneously.

Considering McFarlin & Sweeney's research method, four main effect hypotheses (hypotheses 1a, 2a, 3a, and 4a) and four moderating effects (hypotheses 1b, 2b, 3b, and 4b), in this research, were tested by the hierarchical multiple regression analysis, controlling for effects of five

demographic variables (gender, education, position, functional area, and job location).

By testing moderating effects, it is helpful and advisable to understand the basic concepts of a moderator and an interaction variable and the process of how to apply it to the hypotheses tests.

Baron and Kenny (1986) stated that, in general terms, a moderator is a qualitative or quantitative variable influencing the direction or strength of the relationship between a predictor (independent) variable and a criterion (dependent) variable. To be more specific, within a correlational analysis framework,

“a moderator^{1 5} is a third variable that affects the zero-order correlation between two other variables.”

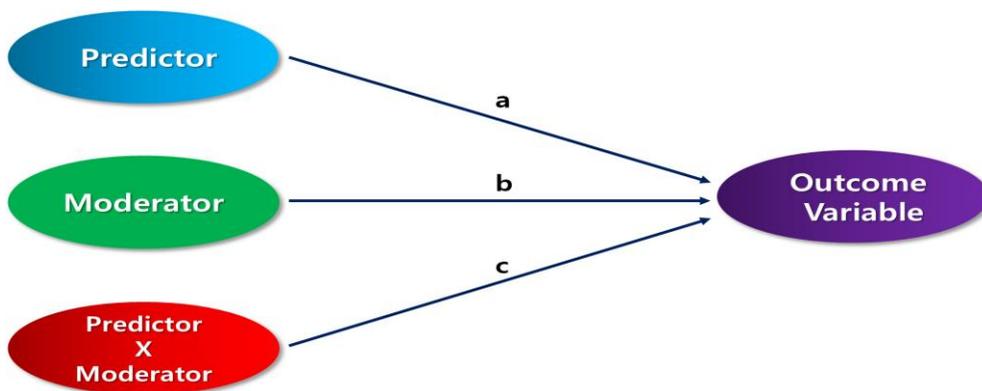


Figure 10. Moderator Model

Source: Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 51(6), p. 1174.

^{1 5} **Source:** [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Moderation_\(statistics\)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Moderation_(statistics))

The model diagrammed in Figure 10 (p.124) presents a statistically conceptualized process of the moderating effect analysis.

According to Field (2013), the interaction effect is the most important point because it tells us whether moderation has occurred or not, stating that the predictor and moderator as well as the interaction term must be included during the process to be valid.

Baron and Kenny (1986) claimed that there may be significant main effects for the predictor and the moderator (Paths a and b); however, these are not directly related to examining the moderator hypothesis.

In other words, the moderator hypothesis is supported if the interaction (Path c) is statistically significant.

In summation, referring to Aiken et al. (1991), Lee (2014) and McFarlin and Sweeney (1992), the analysis of main and moderating effects for the hypotheses tests were performed by the following four steps.

Firstly, control variables were regressed onto the PA system acceptance. Secondly, predictors were regressed onto the PA system acceptance. Thirdly, the moderator was regressed onto the PA system acceptance. Lastly, interaction terms were regressed onto the PA system acceptance (see Figure 11, p.126).

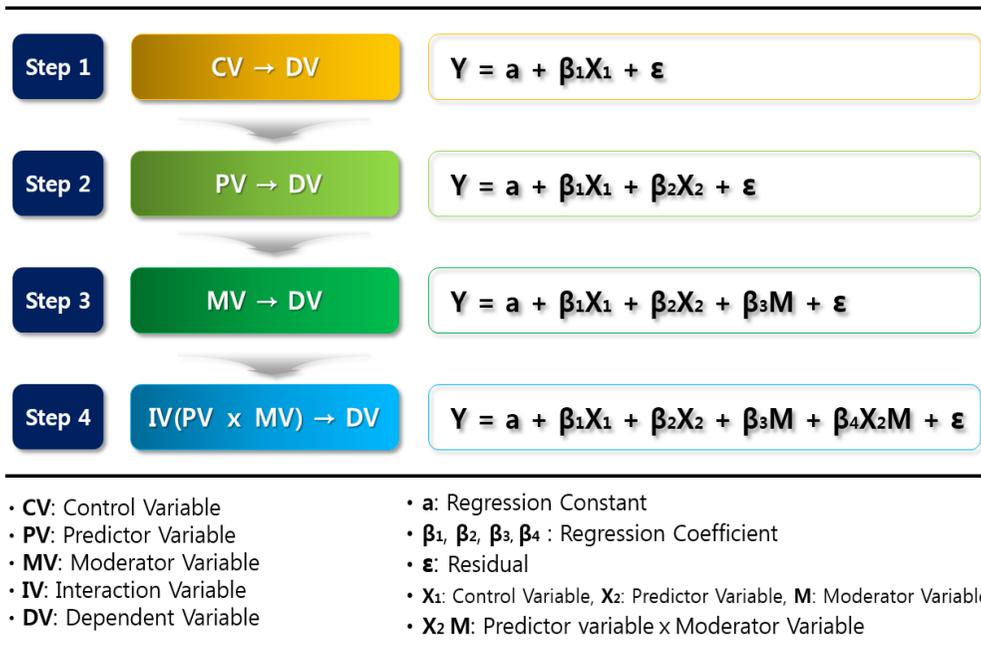


Figure 11. Test Process of Main and Moderating Effects

Note. The predictors and the moderator were mean-centered to reduce multicollinearity. Adapted from Baron and Kenny (1986); Field (2013); Lee (2014); Roh (2014); Song (2009); Yi (1994).

4. 2. 3. Results of Hypotheses Tests

Before presenting the results of the hypotheses tests, the researcher will explain some significant procedures and factors again.

Eight hypotheses were divided into four groups, and in each group a pair of hypotheses was tested at the same time: one for the main effect and the other for the interaction effect. That is, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed four times in total.

As stated in previous sections, four main effects of predictors (validity of PA system standards, adequacy of the PA feedback, participation

during the PA process, and distributive justice) and four interaction effects of the moderator (interactional justice) were examined for the hypotheses tests, controlling five demographic variables as control variables (gender, education, position, functional area, and job location). All five control variables were transformed into dummy variables and mean-centered variables (the predictors and the moderator) were used to reduce multicollinearity.

Four interaction terms were built by multiplying the predictors by the moderator, and the hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted drawing on Baron & Kenny's (1986) theory (see pp. 124~126).

Durbin-Watson test^{1 6} was performed to examine whether the residuals are correlated or not. All values of Durbin-Watson in regression models in this research were close to 2, which verified that residuals were independent.

So far, the researcher has focused on explaining basic but salient procedures and factors that should be checked before the hypotheses tests.

The following four sub-sections will reveal the results of the hypotheses tests.

^{1 6} The test statistic of Durbin-Watson test can vary between 0 and 4, with value of 2 meaning that the residuals are uncorrelated. A value greater than 2 indicates a negative correlation, whereas a value below 2 indicates a positive correlation (Field, 2013, p.311).

4. 2. 3. 1. Test Results of Hypotheses 1a and 1b

H1a	Perceived validity of PA standards will be positively related to employees' PA system Acceptance (Main Effect → Supported).
H1b	When employees' perception of interactional justice is higher, the relationship between validity of PA standards and employees' PA system acceptance will be greater (Interaction Effect → Supported).

Controlling for five demographic variables (gender, education, position, functional area, and job location) was conducted by the hierarchical multiple regression analysis to test Hypotheses 1a and 1b.

In step 1, five demographic variables were entered. According to the results of Model 1 (p.134), two variables, position ($\beta = .238$, $p = .003$) and functional area ($\beta = .204$, $p = .008$), were found to be significant. They accounted for 12.3% of the variance in employees' PA system acceptance.

In step 2, validity of PA standards was entered after controlling for the five demographic variables. The results of Model 2 (p.134) presented that the validity of PA standards with demographic variables explained 16.3% of the variance in PA system acceptance while control variables accounted for 12.3% of the variance in employees' PA system acceptance. The coefficient table also revealed that the validity of PA standards was an influential predictor of employees' PA system acceptance in Model 2 ($\beta = .224$, $p = .007$).

Hence, it is possible to claim that the validity of PA standards was positively related to the explained variance in employee's PA system

acceptance by an additional 4% of the variance ($P = .007$).

However, for the results in the coefficient table in Model 2 (p.134), only one demographic variable (position) was found to be statistically significant ($\beta = .183$, $p = .023$) while the two demographic variables (position and functional area) were statistically significant in Model 1(p.134).

In step 3, interactional justice was entered as a moderator variable with the validity of PA standards after controlling for the five demographic variables. According to the results of Model 3 (p.134), interactional justice with validity of PA standards and demographic variables explained 16.4% of the variance in employees' PA system acceptance; however, interactional justice, was not statistically significant ($\beta = .042$, $p = .633$).

In contrast to interactional justice, position and validity of PA standards were statistically significant: position ($\beta = .184$, $p = .023$), validity of PA standards ($\beta = .203$, $p = .029$).

In step 4, the interaction term formed by multiplying interactional justice and validity of PA standards was included in the regression equation after controlling for the five demographic variables.

Drawing on the results gained from Model 4 (p.134), the interaction term with the validity of PA standards, interactional justice, and the demographic variables accounted for 18.5% of the variance in employees' PA system acceptance.

In addition, the interaction term accounted for an additional 2.2% of the variance in employees' PA system acceptance ($p = .044$), proving that the interaction term itself was statistically significant ($\beta = .151, p = .044$).

Thus, it is plausible to contend that the interaction effect of validity of PA standards and interactional justice exerted a significant effect on employees' PA system acceptance.

With other variables, position ($\beta = .165, p = .041$) and validity of PA standards ($\beta = .213, p = .021$) were still statistically significant while interactional justice was not proved as a significant factor ($\beta = .020, p = .817$).

In conclusion, as expected, Hypothesis 1a was supported in terms of the positive relationship between validity of PA standards and employees' PA system acceptance verified through the hierarchical multiple regression model.

That is to say, employees' perception of PA system acceptance was higher when their perception of validity of PA standards increased.

According to the theory of Baron and Kenny (1986), although interactional justice was not statistically significant in Model 3 and 4 (p.134), the Hypothesis 1b was supported with the interaction term, which was statistically significant in Model 4 (p.134).

Thus, an additional analysis was conducted to determine the specific nature of the moderating effect because Hypothesis 1b was supported.

The results were schematized by two different types of graphs: Graphs (a) and (b). Graph (a) is not perfectly accurate from a statistical perspective; however, it helps to more easily and intuitively interpret statistical data by comparing the means of four individual data groups.

On the other hand, Graph (b) looks a little bit more complicated than Graph (a); however, it is more precise and plausible because it employs the actual equation formed by the regression analysis that reflects real data.

The process of the additional moderation effect analysis utilizing Graph (a) began by dividing data of interactional justice into two groups: the higher and the lower group by its median. Then, the data on validity of PA standards was also separated into two groups: the higher and the lower group by its median. Lastly, combining the calculated data, four individual groups were established. The data in each group represent the means of employees' PA system acceptance.

As stated in Table 36 (p.132), the mean of Group 1 with the higher the perception of interactional justice and the higher the perception of validity of PA standards resulted in the highest (3.862).

In contrast, Group 4 showed the lowest value of the mean (3.185) due to the employees who perceived both interactional justice and validity of PA standards as being low (see Table 36, p.132).

Table 36. Mean of PA System Acceptance by Interactional Justice and Validity of PA Standards

Interactional Justice	Validity of PA Standards	Mean of PA System Acceptance	Number of Employees	Percentage (%)	Group
High	High	3.862	29	17	1
	Low	3.231	39	24	2
Low	High	3.257	43	26	3
	Low	3.185	54	23	4

Analysis of Graph (a) found that those who perceived interactional justice as higher tended to accept the PA system more positively when employees’ perception of validity of PA standards was higher.

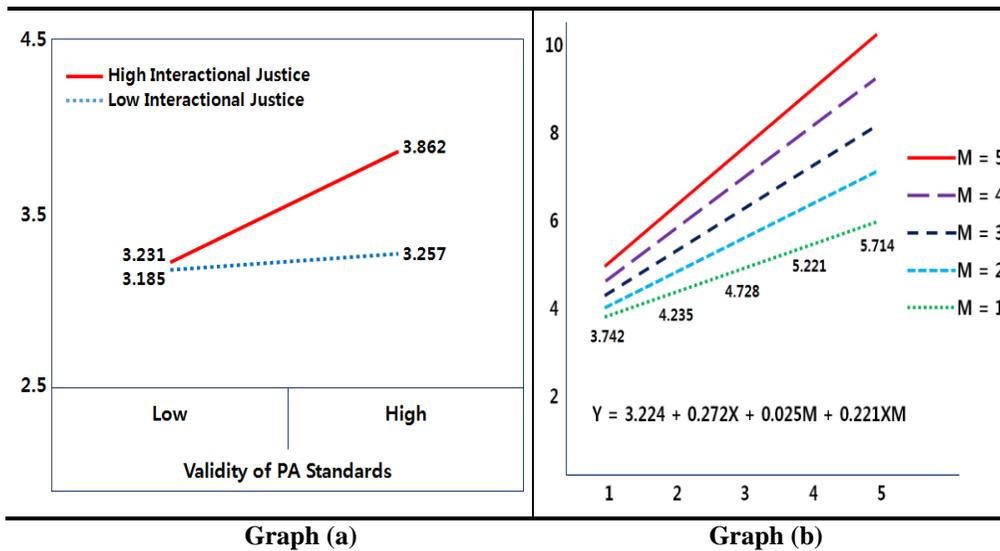


Figure 12. Moderating Effects of Interactional Justice for H1b

Let’s look at Graph (b) in Figure 12 (p.132). There are five lines in the graph. Each line represents the regression equation. In the equation in Graph (b), $Y = 3.224 + 0.272X + 0.025M + 0.221XM$, the moderator

variable (M) has the value of 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5. To be specific, the range of the value lies between 1 and 5. The moderating effect examines the relationship between the predictor and criterion variables when the value of moderator becomes greater (Lee, 2014).

According to Lee (2014), the values of the predictor (X) are changed while the value of the moderator (M) is fixed. For example, when the moderator (M) was 1 with the value of X was 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5, the value of the dependent variable (Y) equals 3.742, 4.235, 4.728, 5.221 and 5.714 (see Graph b in Figure 12, p.132).

Therefore, it was proven that, when the employees' perception of interactional justice was higher, the relationship between perceived validity of PA standards and employees' PA system acceptance would be greater.

Figure 13 (p.133) and Table 37 (p.134) displayed the test results of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis for Hypotheses 1a and 1b.

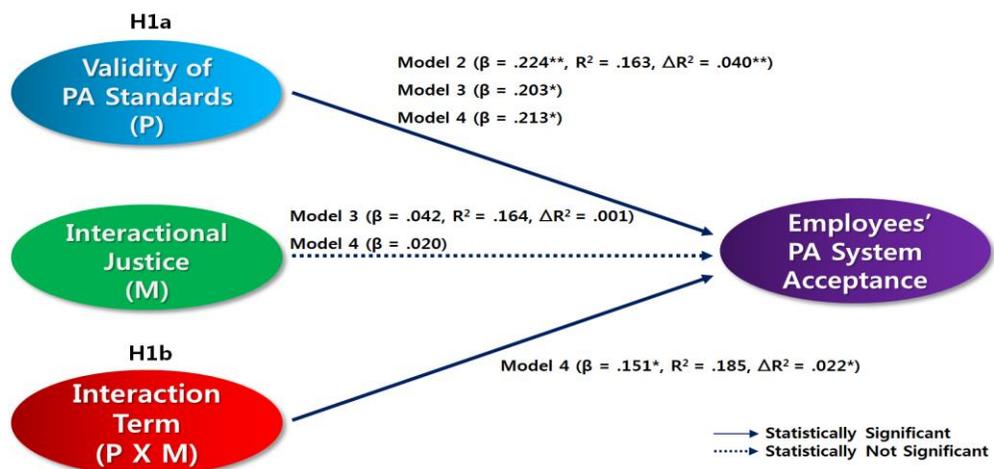


Figure 13. Summarized Test Results of Hypotheses 1a and 1b

Table 37. Test Results of Hypotheses 1a and 1b

Category	Employees' Performance Appraisal System Acceptance (Criterion Variable)				VIF
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	
	<i>B</i> (β)	<i>B</i> (β)	<i>B</i> (β)	<i>B</i> (β)	
(Constant)	3.257***	3.267***	3.256***	3.224***	
Gender	-.281 (-.150)	-.254 (-.136)	-.247 (-.132)	-.262 (-.140)	1.184
Education	.191 (.093)	.203 (.098)	.217 (.105)	.189 (.092)	1.075
Position	.517** (.238**)	.398* (.183*)	.399* (.184*)	.358* (.165*)	1.226
Functional Area	.516** (.204**)	.322 (.127)	.334 (.132)	.383 (.151)	1.237
Job Location	-.142 (-.079)	-.065 (-.036)	-.056 (-.031)	-.079 (-.044)	1.096
Validity of PA Standards (P)		.286** (.224**)	.260* (.203*)	.272* (.213*)	1.594
Interactional Justice (M)			.051 (.042)	.025 (.020)	1.480
Interaction Term (P × M)				.221* (.151*)	1.064
R ²	.123	.163	.164	.185	
Adj. R ²	.095	.131	.127	.144	
Δ R ²	123**	.040**	.001	.022*	
F	4.440**	5.117***	4.397***	4.439***	
Durbin Watson	2.111				

Note. *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001, () = Standardized Beta, P = Predictor Variable, M = Moderator Variable, VIF = Variance Inflation Factor, N = 165

4. 2. 3. 2. Test Results of Hypotheses 2a and 2b

H2a	Perceived adequacy of PA feedback will be positively related to employees' PA System Acceptance (Main Effect → Supported).
H2b	When employees' perception of interactional justice is higher, the relationship between adequacy of PA feedback and employees' PA system acceptance will be greater (Interaction Effect → Supported).

Controlling for five demographic variables (gender, education, position, functional area, job location) was performed by the hierarchical multiple regression analysis to test Hypotheses 2a and 2b.

In step 1, five demographic variables were entered. The results of Model 1 were the same as those in test results of Hypotheses 1a and 1b (see p.134 and 141).

In step 2, adequacy of PA feedback was entered after controlling for the five demographic variables. The results of Model 2 (p.141) showed that the adequacy of PA feedback with demographic variables explained 19.5% of the variance in PA system acceptance. The coefficient table indicated that the adequacy of PA feedback was a significant predictor of employees' PA system acceptance in Model 2 ($\beta = .290, p = .000$).

Thus, it is possible to suggest that the adequacy of PA feedback was positively related to the explained variance in employee's PA system acceptance by an additional 7.2% of the variance ($p = .000$).

However, for the results in the coefficient table in Model 2 (p.141), only one demographic variable (position) was found to be statistically significant ($\beta = .203$, $p = .009$) while the two demographic variables (position and functional area) were statistically significant in Model 1.

In step 3, interactional justice was entered as a moderator variable with the adequacy of PA feedback after controlling for the five demographic variables.

According to the outcomes of Model 3 (p.141), interactional justice with the adequacy of PA feedback and the demographic variables explained 19.6% of the variance in employees' PA system acceptance; however, interactional justice was not statistically significant ($\beta = -.049$, $p = .600$).

Contrary to interactional justice, position and adequacy of PA feedback were statistically significant: position ($\beta = .205$, $p = .009$), adequacy of PA feedback ($\beta = .318$, $p = .001$).

In step 4, after controlling for the five demographic variables, the interaction term was entered in the regression analysis, which was created by multiplying interactional justice and adequacy of PA feedback.

Based on the outcomes obtained from Model 4 (p.141), the interaction term with interactional justice, adequacy of PA feedback and demographic variables, accounted for 22.3% of the variance in employees' PA system acceptance.

In addition, the interaction term accounted for an additional 2.6% of the variance in employees' PA system acceptance ($p = .023$), proving that the interaction term itself was statistically significant ($\beta = .170$ $p = .023$). Thus, it is plausible to state that the interaction effect of adequacy of PA feedback and interactional justice made a significant influence on employees' PA system acceptance.

In the case of other variables, position ($\beta = .196$, $p = .001$) and adequacy of PA feedback ($\beta = .301$, $p = .002$) were still significant predictors while interactional justice was not considered a statistically significant factor ($\beta = -.068$, $p = .463$).

In conclusion, as expected, Hypothesis 2a was supported in terms of the positive relationship between adequacy of PA feedback and employees' PA system acceptance verified through the hierarchical multiple regression model below.

That is to say, when their perception of the adequacy of PA feedback increased, employees' perception of PA system acceptance was higher.

Referring to the moderator model developed by Baron and Kenny (1986), despite the fact that interactional justice was not statistically significant in Model 3 and 4, Hypothesis 2b was accepted because the interaction term was statistically significant in Model 4 (p.141).

Therefore, it was meaningful to perform a follow-up examination to test the moderating effect for Hypothesis 2b in detail.

As expounded in the previous section, an additional moderating effect analysis was carried out by a schematized approach utilizing two different sorts of graphs.

Reading Table 38 (p.138), Group 1 presented the highest mean value (3.899) because employees in this group perceived that PA feedback was more adequate when they had a higher perception of interactional justice.

Graph (a) in Figure 14 (p.139) explained that the more employees perceive that PA feedback was adequate, the more positively employees perceive the PA system acceptance when the employees' perception of interactional justice was higher.

Table 38. Mean of PA System Acceptance by Interactional Justice and Adequacy of PA Feedback

Interactional Justice	Adequacy of PA Feedback	Mean of PA System Acceptance	Number of Employees	Percentage (%)	Group
High	High	3.899	33	20	1
	Low	3.124	35	21	2
Low	High	3.305	47	29	3
	Low	3.134	50	30	4

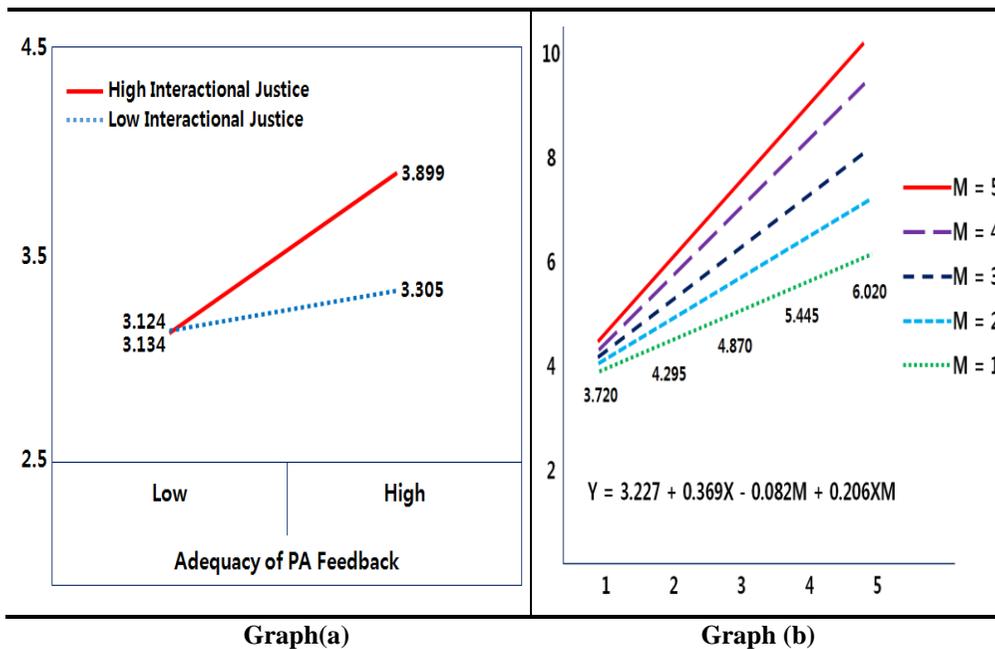


Figure 14. Moderating Effects of Interactional Justice for H2b

When it comes to studying the moderation effect through Graph (b) in Figure 14 (p.139), as stated in the previous section, the equation in Graph (b) showed the moderation effect by the changed value of the moderator from 1 to 5.

Therefore, it was proven that the relationship between adequacy of PA feedback and employees' PA system acceptance would be greater when the employees' perception of interactional justice was higher.

Figure 15 (p.140) and Table 39 (p.141) explained the test results of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis for Hypotheses 2a and 2b.

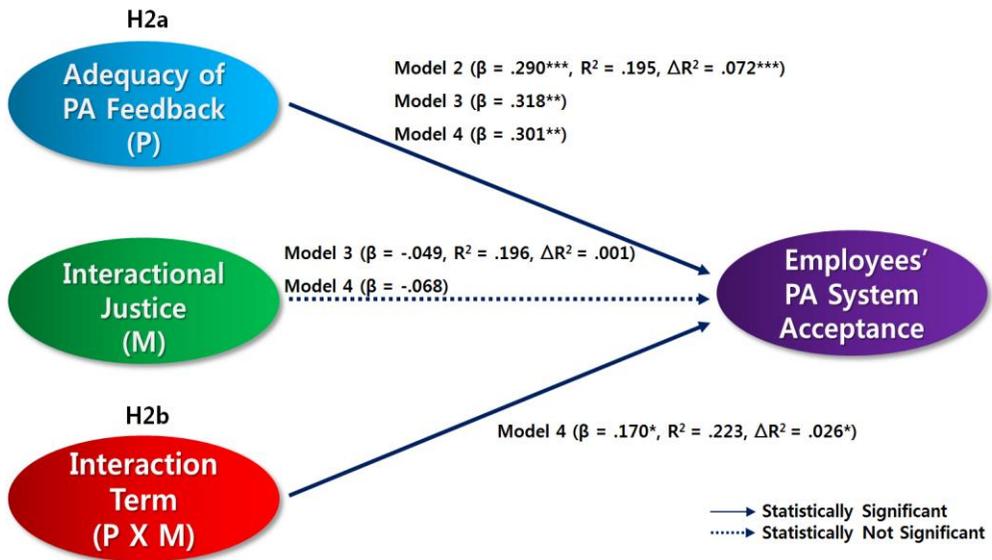


Figure 15. Summarized Test Results of Hypotheses 2a and 2b

Table 39. Test Results of Hypotheses 2a and 2b

Category	Employees' Performance Appraisal System Acceptance (Criterion Variable)				VIF
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	
	<i>B</i> (β)	<i>B</i> (β)	<i>B</i> (β)	<i>B</i> (β)	
(Constant)	3.257***	3.268***	3.281***	3.227***	
Gender	-.281 (-.150)	-.266 (-.142)	-.275 (-.147)	-.268 (-.143)	1.184
Education	.191 (.093)	.292 (.141)	.284 (.137)	.243 (.118)	1.084
Position	.517** (.238)	.441** (.203**)	.445* (.205*)	.425* (.196*)	1.158
Functional Area	.516** (.204)	.284 (.112)	.268 (.106)	.360 (.142)	1.249
Job Location	-.142 (-.079)	-.119 (-.066)	-.136 (-.075)	-.159 (.089)	1.092
Adequacy of PA feedback (P)		.355*** (.290***)	.390** (.318**)	.369** (.301**)	1.748
Interactional Justice (M)			-.059 (-.049)	-.082 (-.068)	1.724
Interaction Term (P × M)				.206* (.170*)	1.095
R ²	.123	.195	.196	.223	
Adj. R ²	.095	.164	.160	.183	
ΔR^2	.123**	.072***	.001	.026*	
F	4.440**	6.373***	5.477***	5.585***	
Durbin Watson	2.058				

Note. *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001, () = Standardized Beta, P = Predictor Variable, M = Moderator Variable, VIF = Variance Inflation Factor, N = 165

4. 2. 3. 3. Test Results of Hypotheses 3a and 3b

H3a	Perceived participation during the PA process will be positively related to employees' PA system Acceptance (Main Effect → Supported).
H3b	When employees' perception of interactional justice is higher, the relationship between participation during the PA process and employees' PA system acceptance will be greater (Interaction Effect → Rejected).

Controlling for five demographic variables (gender, education, position, functional area, job location) was conducted by the hierarchical multiple regression analysis to prove Hypotheses 3a and 3b.

In step 1, five demographic variables were inserted. The results of Model 1(p.146) were the same as those in test results of Hypotheses 1a, 1b, 2a, and 2b (see p.134, 141, and 146).

In step 2, participation during the PA process was entered after controlling for the five demographic variables. The outcomes of Model 2 (p.146) disclosed that participation during the PA process with demographic variables explained 19.0% of the variance in PA system acceptance. In addition, the coefficient table indicated that participation during the PA process was a significant predictor of employees' PA system acceptance in Model 2 ($\beta = .270$, $p = .000$).

Therefore, it is possible to postulate that participation during the PA process was positively relevant to the explained variance in employee's PA system acceptance by an increased 6.8% of the valiance ($p = .000$).

In the case of demographic variables, results in the coefficient table in Model 2 (p.146) indicated that position ($\beta = .212, p = .006$) and functional area ($\beta = .165, p = .028$) were found to be statistically significant as they were in Model 1 (p.146).

In step 3, interactional justice was inserted as a moderator with participation during the PA process after controlling for the demographic variables. According to the outcomes of Model 3 (p.146), interactional justice with participation during the PA process and the demographic variables explained 19.1% of the variance in employees' PA system acceptance; however, interactional justice was not statistically significant ($\beta = -.033, p = .725$).

In contrast to interactional justice, position, functional area, and participation during the PA process were statistically significant: position ($\beta = .214, p = .006$), functional area ($\beta = .164, p = .029$), and participation during the PA process ($\beta = .288, p = .002$).

In step 4, interaction term formed by multiplying interactional justice and participation during the PA process was inserted in the regression equation after controlling for the demographic variables. Drawing on the outcomes acquired from Model 4 (p.146), the interaction term with interactional justice, participation during the PA process and demographic variables, accounted for 19.9% of the variance in employees' PA system acceptance; however, the interaction term was not statistically significant

($p = .203$) explaining an additional 0.8% of the variance in employees' PA system acceptance.

Therefore, it is not persuasive to argue that the interaction effect of participation during the PA process and interactional justice caused a significant influence on employees' PA system acceptance.

In the case of other variables, Position ($\beta = .208$, $p = .008$), functional area ($\beta = .166$, $p = .027$) and participation during the PA process ($\beta = .291$, $p = .001$) were proven to be statistically significant factors.

In conclusion, as expected, Hypothesis 3a was supported in terms of the positive relationship between participation during the PA process and employees' PA system acceptance examined through the hierarchical multiple regression model below (see Figure 16, p.145; Table 40, p.146).

In short, employees' perception of PA system acceptance was higher when their perception of participation during the PA process increased.

However, in the case of Hypothesis 3b, as mentioned above, there was no statistically significant interaction effect of participation of during the PA process and interactional justice on employees' PA system acceptance.

Therefore, Hypothesis 3b - when employees' perception of interactional justice is higher, the relationship between participation during the PA process and employees' performance appraisal system acceptance will be greater - was rejected.

Figure 16 (p.145) and Table 40 (p.146) showed the test results of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis for Hypotheses 3a and 3b.

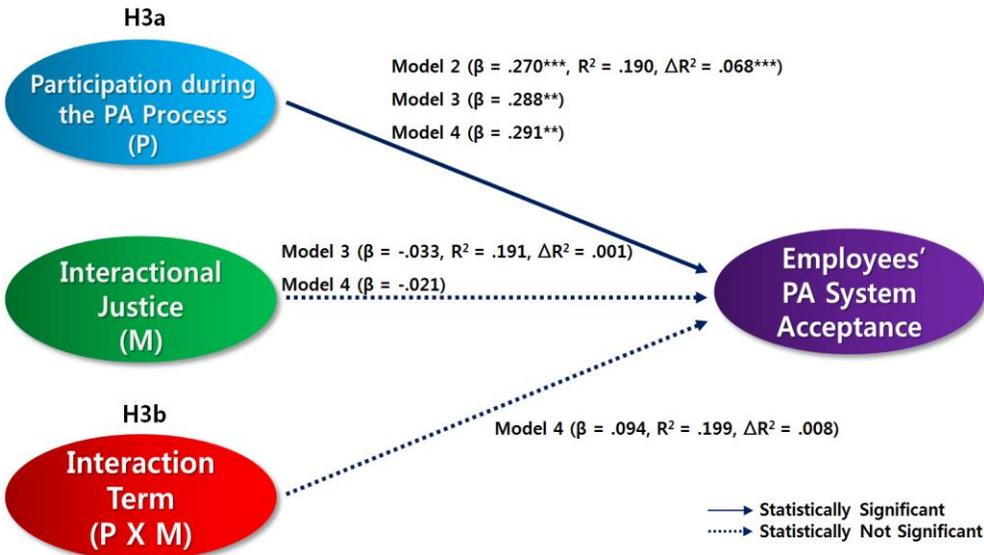


Figure 16. Summarized Test Results of Hypotheses 3a and 3b

Table 40. Test Results of Hypotheses 3a and 3b

Category	Employees' Performance Appraisal System Acceptance (Criterion Variable)				VIF
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	
	<i>B</i> (β)	<i>B</i> (β)	<i>B</i> (β)	<i>B</i> (β)	
(Constant)	3.257***	3.231***	3.237***	3.202***	
Gender	-.281 (-.150)	-.230 (-.123)	-.234 (-.125)	-.219 (-.117)	1.190
Education	.191 (.093)	.276 (.133)	.269 (.130)	.247 (.120)	1.079
Position	.517** (.238**)	.460** (.212**)	.463** (.214**)	.452** (.208**)	1.154
Functional Area	.516** (.204**)	.418* (.165*)	.417* (.164*)	.420* (.166*)	1.079
Job Location	-.142 (-.079)	-.102 (-.057)	-.112 (-.063)	-.119 (-.066)	1.079
Participation during PA Process (P)		.309*** (.270***)	.330** (.288**)	.333** (.291**)	1.567
Interactional Justice (M)			-.039 (-.033)	-.025 (-.021)	1.675
Interaction Term (P × M)				.122 (.094)	1.055
R ²	.123	.190	.191	.199	
Adj. R ²	.095	.159	.155	.158	
Δ R ²	.123**	.068***	.001	.008	
F	4.440**	6.186***	5.290***	4.852***	
Durbin Watson	2.077				

Note. *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001, () = Standardized Beta, P = Predictor Variable, M = Moderator Variable, VIF = Variance Inflation Factor, N = 165

4. 2. 3. 4. Test Results of Hypotheses 4a and 4b

H4a	Perceived distributive justice will be positively related to employees' PA system Acceptance (Main Effect → Supported).
H4b	When employees' perception of interactional justice is higher, the relationship between distributive justice and employees' PA system acceptance will be greater (Interaction Effect → Rejected).

Controlling for five demographic variables (gender, education, position, functional area, job location) was performed by the hierarchical multiple regression analysis to examine Hypotheses 4a and 4b.

In step 1, five demographic variables were inserted. The results of Model 1 (p.151) were the same as those in test results of Hypotheses 1a, 1b, 2a, 2b, 3a and 3b (see page 134, 141, 146, and 151).

In step 2, distributive justice was inserted after controlling for the five demographic variables. The results of Model 2 (p.151) indicated that distributive justice with control variables explained 21.5% of the variance in PA system acceptance.

In addition, the coefficient table showed that distributive justice was a statistically significant predictor of employees' PA system acceptance in Model 2 ($\beta = .327$, $p = .000$).

Because of this, it is possible to posit that distributive justice had a positive relation to the explained variance in employee's PA system acceptance by an additional 9.3% of the variance ($p = .000$).

For demographic variables, according to the outcomes in the coefficient table in Model 2 (p.151), position ($\beta = .171$, $p = .027$) and functional area ($\beta = .158$, $p = .033$) were found to be statistically significant as they were in Model 1 (p.151).

In step 3, interactional justice was entered as a moderator variable with distributive justice after controlling for the demographic variables. The outcomes of Model 3 (p.151) presented that interactional justice with distributive justice and demographic variables accounted for 22.1% of the variance in employees' PA system acceptance; however, interactional justice was not statistically significant ($\beta = -.125$, $p = .277$).

Contrary to interactional justice, position ($\beta = .169$, $p = .029$), functional area ($\beta = .155$, $p = .036$) and distributive justice ($\beta = .390$, $p = .000$) were turned out to be statistically significant.

In step 4, after controlling for the demographic variables, the interaction term was entered in the regression analysis, which was created by multiplying interactional justice and distributive justice.

Looking at the results obtained from Model 4 (p.151), the interaction term with interactional justice, distributive justice and demographic variables, accounted for 22.2% of the variance in employees' PA system acceptance; however, the interaction term was not statistically significant ($p = .667$) accounting for the increased 0.1% of the variance in employees' PA system acceptance.

Consequently, it is not allowed to claim that the interaction effect of distributive justice and interactional justice brought about a significant influence on employees' PA system acceptance.

In the case of other variables, position ($\beta = .166$, $p = .034$), functional area ($\beta = .156$, $p = .035$), and distributive justice ($\beta = .382$, $p = .000$) were proven to be statistically significant factors.

In conclusion, as expected Hypothesis 4a was supported in terms of the positive relationship distributive justice and employees' PA system acceptance tested through the hierarchical multiple regression model below (see Figure 17, p.150; Table 41, p.151).

That is to say, when their perception of distributive justice increased, employees' perception of PA system acceptance was higher.

However, in the case of Hypothesis 4b, as verified above, there was no statistically significant interaction effect of distributive justice and interactional justice on employees' PA system acceptance. Hence, Hypothesis 4b - When employees' perception of interactional justice is higher, the relationship between distributive justice and employees' performance appraisal system acceptance will be greater - was rejected.

Figure 17 (p.150) and Table 41 (p.151) presented the test results of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis for Hypotheses 4a and 4b.

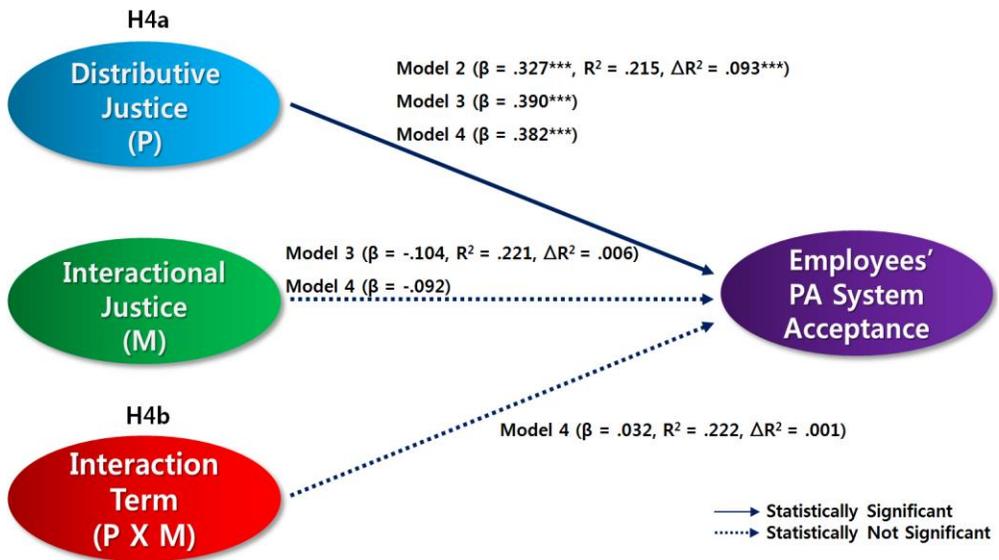


Figure 17. Summarized Test Results of Hypotheses 4a and 4b

Table 41. Test Result of Hypotheses 4a and 4b

Category	Employees' Performance Appraisal System Acceptance (Criterion Variable)				VIF
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	
	<i>B</i> (β)	<i>B</i> (β)	<i>B</i> (β)	<i>B</i> (β)	
(Constant)	3.257***	3.218***	3.236***	3.224***	
Gender	-.281 (-.150)	-.206 (.110)	-.214 (-.115)	-.213 (-.114)	1.186
Education	.191 (.093)	.271 (.131)	.249 (.121)	.239 (.116)	1.086
Position	.517** (.238**)	.372* (.171*)	.368* (.169*)	.360* (.166*)	1.199
Functional Area	.516** (.204**)	.400* (.158*)	.392* (.155*)	.396* (.156*)	1.083
Job Location	-.142 (-.079)	-.036 (-.020)	-.056 (-.031)	-.052 (-.029)	1.084
Distributive Justice (P)		.358*** (.327***)	.427*** (.390***)	.418*** (.382***)	1.917
Interactional Justice (M)			-.125 (-.104)	-.111 (-.092)	1.956
Interaction Term (P × M)				.037 (.032)	1.135
R ²	.123	.215	.221	.222	
Adj. R ²	.095	.185	.186	.182	
Δ R ²	123**	.093***	.006	.001	
F	4.440**	7.215***	6.362***	5.561***	
Durbin Watson	2.057				

Note. *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001, () = Standardized Beta, P = Predictor Variable, M = Moderator Variable, VIF = Variance Inflation Factor, N = 165

The summarized test results of the eight hypotheses by the hierarchical multiple regression analysis were displayed in Table 42 (p.152).

Table 42. Summarized Test Results of Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Content	Result
1	a Perceived validity of PA standards will be positively related to employees' PA system acceptance.	Supported
	b When employees' perception of IJ is higher, the relationship between validity of PA standards and employees' PA system acceptance will be greater.	Supported
2	a Perceived adequacy of PA feedback will be positively related to employees' PA system acceptance.	Supported
	b When employees' perception of IJ is higher, the relationship between adequacy of PA feedback and employees' PA system acceptance will be greater.	Supported
3	a Perceived participation during the PA process will be positively related to employees' PA system acceptance.	Supported
	b When employees' perception of IJ is higher, the relationship between participation during the PA process and employees' PA acceptance will be greater.	Rejected
4	a Perceived DJ will be positively related to employees' PA system acceptance.	Supported
	b When employees' perception of IJ is higher, the relationship between DJ and employees' PA system acceptance will be greater.	Rejected

Note. PA = Performance Appraisal, DJ = Distributive Justice, IJ = Interactional Justice.

Chapter 5. Discussion

This final chapter consists of three parts: 1) a summary of major findings of this research is presented, which is followed by a discussion in which major findings are compared with previous research. 2) Theoretical implications, and practical implications are provided. 3) Limitations of this research and suggestions for future research are offered.

5. 1. Findings

Despite its gradually increasing importance of performance appraisal in most organizations including NPSOs, many employees still believe that their performance appraisal system is neither fair nor accurate (Bretz, Milkovich, & Read, 1992; Church, 1985; Latham & Wexley, 1981).

Having this in mind with the organizational justice theory as a theoretical background, the researcher conducted this Master's study to identify factors and analyze the impacts of those factors on the employees' performance appraisal system acceptance including the moderating effect of interactional justice.

The target respondents in this research were employees working for the KOC, one of the non-sport organizations in Korea. Two hundred and ten questionnaires were distributed, and a total of 175 responses were collected. In total, 165 answers were employed for the hypotheses tests since 10 out of

the questionnaires were eliminated because of being improper for the data analysis due to central tendency and some data omissions.

SPSS 18.0 was used as a research tool for statistical data analysis. A descriptive statistics analysis, a reliability test, an exploratory factor analysis for a validity test, a Pearson correlation test, a t-test and a hierarchical multiple regression analysis were performed for the hypotheses tests.

The summarized research results verified by those scientific research methods are as follows:

Firstly, after conducting the t-test, only two groups showed statistically significant mean differences in employees' performance appraisal system acceptance. Male employees' perception (mean = 3.43) of the PA system acceptance was higher than that of female workers (mean = 3.11; see Table 34, p.116).

One possible reason for this different perception is that considering the current human resource composition (male: 111, 67.3%, female: 54, 32.7%; see Table 34, p.116) in the KOC, male employees had more opportunities of being assigned more important tasks with responsibilities greater than female employees, which results in, therefore, being receiving higher rating grades or faster promotions than female workers.

Managers or employees with higher positions presented higher perception of PA system acceptance than team members. The reason for this

result can be explained by the fact that managers, although they participated in the survey as ratees, had better understanding of the importance and benefits of the PA system as an effective tool for making administrative decisions (Roberts, 1992).

Secondly, perceived validity of PA standards had a positive influence on employees' PA system acceptance. This result supports similar findings in previous studies (Bernardin & Beatty, 1984; Erdogan et al., 2001; Greenberg, 1986; Nathan et al, 1991), which reported objective performance standards can persuade employees to satisfy their performance outcomes, and enhance acceptability of the performance appraisal system.

That is, it can be proposed that employees with a higher perception of validity of PA standards accept the PA system more positively.

In the case of the moderating effect of interactional justice on the relation between the validity of PA standards and employees' PA system acceptance, as expected, it was proven that the relation between the validity of PA standards and employees' PA system acceptance was positively moderated by interactional justice ($\beta = .151^*$, $R^2 = .185$, $\Delta R^2 = .022^*$; see Table 37, p.134).

This finding is similar to that of Niehoff and Moorman (1993) who insisted that employees' perception of fairness can be influenced by the way employees are treated while a procedure is being conducted. Thus, based on

research of Niehoff and Moorman (1993) and the finding of this research, it can be stated that, when employees perceive the validity of performance appraisal standards higher, interactional justice increase employees' PA system acceptance more positively.

Thirdly, perceived adequacy of PA feedback was positively related to employees' PA system acceptance. This result agrees with 'two-way communication' claimed by Greenberg (1986b).

According to Greenberg, feedback or 'two-way communication' is a useful indicator to encourage employees to perceive procedural justice as more acceptable. The positive effect of PA feedback verified in this research also follows Bernardin & Beatty's (1984) research, which contended that timely feedback is a core indicator to enhance employees' acceptance of the performance appraisal process. Considering the finding of this research and the outcomes of previous research, we can conclude that employees who perceive that the feedback they receive as being more adequate and timely accept the PA system more positively.

In terms of a moderating effect of interactional justice on the relation between adequacy of PA feedback and employees' PA system acceptance, as expected, it was concluded that interactional justice worked as a moderator with having a positive impact between adequacy of feedback and employees' PA system acceptance ($\beta = .170^*$, $R^2 = .223$, $\Delta R^2 = .026^*$; see Table 39, p.141).

This finding is an additional example that supports what Cropanzano et al. insisted in 2002. They confined attention to high-LMX relationships, in which employees receive interpersonal treatment with more useful feedback, can increase the perception of procedural justice.

Hence, proceeding from what Cropanzano's stated in 2002, and with the finding of this research, it can be concluded that the higher perception of adequacy of PA feedback affect employees' PA system acceptance more positively when their perception of interactional justice is higher.

Fourthly, perceived participation during the PA process had a positive relation to employees' PA system acceptance. This finding is strengthened by several scholars such as Dulebohn and Ferris (1999), Greenberg (1986a; 1987), Landy et al. (1978). They approached employees' participation during the PA process, one of the indicators that measure procedural justice, with one common perspective, which demonstrated that having opportunities to express employees' opinions and feelings when making organizational decisions, can affect performance appraisal fairness.

Thus, the researcher tentatively concluded that employees' PA system acceptance is enhanced positively when they have more chances to be involved during the PA process where organizational decisions are made.

When it comes to interactional justice as a moderator that impacts the relation between participation during the PA process and employees' PA

system acceptance, unlike its positive effect on organizational factors such as organizational commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intention, interactional justice had no significant impact on the relation between participation during the PA process and employees' PA system acceptance ($\beta = .094$, $R^2 = .199$, $\Delta R^2 = .008$; see Table 40, p.146).

Lastly, employees' PA acceptance was positively influenced by distributive justice. This result can be regarded as empirical evidence that supports Greenberg's work (1986b), which contended that PA acceptance hinges on employees' perception of how fairly rewards are distributed in the organizations.

Briefly, from the empirical findings of this study that support what Greenberg claimed in 1986, it can be concluded that the fairer rewards are distributed after performance appraisal, the more positively employees accept their performance appraisal system.

In the case of interactional justice expected to positively affect the relation between distributive justice and employees' PA system acceptance, as opposed to previous research that suggested influence of interactional justice on supervisory satisfaction and PA rating (Cropanzano et al., 2002), organizational truthfulness and respect (Bies et al., 1986; Erdogan, 2002), no statistically significant effect was found ($\beta = .032$, $R^2 = .222$, $\Delta R^2 = .001$; see Table 41, p.151).

5. 2. Implications

Many researchers consider performance appraisal a vital tool critically required for effective human performance improvement and performance management (Longenecker & Goff, 1992).

It appears that an effectively designed, applied, and managed performance appraisal system can provide a plethora of benefits for the organization, the manager, and the employee (Cascio, 1987; Walsh, 2003).

In no field has the search for the best solution for performance improvement been more ardent than in the public sector. Public organizations have been surrounded by difficulties such as pressure by citizens for accountability, decreasing funding, increasing demands for better services, and encountered new policies and regulations from the government, which is the primary reason, why public organizations have paid attention on performance appraisal as a technique to control and manage employee behavior expecting that ultimately productivity and by which effectiveness can be increased (Huber, 1983).

The results of present findings support the influence of procedural, distributive, and interactional justice of performance appraisals and their positive associations with employees' performance appraisal system acceptance.

This section provides both theoretical implications and practical implications that expand understanding of acceptance of the performance appraisal system in Human Resource Management (HRM) in NPSOs in Korea.

5. 2. 1. Theoretical Implications

In this section, three theoretical implications were suggested.

Firstly, this research contributes to performance appraisal research by providing additional dimensions of organizational justice to antecedent studies. No research has investigated main effects of organizational justice (i.e., procedural justice, and distributive justice) as the antecedents of performance appraisal system acceptance within a study in the non-profit sport organization context in Korea.

The hypotheses of this research were mainly adapted from Robert's (1992) conclusion that voice variables, such as employee participation, goal setting, and feedback have significant effects on performance appraisal acceptance.

This study is also in line with Greenberg's organizational justice theories in which the effects of procedural justice that deals with performance appraisal standards and distributive justice were analyzed within the performance appraisal context.

Given that the two dimensions of organizational justice in this study were proven to have a positive influence on the performance appraisal system acceptance, it could be plausible to include these two organizational justices in the full list of the predictors.

Secondly, this study provides organizational justice research with an additional empirical evidence that two organizational justices (i.e., procedural justice and interactional justice) were different constructs.

As mentioned in chapter 2 (p.41, pp. 49~50), organizational researchers have different perspectives between two organizational justices: procedural and interactional justice. The relation between these two justice has been a contentious issue (Bies, 2001).

Researchers such as Afzalur Rahim, Magner and Shapiro (2000) insisted that interactional justice is a subcomponent or an interpersonal component of procedural justice.

On the other hand, some scholars, for example, Masterson et al.(2000) and Cropanzano et al. (2002) stated the because of conceptual differences between procedural and interactional justice, they should be distinguished from one another. Considering the empirical findings of this master's thesis, it could be concluded that procedural justice and interactional justice should be regarded as different constructs in practice.

Lastly, this study enhances interactional justice research by providing empirical evidence of the moderating effect of interactional justice.

As stated by several researchers (Cropanzano et al., 2002; Niehoff & Moorman, 1993), interactional justice can affect employees' perceptions of fairness by increasing employees' perceptions of both procedural and distributive justice.

In spite of its theoretical and empirical importance of interactional justice in performance appraisal context, few researchers paid attention to exploring its moderating effect.

Some researchers (Choi, 2014; Kim et al., 2005) examined the moderating effects of interactional justice (see pp. 53~54) in organizational settings; however, no scholars have performed any research that directly dealt with the moderating effects of interactional justice within the context of employees' PA system acceptance in the field of NPSOs, not only in Korea but also other countries.

By looking closely at the empirical value and uniqueness of the moderating effect of interactional justice proven in this research, it might, therefore, be appropriate to conclude that the findings of this research that verified the moderating effects of interactional justice enriches existing interactional justice literature.

5. 2. 2. Practical Implications

Performance appraisal is one of the important parts of managing an organization for its potential influence on various job-related functions (Henderson, 1984).

Every year, public and private organizations conduct performance appraisals to determine salary, promotions, transfers, layoffs, and developmental potential, which is why it is significant that every member of the organization need to comprehend why performance appraisals should be conducted, and how the system operates (Longenecker and Nykodym, 1996).

In order to operate the performance appraisal system successfully, it is necessary and inevitable for organizations to secure employees' performance appraisal system acceptance.

In this section, the researcher presents practical implications and suggestions to increase employees' acceptance of the performance appraisal system within the scope of the KOC, one of the leading NPSOs in Korea.

Firstly, this study found that procedural justice had a statistically positive influence on employees' PA system acceptance. Procedural justice, in this research, was measured by three components: validity of PA standards, adequacy of PA feedback, and participation during the PA process.

To be more specific, although three hypotheses that examined the relations between procedural justice and employees' PA system acceptance

were supported, as we look at the summary of the descriptive statistics of each variable (see Table 22, p.103), the means^{1 7} of three variables that represent procedural justice were not high enough (validity of PA standards: 2.83/.86, adequacy of PA feedback: 2.94/.91, participation during the PA process: 2.65/.90).

Considering the survey results, therefore, in order to increase perception of procedural justice, this Master's thesis provides three practical recommendations from the procedural justice perspective.

Performance standards should be more objective and easily quantifiable to reflect employees' actual efforts, skills, and performance outcomes. According to the internal survey results of the KOC in 2011, many employees were not satisfied with the performance standards because they believed that some appraisal indicators - especially those for competency evaluation - were vague, complicated, and had low validity, which was also partially proven by the survey conducted for this research.

One practical method that can help both raters and ratees understand the importance of PA standards is to provide them with a training program in which raters can realize how to grade ratees more fairly, objectively, and effectively, and ratees can learn the nature of the PA standards, their functions, importance, and directions to go.

^{1 7} Means and standard deviations are in parenthesis measured by a 5 point Likert scale (from 1 to 5: the higher, the more agree with the statement).

In addition, performance appraisal feedback should be timely and directly related to job performance, providing employees with opportunities to participate in training programs to develop their expertise or increase job performance. The internal survey (2011) showed that many employees had not received proper and timely feedback from their supervisors. Those who received feedback also stated that feedback did not fully or correctly explain their work performance, weaknesses, or strengths but only their grades.

Therefore, raters should do their best to give ratees timely, proper, objective, meaningful, and constructive feedback that can help employees make their strengths stronger and weaknesses covered not only to reach their potential but also increase work performance to achieve ultimate organizational goals.

On top of that, employees should be given the opportunity to participate during the performance appraisal process^{1 8} in which they can ask for information about relevant performance appraisals and share the annual performance objectives with performance indicators.

Most employees believe communication between the management and the employee is one of the most salient single factors to be considered when making administrative decisions including rating employees.

^{1 8} This predictor shows the lowest mean score out of the three variables in procedural justice (see Table 22, p.103).

One suggested solution to improve the situation is that the management officially opens the PA process to employees. With the open PA process in which PA standards, key performance indicators, and annual performance plans including specific performance objectives to be achieved are clearly explained and shared with employees, and employees can freely ask for information related to their own performance appraisal or appeal to the management if they cannot fully accept their grades, so that both the management and employees can successfully attain what they want to reach.

Secondly, this study found that distributive justice was one of the statistically significant factors having a positive effect on employees' performance appraisal system acceptance. Distributive justice was measured by a single factor. Compared to other three variables in procedural justice, although distributive justice was positively related to employees' performance appraisal system acceptance, it was found to be the most unsatisfactory variable (see Table 22, p.103).

Therefore, given the finding of this research, the management of the KOC should be aware of the importance of distributive justice, and develop effective methods of improving employees' perception of distributive justice to enhance employees' acceptance of the performance appraisal system.

The methods should be carefully employed to reflect employees' job responsibilities, efforts, experiences, and stress level for rewards distribution and promotion when making management decisions.

Thirdly, this study found that interactional justice was a statistically significant moderator having a positive impact on the relationships between predictor variable (procedural justice) and employees' PA system acceptance.

Interactional justice moderated the relations positively between procedural justice (validity of PA standards and adequacy of PA feedback) and employees' PA system acceptance; however, no statistically significant moderation effects were found between two other constructs (participation during the PA process and distributive justice) and employees' PA system acceptance.

These unexpected findings, compared to previous research results, might be attributed to several factors, such as different research variables^{1 9}, subjects, method, the different number of survey participants, and the unique nature of the sample organization.

To be more specific, in terms of the unique nature of the KOC, the organizational culture is substantially different from that of organizations in America in which most of the survey items for this research were developed. Thus, it can be assumed that the perception of interactional justice and other variables were influenced by these factors mentioned above.

^{1 9} In comparison with previous research, this Master's thesis utilized interactional justice as a moderator. No other research ever employed interactional justice as a moderator to study the relation between organizational justice and employees' acceptance of performance appraisal system.

Regardless of two unexpected findings, raters and ratees including HRM scholars and practitioners should note that there were certain amount of statistically positive moderation effects of interactional justice. It is, therefore, vital for management to realize the value and significance of interactional justice, especially when they determine administrative decisions for their employees because through this study, it was proven that the interpersonal way managers treat their subordinates can increase the relationship between organizational factors such as procedural justice, or distributive justice, and employees' performance appraisal system acceptance.

That is to say, raters should treat ratees with respect, kindness, and have a truthful manner when decisions are made regarding their jobs.

In the overall point of view, this study provides two practical suggestions to increase employees' acceptance of the performance appraisal system in the KOC.

Firstly, the purpose of the performance appraisal should be distinguished from each evaluation to maximize its effectiveness and benefits for both the management and employees.

There are two different types of employee evaluation in the KOC. One is called competency evaluation, and the other is named performance evaluation. The competency evaluation was basically developed to increase employees' skills, knowledge, abilities, and other aspects that help

employees reach their potential in their work while the performance evaluation was developed to directly and objectively measure employees' job performance, conducting their duties, tasks and responsibilities.

However, these two different types of evaluations were utilized as one evaluation tool mostly only for rating employees by which management decisions were made such as basic annual salary, merit pay, and promotion.

Several researchers (Beer, 1982; Daley, 1992; Boswell & Boudreau, 2002) insisted that if performance appraisals are used for developmental purposes, employees' PA acceptance can be increased. Considering the original purposes of each evaluation^{2 0} and the suggestion by researchers mentioned above, the management of the KOC can, therefore, increase employees' PA system acceptance by using the two different evaluation systems efficiently and effectively for their original purposes.

Secondly, in line with the first suggestion mentioned right above, the performance appraisal system should be closely connected to and supported by the Human Resources Development (HRD) system. One of the significant HRD practices is 'training and education' by which employee competencies and job performance can be increased, enhanced, and reinforced in organizational settings.

^{2 0} It is suggested that when making administrative decisions such as salary determination and promotion, the results of performance evaluation can be utilized with higher percentage than those of the competency evaluation, and the results of the competency evaluation can be employed as basic but fundamental information for developing and designing employee development initiatives such as training and education programs.

Generally, training and education programs for employees are aligned with personnel development initiatives and the direction of the performance appraisal system within the organizational context. In addition, training and education activities are utilized to help employees reinforce their strengths and improve their weaknesses, based on the results of performance appraisals. Hence, the HR department of the KOC should do its utmost to improve the current HRD system, design, and develop more suitable and specialized training and education programs for their employees.

The programs should be designed to support the management strategies to achieve organizational goals and develop employees' potential, giving consideration to a diverse range of organizational or HR (HRM and HRD) factors such as the mission and vision, core values, strategic objectives, job types and difficulties, overall performance level of employees, and their level of competencies (leadership, common, and job) by forming mutual trust and consensus between the management and employees.

5. 3. Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

Despite the contribution of this study to the field of HRM in NPSOs, there are several limitations in this study.

Firstly, organizational justice factors examined in this research accounted for only approximately 20% of variance in employees' acceptance of the performance appraisal system in the KOC, a non-profit sport organization in Korea, which means various other factors have still not yet

been investigated. Therefore, other types of organizational factors such as employee training, organizational commitment, organizational culture, leadership style, or organizational citizenship behavior could be included for follow-up studies.

Secondly, findings and conclusions of this research could not be easily generalized to other organizations, sectors, and countries because this research was conducted by a quantitative methodology using a questionnaire, and the respondents participating in this research were limited to only employees in the KOC. Thus, in future research, the qualitative method such as in-depth interviews and case studies or a combination of both quantitative and qualitative methodologies can be considered.

In addition, conducting research with more than one organization will be meaningful for comparing different findings with the same or similar research subjects within different organizations: private or public.

Lastly, there could be unexpected factors that impact the responses of the survey participants while the translated questionnaire presented reasonable levels of reliability and validity because most of the items on the questionnaire were adapted from those developed in the U.S.

Hence, it might be necessary, meaningful, and valuable for future research to develop a questionnaire that can reflect the unique nature and contexts of organizational characteristics in the field of non-profit sport organizations in Korea.

References

- Adams, J. S. (1963). Towards an understanding of inequity. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 67(5), 422.
- Adams, J. S. (1965). Inequity in social exchange. *Advances in experimental social psychology*, 2(267-299).
- Afzalur Rahim, M., Magner, N. R., & Shapiro, D. L. (2000). Do justice perceptions influence styles of handling conflict with supervisors?: What justice perceptions, precisely?. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 11(1), 9-31.
- Aiken, L. S., West, S. G., & Reno, R. R. (1991). *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions*. Sage.
- Alexander, S., & Ruderman, M. (1987). The role of procedural and distributive justice in organizational behavior. *Social Justice Research*, 1(2), 177-198.
- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 51(6), 1173-1182.
- Bayle, E., & Madella, A. (2002). Development of a taxonomy of performance for national sport organizations. *European journal of sport science*, 2(2), 1-21.
- Beer, M. (1982). Performance appraisal: Dilemmas and possibilities. *Organizational Dynamics*, 9(3), 24-36.
- Bernardin, H. J., & Beatty, R. W. (1984). Performance Appraisal: Assessing Human Behavior at Work (Kent, Boston: MA). *Bernardin Performance Appraisal: Assessing Human Behavior at Work* 1984.
- Bies, R. J., & Moag, J. S. (1986). Interactional justice: Communication criteria of fairness. *Research on negotiation in organizations*, 1(1), 43-55.

- Bies, R. J. (2001). Interactional (in) justice: *The sacred and the profane*. *Advances in organizational justice*, 89-118.
- Boswell, W. R., & Boudreau, J. W. (2000). Employee satisfaction with performance appraisals and appraisers: The role of perceived appraisal use. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 11(3), 283-299.
- Bretz, R. D., Milkovich, G. T., & Read, W. (1992). The current state of performance appraisal research and practice: Concerns, directions, and implications. *Journal of management*, 18(2), 321-352.
- Burke, R. J., Weitzel, W. F., & Weir, T. (1980). Characteristics of effective interviews of employees' performance review and development: One more time. *Psychological Reports*, 47(3), 683-695.
- Byrne, Z. S., & Cropanzano, R. (2001). The history of organizational justice: The founders speak. *Justice in the workplace: From theory to practice*, 2, 3-26.
- Carroll, S. J., & Schneier, C. E. (1982). Performance appraisal and review systems: *The identification, measurement, and development of performance in organizations*. Scott, Foresman.
- Cascio, W. F. (1987). *Applied psychology in personnel management*. 3rd Edition. Englewood Cliffs, NJ, Prentice-Hall.
- Cascio, W. F. (1998). *Applied psychology in human resource management*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Cascio, W. F. (2012), *Managing Human Resources* 9th Edition, McGraw-Hill, p337.
- Cawley, B. D., Keeping, L. M., & Levy, P. E. (1998). Participation in the performance appraisal process and employee reactions: A meta-analytic review of field investigations. *Journal of applied psychology*, 83(4), 615-634.
- Chelladurai, P., & Haggerty, T. R. (1991). Measures of organizational

effectiveness of Canadian national sport organizations. *Canadian journal of sport sciences= Journal canadien des sciences du sport*, 16(2), 126-133.

Church, A. H. (1985). From Both Sides Now, Performance Appraisals: Political Tools or Effective Measures. *The Industrial Organizational Psychologist*, 33, 57-64.

Churchill Jr, G. A. (1979). A paradigm for developing better measures of marketing constructs. *Journal of marketing research*, 64-73.

Coens, T. and Jenkins, M. (2000). *Abolishing Performance Appraisals*, San Francisco, CA, Berrett-Koehler Publishers, Inc.

Colquitt, J. A., Conlon, D. E., Wesson, M. J., Porter, C. O., & Ng, K. Y. (2001). Justice at the millennium: a meta-analytic review of 25 years of organizational justice research. *Journal of applied psychology*, 86(3), 425.

Cohen-Charash, Y., & Spector, P. E. (2001). The role of justice in organizations: A meta-analysis. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes*, 86(2), 278-321.

Cropanzano, R., & Ambrose, M. L. (2001). Procedural and distributive justice are more similar than you think: A monistic perspective and a research agenda. *Advances in organizational justice*, 119-151.

Cropanzano, R., & Folger, R. (1991). Procedural justice and worker motivation. *Motivation and work behavior*, 5, 131-143.

Cropanzano, R., Prehar, C. A., & Chen, P. Y. (2002). Using social exchange theory to distinguish procedural from interactional justice. *Group & Organization Management*, 27(3), 324-351.

Daley, D. M. (1992). *Performance appraisal in the public sector: Techniques and applications*. Abc-clio.

Dawson, J. F. (2014). Moderation in management research: What, why, when,

and how. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 29(1), 1-19.

DeNisi, A. S., Cafferty, T. P., & Meglino, B. M. (1984). A cognitive view of the performance appraisal process: A model and research propositions. *Organizational behavior and human performance*, 33(3), 360-396.

Dulebohn, J. H., & Ferris, G. R. (1999). The role of influence tactics in perceptions of performance evaluations' fairness. *Academy of Management Journal*, 42(3), 288-303.

Erdogan, B., Kraimer, M. L., & Liden, R. C. (2001). Procedural justice as a two-dimensional construct an examination in the performance appraisal context. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 37(2), 205-222.

Erdogan, B. (2002). Antecedents and consequences of justice perceptions in performance appraisals. *Human Resource Management Review*, 12(4), 555-578.

Feldman, J. M. (1981). Beyond attribution theory: Cognitive processes in performance appraisal. *Journal of Applied psychology*, 66(2), 127.

Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics*. Sage.

Folger, R., & Greenberg, J. (1985). Procedural justice: An interpretive analysis of personnel systems. *Research in personnel and human resources management*, 3(141-183).

Folger, R., Konovsky, M. A., & Cropanzano, R. (1992). A due process metaphor for performance appraisal. *Research in organizational behavior*, 14, 129-129.

Frisby, W. (1986). The organizational structure and effectiveness of voluntary organizations: The case of Canadian national sport governing bodies. *Journal of park and recreation administration*, 4(3).

Gabris, G. T., & Ihrke, D. M. (2000). Improving Employee Acceptance

Toward Performance Appraisal and Merit Pay Systems The Role of Leadership Credibility. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 20(1), 41-53.

Greenberg, J. (1986a). Organizational performance appraisal procedures: What Makes Them Fair. *Research on negotiation in organizations*, 1, 25-41.

Greenberg, J. (1986b). Determinants of perceived fairness of performance evaluations. *Journal of applied psychology*, 71(2), 340-342.

Greenberg, J. (1987). Reactions to procedural injustice in payment distributions: Do the means justify the ends?. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 72(1), 55.

Greenberg, J. (1990). Organizational justice: Yesterday, today, and tomorrow. *Journal of management*, 16(2), 399-432.

Greller, M. M. (1998). Participation in the performance appraisal review: Inflexible manager behavior and variable worker needs. *Human relations*, 51(8), 1061-1083.

Grote, R. C. (2002). *The performance appraisal question and answer book: A survival guide for managers*. AMACOM Div American Mgmt Assn.

Hedge, J. W., & Teachout, M. S. (2000). Exploring the concept of acceptance as a criterion for evaluating performance measures. *Group & Organization Management*, 25(1), 22-44.

Henderson, R. I. (1984). *Performance appraisal*. Reston, Va.: Reston Publishing Company, Inc 2nd ed.

Herman, R. D., & Renz, D. O. (1999). Theses on nonprofit organizational effectiveness. *Nonprofit and voluntary sector quarterly*, 28(2), 107-126.

Homans, G. C. (1961). *Social behavior: Its elementary forms*. NY: Harcourt, Brace and World.

- Huber, V. L. (1983). An analysis of performance appraisal practices in the public sector: a review and recommendations. *Public Personnel Management*, 12(3), 258-267.
- Hughes, P. J. (1986). Signalling by direct disclosure under asymmetric information. *Journal of Accounting and Economics*, 8(2), 119-142.
- Hums, M. A., & Chelladurai, P. (1994). Distributive justice in intercollegiate athletics: Development of an instrument. *Journal of Sport Management*, 8(3), 190-199.
- Igoumenopoulos, K. (2001). Factors relating to performance appraisal satisfaction and acceptance of lower-level employees (Master's thesis), San Jose State University, paper 2141.
- Jordan, J. S., Tumer, B. A., & DuBord, R. R. (2007). Organizational justice as a predictor of job satisfaction: An examination of university recreation department student employees. *International Journal of Sport Management*, 8(1), 32.
- Kieffer, K. M. (1998). Orthogonal versus Oblique Factor Rotation: A Review of the Literature regarding the Pros and Cons.
- Kim, T. (2014). *Performance appraisal: determinants of public employees' acceptance* (Doctoral dissertation, Rutgers University-Graduate School-Newark).
- Kim, T., & Holzer, M. (2014). Public Employees and Performance Appraisal A Study of Antecedents to Employees' Perception of the Process. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 0734371X14549673.
- Korsgaard, M. A., & Roberson, L. (1995). Procedural justice in performance evaluation: The role of instrumental and non-instrumental voice in performance appraisal discussions. *Journal of Management*, 21(4), 657-669.
- Kossek, E. E. (1989). The acceptance of human resource innovation by multiple constituencies. *Personnel Psychology*, 42(2), 263-281.

- Lacho, K. J., Stearns, G. K., & Whelan, R. K. (1991). Performance appraisal in local government: A current update. *Public Productivity & Management Review*, 281-296.
- Landy, F. J., Barnes, J. L., & Murphy, K. R. (1978). Correlates of perceived fairness and accuracy of performance evaluation. *Journal of Applied psychology*, 63(6), 751.
- Langan-Fox, J., Bell, R., McDonald, L., & Morizzi, M. (1996). The dimensionality of ratings of performance appraisal systems. *Australian Psychologist*, 31(3), 194-203.
- Latham, G. P., and Wexley, K. N. (1981). *Increasing productivity through performance appraisal*. MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Leung, K., Su, S., & Morris, M. W. (2001). When is criticism not constructive? The roles of fairness perceptions and dispositional attributions in employee acceptance of critical supervisory feedback. *Human Relations*, 54(9), 1155-1187.
- Longenecker, C. O., & Goff, S. J. (1992). Performance appraisal effectiveness: A matter of perspective. *SAM Advanced Management Journal*, 57(2), 17.
- Longenecker, C. O., & Nykodym, N. (1996). Public sector performance appraisal effectiveness: A case study. *Public Personnel Management*, 25(2), 151-164.
- Madella, A., Bayle, E., & Tome, J. (2005). The organisational performance of national swimming federations in Mediterranean countries: A comparative approach. *European Journal of Sport Science*, 5(4), 207-220.
- Mahony, D. F., Hums, M. A., Andrew, D. P., & Dittmore, S. W. (2010). Organizational justice in sport. *Sport Management Review*, 13(2), 91-105.
- Mahony, D. F., Riemer, H. A., Breeding, J. L., & Hums, M. A. (2006).

Organizational justice in sport organizations: Perceptions of college athletes and other college students. *Journal of Sport Management*, 20(2), 159.

- Mani, B. G. (2002). Performance appraisal systems, productivity, and motivation: A case study. *Public Personnel Management*, 31(2), 141-159.
- Masterson, S. S., Lewis, K., Goldman, B. M., & Taylor, M. S. (2000). Integrating justice and social exchange: The differing effects of fair procedures and treatment on work relationships. *Academy of Management journal*, 43(4), 738-748.
- McConkie, M. L. (1979). A clarification of the goal setting and appraisal processes in MBO. *Academy of Management Review*, 4(1), 29-40.
- McFarlin, D. B., & Sweeney, P. D. (1992). Research notes. Distributive and procedural justice as predictors of satisfaction with personal and organizational outcomes. *Academy of management Journal*, 35(3), 626-637.
- McGregor, D. (1972). *An uneasy look at performance appraisal*. Reprint Service, Harvard Business Review 50(5).
- Meyer, H. H. (1991). A solution to the performance appraisal feedback enigma. *The Executive*, 5(1), 68-76.
- Mohrman Jr, A. M., Resnick-West, S. M., Lawler III, E. E., Driver, M. J., Von Glinow, M. A., & Prince, J. B. (1989). *Designing performance appraisal systems: Aligning appraisals and organizational realities*. Jossey-Bass.
- Moorman, R. H. (1991). Relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviors: Do fairness perceptions influence employee citizenship?. *Journal of applied psychology*, 76(6), 845.
- Morrissey, G. L. (1983). *Performance appraisals in the public sector*. Addison-Wesley.

- Morrow, W. W., & Chelladurai, P. (1992). The structure and processes of Synchro Canada. *Journal of Sport Management*, 6(2), 133-152.
- Mowday, R. T. (1991). Equity theory predictions of behavior in organizations. *Motivation and work behavior*, 5, 111-131.
- Mulvaney, M. A., McKinney, W. R., & Grodsky, R. (2012). The development of a pay-for-performance appraisal system for municipal agencies: A case study. *Public Personnel Management*, 41(3), 505-533.
- Murphy, K. R., & Cleveland, J. (1995). *Understanding performance appraisal: Social, organizational, and goal-based perspectives*. Sage.
- Narcisse, S., & Harcourt, M. (2008). Employee fairness perceptions of performance appraisal: a Saint Lucian case study. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 19(6), 1152-1169.
- Nathan, B. R., Mohrman, A. M., & Milliman, J. (1991). Interpersonal relations as a context for the effects of appraisal interviews on performance and satisfaction: A longitudinal study. *Academy of Management Journal*, 34(2), 352-369.
- Niehoff, B. P., & Moorman, R. H. (1993). Justice as a mediator of the relationship between methods of monitoring and organizational citizenship behavior. *Academy of Management journal*, 36(3), 527-556.
- Nunnally, J. C., Bernstein, I. H., & Berge, J. M. T. (1967). *Psychometric theory* (Vol. 226). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Nunnally, J. C. (1978), *Psychometric Theory*, 2nd ed., McGraw-Hill, New York, NY.
- O'Boyle, I., & Hassan, D. (2014). Performance management and measurement in national-level non-profit sport organisations. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 14(3), 299-314.
- Oh, S. S., & Lewis, G. B. (2009). Can performance appraisal systems inspire

intrinsically motivated employees?. *Review of Public Personnel Administration* 29(2), pp.158-167.

Paese, P. W., Lind, E. A., & Kanfer, R. (1988). Procedural fairness and work group responses to performance evaluation systems. *Social Justice Research*, 2(3), 193-205.

Papadimitriou, D., & Taylor, P. (2000). Organisational effectiveness of Hellenic national sports organisations: A multiple constituency approach. *Sport Management Review*, 3(1), 23-46.

Price, J. L., & Mueller, C. W. (1986). *Handbook of organization measurement*. Marshfield, MA: Pittman.

Pucik, V., & Lim, J. C. (2001). Transforming human resource management in a Korean Chaebol: A case study of Samsung. *Asia Pacific business review*, 7(4), 137-160.

Reinke, S. J. (2003). Does the form really matter? Leadership, trust, and acceptance of the performance appraisal process. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 23(1), 23-37.

Roberts, G. E. (1990). The Influence of Participation, Goal Setting, Feedback and Acceptance on Measures of Performance Appraisal Effectiveness. *Dissertation Abstracts International (Doctoral dissertation, University of Pittsburgh)*.

Roberts, G. E. (1992). Linkages between performance appraisal system effectiveness and rater and ratee acceptance. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 12(3), 19-41.

Roberts, G. E. (1994). Maximizing performance appraisal system acceptance: Perspectives from municipal government personnel administrators. *Public Personnel Management*, 23(4), 525-549.

Roberts, G. E., & Pavlak, T. (1996). Municipal Government Personnel Professionals and Performance Appraisal: Is There a Consensus on the Characteristics of an Effective Appraisal System?. *Public Personnel Management*, 25(3), 379-408.

- Saal, F. E. & Knight, P. A. (1988). *Industrial/Organizational Psychology*. (pp.98-133). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth, Inc.
- Sawhill, J. C., & Williamson, D. (2001). Mission impossible?: Measuring success in nonprofit organizations. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership, 11*(3), 371-386.
- Segars, A. H. (1997). Assessing the unidimensionality of measurement: a paradigm and illustration within the context of information systems research. *Omega, 25*(1), 107-121.
- Shilbury, D., & Moore, K. A. (2006). A study of organizational effectiveness for national Olympic sporting organizations. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 35*(1), 5-38.
- Tang, T. L. P., & Sarsfield-Baldwin, L. J. (1996). Distributive and Procedural Justice as Related to Satisfaction and Commitment.
- Walsh, M. B. (2003). Perceived fairness of and satisfaction with employee performance appraisal (Doctoral dissertation, Louisiana State University).
- Whisenant, W. (2005). Organizational justice and commitment in interscholastic sports. *Sport, Education and Society, 10*(3), 343-357.
- Whisenant, W., & Smucker, M. (2007). Organizational Justice and Job Satisfaction: Perceptions Among Coaches of Girls' Teams. *International Council for Health, Physical Education, Recreation, Sport, and Dance Journal of Research, 2*(2), 47-53.
- Winand, M., Rihoux, B., Qualizza, D., & Zintz, T. (2011). Combinations of key determinants of performance in sport governing bodies. *Sport, Business and Management: An International Journal, 1*(3), 234-251.
- Winand, M., Rihoux, B., Robinson, L., & Zintz, T. (2012). Pathways to high performance: A qualitative comparative analysis of sport governing bodies. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 0899764012443312*.

- 강영철. (2008). 성과관리제도의 수용성에 미치는 영향요인 분석: 조직구조, 조직문화, 성과지표를 중심으로. *정책분석평가학회보*, 18(3), 123-152.
- 구본장, 강준의, & 김인동. (2004). BSC 에 의한 성과 평가제도의 인식정도가 조직성과에 미치는 영향. *창업정보학회지*, 7(3), 15-43.
- 국경복, 목진휴, & 이석환. (2007). 공공부문 성과관리제도의 수용성과 효과성 인식에 관한 경험적 연구: 국가보훈처의 사례를 중심으로. *정책분석평가학회보*, 17(3), 31-53.
- 김수현. (2007). 공공스포츠센터 직원의 성과관리시스템이 임금만족과 조직유효성에 미치는 영향, 박사학위 논문, *국민대학교 대학원*.
- 김태희. (2011). 성과평가에 대한 수용성의 중요성과 이를 형성하기 위해 필요한 조직요소들에 대한 연구. *정부와 정책*, 4(1), 95-114.
- 김희철, 김두경, & 강영순. (2005). 분배 및 절차 공정성의차별적 효과와 상호작용 공정성의 조절효과. *인사관리연구*, 29(3), 67-94.
- 노경섭. (2014), 제대로 알고 쓰는 논문 통계분석 SPSS & AMOS 21, 서울: 한빛아카데미.
- 류도암. (2012). 공무원의 성과관리제도 수용성이 조직신뢰에 미치는 영향에 관한 실증적 연구: 지방자치단체 구성원의 BSC 에 대한 인식을 중심으로, 박사학위논문, *서울시립대학교 대학원*.
- 박문수, & 이태용. (2012). 공공스포츠시설 구성원의 상사신뢰, 조직신뢰, 조직몰입 및 직무성과와의 구조적관계. *한국체육과학회지*, 21(6), 741-751.

- 박성민, & 김민영. (2013). 성과평가제도 수용성의 선행요인 및 결과에 관한 연구-한국 NGO 를 중심으로. *한국행정학회 하계 학술발표논문집, 2013*(단일호), 1289-1337.
- 송지준. (2009). 논문작성에 필요한 SPss/AMos 통계분석 방법 V, 파주: 21 세기사.
- 이유재. (1994). 상호작용효과를 포함한 다중회귀분석에서 주효과의 검증에 대한 연구. *경영학연구*, 23(4), 183-210.
- 이일현. (2014). Easy Flow 회귀분석. 서울: 한나래.
- 전수연. (2014). 공공기관과 민간기업의 임금 비교 분석, *국회예산정책처*, p. 52.
- 최관섭. (2014). 성과평가제도 수용성과 영향요인에 관한연구, 박사학위논문, 명지대학교 대학원.
- 최지애, 이인석, & 전무경. (2014). 인사평가의 절차공정성과 조직구성원의 직무태도간의 관계에서 상호작용공정성의 조절효과분석. *전문경영인연구*, 17(1), 103-123.
- 홍정우. (2013). 공공스포츠센터의 성과관리시스템이 직무만족 및 조직몰입에 미치는 영향, 석사학위 논문, *한국체육대학교 사회체육대학원*.
- 황성원, 최진식, & 김승언. (2008). 조직몰입과 직무몰입이 성과관리제도 수용성에 미치는 영향에 관한 연구. *국인사행정학회보*, 7(2), 151-174.

Korean Olympic Committee. (2009). Statutes of the KOC. Article 2, Article 3, and Article 5.

Korean Olympic Committee. (2011). Internal Survey regarding the performance appraisal system.

Korean Olympic Committee. (2015). Internal Budget Report.

Korean Olympic Committee. (2014). Performance Appraisal Plan.

Korean Olympic Committee. External structure of the KOC. Retrieved from <http://www.sports.kr/home/020102/0050/main.do>

Korean Olympic Committee. History of the KOC. Retrieved from <http://www.sports.kr/home/020101/0000/main.do>

Korean Olympic Committee. Internal structure of the KOC. Retrieved from <http://www.sports.kr/home/020102/0050/main.do>

Longman online dictionary. Definition of 'acceptance'. Retrieved from <http://www.ldoconline.com/dictionary/acceptance>

Wikipedia. Definition of 'moderator'. Retrieved from [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Moderation_\(statistics\)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Moderation_(statistics))

Wikipedia. Operational definition. Retrieved from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Operational_definition

Wikipedia. The leader-member exchange theory. Retrieved from https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Leader%E2%80%93member_exchange_theory

Appendix A
Survey Questionnaire
(English Version)

<p>Questionnaire No. _____</p>	<p>According to the Statistics Act, Article 33, all data in this research are treated anonymously, guarantee secrecy, and used for the research purpose only.</p>
--	---

First of all, I would like to say thank you very much for your participation in this research.

This questionnaire was developed to identify factors that impact on employees' performance appraisal system acceptance and search for solutions to increase employees' performance appraisal system acceptance.

There are 37 items on the questionnaire, and it will take approximately 5 minutes to complete.

Your answers and personal information will be completely confidential and used for the research purpose only.

There is no right or wrong answer in each question and it is important that each question should be answered honestly.

Once again, thank you for your participation and cooperation.

2015. 8.

- ◆ Affiliation: Seoul National University Graduate School
- ◆ Department: Physical Education
- ◆ Major: Global Sport Management
- ◆ Advisor: Prof. Kihan Kim
- ◆ Researcher: Do Kook Park (Master's course)

I . The following questions are about **procedural justice**. Please mark the number that best reflects your level of agreement or disagreement with the statement.

Num	Questions	-----				
		Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
1	The PA standards used to appraise my performance are appropriate.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2	The PA standards reflects job description.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3	Evaluation is based on results achieved.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4	Evaluation is based on abilities and skills.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5	Evaluation is based on job-related behaviors.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6	My rater provide useful feedback regarding my job performance.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7	Discussion with my rater about performance is worthwhile.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8	My organization provides coaching, training opportunities to improve skills and performance.	①	②	③	④	⑤
9	My rater provides timely feedback on my job performance.	①	②	③	④	⑤
10	My organization provides opportunities to appeal or challenge the PA system.	①	②	③	④	⑤
11	My rater hears my concerns related to the rating.	①	②	③	④	⑤
12	I can request for clarification or additional information about the rating.	①	②	③	④	⑤
13	There is a chance to discuss work plans or PA indicators with my rater.	①	②	③	④	⑤

Continued to the next page.....(Thank you)

II. The following questions are about **distributive justice**. Please mark the number that best reflects your level of agreement or disagreement with the statement.

Rewards, such as promotions, pay or etc, are...

Num	Questions	-----				
		Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
1	Fairly distributed considering the job responsibilities.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2	Fairly distributed in view of the amount of job experience I have	①	②	③	④	⑤
3	Fairly distributed for the amount of effort I put forth.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4	Fairly distributed for the work rates have done well	①	②	③	④	⑤
5	Fairly distributed for the job difficulty and stresses.	①	②	③	④	⑤

III. The following questions are about **interactional justice**. Please mark the number that best reflects your level of agreement or disagreement with the statement.

When decisions are made about my job...

Num	Questions	-----				
		Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
1	My rater treats me with kindness and consideration.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2	My rater treats me with respect and dignity.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3	My rater treats me with a truthful manner.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4	My rater is sensitive to my personal needs.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5	My rater shows concern for my rights as an employee.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6	My rater offers explanations that make sense to me.	①	②	③	④	⑤

Continued to the next page.....(Thank you)

IV. The following questions are about **employees' performance appraisal system acceptance**. Please mark the number that best reflects your level of agreement or disagreement with the statement.

Num	Questions	Strongly Disagree ----- Strongly Agree				
		①	②	③	④	⑤
1	Overall, I accept the PA system.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2	The PA system motivates me when I perform my job.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3	The PA system provides opportunities for the challenge and growth.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4	The PA system is necessary for the development of organization.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5	The PA system is necessary for the performance management.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6	The PA system is necessary for enhancing competency.	①	②	③	④	⑤

V. The Questions below are demographic information about you. Please mark the number that best describes you in each question.

1. Gender	① Male ② Female
2. Age	① 20~29 ② 30~39 ③ 40~49 ④ Over 50
3. Education	① High School ② 2 Year College ③ 4 Year University ④ Over Master's Degree
4. Position	① Team Member ② Manager or Higher
5. Functional Area	① Administration ② Technical ③ Contract
6. Tenure	① Below 5 ② 5~9 ③ 10~14년 ④ 15~19년 ⑤ Over 20
7. Job Location	① Headquarters ② NTC (Taereung) ③ NTC (Jincheon)

◆ Thank you for your participation and cooperation ◆

Appendix B
Survey Questionnaire
(Korean Version)

<p>설문지 (秘) No. _____</p>	<p>본 연구의 내용은 통계법 제33조에 따라 비밀이 절대 보장되며, 통계목적 외에는 사용되지 않습니다.</p>
------------------------------	--

안녕하십니까?

먼저 바쁘신 가운데 소중한 시간을 내어주신 직원 여러분께 진심으로 감사의 말씀을 드립니다.

본 설문지는 비영리스포츠단체 직원을 대상으로 인사평가 제도 수용성에 영향을 미치는 요인들을 규명하고, 보다 수용성 높은 인사평가제도를 만들기 위한 방안을 모색하기 위해 작성되었습니다.

총 37개의 문항으로 구성되어 있으며, 약 5분 내외 시간이 소요될 예정입니다.

귀하의 응답내용은 오직 연구를 위한 통계분석에만 사용되며, 모든 내용은 익명으로 처리되므로 개별 내용이 외부로 노출될 가능성은 전혀 없음을 알려드립니다.

귀하의 답변에는 정답이 없으니 솔직한 답변 부탁 드리며, 설문에 참여해주신 점 다시 한번 감사 드립니다.

2015년 8월

- ◆ 소속: 서울대학교 대학원 체육교육과
- ◆ 전공: 글로벌 스포츠 매니지먼트
- ◆ 지도교수: 김기한
- ◆ 연구자: 석사과정 박도국

I. 다음 항목은 **절차공정성**에 관한 질문입니다. 아래 문항을 잘 읽어보시고 귀하의 생각과 일치하거나 가장 가까운 곳에 표시(✓)하여 주십시오.

번호	설문항목	전혀 그렇지 않다 ----- 매우 그렇다				
		①	②	③	④	⑤
1	적절한 평가기준에 의해 평가받는다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2	평가기준은 업무의 내용을 잘 반영하고 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3	성취한 업적에 따라 평가받는다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4	기술과 능력에 따라 평가받는다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5	직무와 관련된 행동(태도)에 의해 평가 받는다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6	평가자는 업무성과와 관련된 유용한 피드백을 제공한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7	평가자와 업무성과에 관해 논의하는 것은 가치가 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8	조직은 구성원의 기술 또는 성과향상을 위해 코칭, 교육 등 도움을 제공한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
9	업무성과와 관련된 평가자의 피드백은 시기적절하다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
10	회사는 직원평가제도에 대해 이의를 제기할 수 있는 기회를 제공한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
11	평가자는 평가와 관련된 나의 의견을 귀담아 듣는다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
12	평가결과에 대한 설명이나 추가 정보를 요청할 수 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
13	업무계획이나 평가지표 등에 대하여 평가자와 의견을 나누는 기회가 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤

뒷면에 계속.....(감사합니다.)

Ⅱ. 다음 항목은 **분배공정성**에 관한 질문입니다. 아래 문항을 잘 읽어보시고 귀하의 생각과 일치하거나 가장 가까운 곳에 표시(√)하여 주십시오.

보상(승진, 연봉 등)은...

번호	설문항목	전혀 그렇지 않다 ----- 매우 그렇다				
		①	②	③	④	⑤
1	직무상 책임을 고려하여 공정하게 이루어진다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2	직무상 경험을 고려하여 공정하게 이루어진다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3	기울인 노력을 고려하여 공정하게 이루어진다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4	업무성과를 고려하여 공정하게 이루어진다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5	직무부담과 스트레스를 고려하여 공정하게 이루어진다.	①	②	③	④	⑤

Ⅲ. 다음 항목은 **상호작용공정성**에 관한 질문입니다. 아래 문항을 잘 읽어보시고 귀하의 생각과 일치하거나 가장 가까운 곳에 표시(√)하여 주십시오.

직무와 관련된 의사결정 시...

번호	설문항목	전혀 그렇지 않다 ----- 매우 그렇다				
		①	②	③	④	⑤
1	평가자는 나를 친절하게 대하며 배려한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2	평가자는 나를 존중하며 품위있게 대한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3	평가자는 나를 솔직한 태도로 대한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4	평가자는 나의 개인적 편의를 고려해준다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5	평가자는 조직 구성원으로서의 나의 권리에 관심을 갖는다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6	평가자는 내가 이해할 수 있도록 의사결정 과정을 설명해준다.	①	②	③	④	⑤

뒷면에 계속.....(감사합니다.)

IV. 다음 항목은 **직원인사평가제도 수용성**에 관한 질문입니다. 아래 문항을 잘 읽어 보시고 귀하의 생각과 일치하거나 가장 가까운 곳에 표시(✓)하여 주십시오.

번호	설문항목	전혀 그렇지 않다 ----- 매우 그렇다				
		①	②	③	④	⑤
1	평가제도에 대해서 전반적으로 수용한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2	평가제도는 업무수행에 대한 동기를 제공해 준다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3	평가제도는 나에게 성장과 도전의 기회를 제공해준다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4	평가제도는 기관의 발전을 위해 필요하다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5	평가제도는 성과 관리를 위해 필요하다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6	평가제도는 나의 역량을 높이기 위하여 필요하다.	①	②	③	④	⑤

V. 마지막으로 응답자 분류를 위한 설문입니다. 해당하는 항목에 표시(✓) 하여 주십시오.

1. 성별	① 남 ② 여
2. 연령	① 20~29세 ② 30~39세 ③ 40~49세 ④ 50세 이상
3. 최종학력	① 고졸 이하 ② 전문대졸 ③ 대졸 ④ 대학원졸 이상
4. 직급(직위)	① 5급 이하(부서원) ② 4급 이상(부서장 이상)
5. 직종	① 일반직 ② 기능직 ③ 운영직 (계약직)
6. 재직연수	① 5년 미만 ② 5~9년 ③ 10~14년 ④ 15~19년 ⑤ 20년 이상
7. 근무지	① 본관 ② 태릉 ③ 진천

◆ 협조해 주셔서 대단히 감사합니다! ◆

Abstract in Korean

인사평가제도 수용성에 영향을 미치는 요인: 대한체육회를 중심으로

박도국
서울대학교 대학원
체육교육과

본 연구는 조직공정성이 직원인사평가제도 수용성에 어떤 영향을 미치는지 알아보기 위하여 수행되었다. 구체적인 목적은 독립변수(절차공정성과 분배공정성)가 종속변수(직원인사평가제도 수용성)에 미치는 주효과를 분석하고 독립변수와 종속변수의 관계에서 상호작용공정성의 조절효과를 검증하는 것이라 할 수 있다.

편의표본 추출방법과 설문지를 활용한 본 연구는, 비영리 스포츠 단체인 대한체육회 직원 165명의 데이터를 분석하였다. 리커트(5점 척도)방식으로 총 4개의 변수(절차공정성, 분배공정성, 상호작용공정성, 평가제도수용성)를 25개의 항목으로 측정하였다.

크게 3단계 과정을 거쳐 데이터를 분석하였다. 1단계에서는 크론바흐 알파값으로 신뢰도를 측정하고 탐색적 요인분석을 통해 각 요인의 타당성을 확보하였고, 2단계에서는 기술통계와 상관관계를 분석하였으며, 3단계에서는 위계적 회귀분석을 통하여 절차공정성과 분배공정성이 직원인사평가제도 수용성에 미치는 영향과 상호작용공정성의 조절효과를 검증하였다.

세 개의 하부 요인(평가기준의 타당성, 평가피드백의 적절성, 평가과정에 참여)으로 구성된 절차공정성과 단일요인으로 구성된 분배공정성은 직원인사평가제도 수용성에 대해 통계적으로 정(+)의 영향을 미치는 것으로 나타났다.

그러나 상호작용공정성은 두 개의 절차공정성 하부요인(평가기준의 타당성, 평가피드백의 적절성)과 직원인사평가제도 수용성의 관계에 있어서는 각각 조절효과가 유의미한 것으로 나타났으나, 평가과정에 참여(절차공정성)와 분배공정성의 직원인사평가제도 수용도에 대한 관계에 있어서는 각각 조절효과가 없는 것으로 분석되었다.

이러한 차이는 선행연구와 비교해 볼 때, 연구변수, 연구대상, 연구방법, 집단의 크기, 조직환경 및 문화적 차이 등에 기인한 것으로 보여진다.

본 논문은 비영리 스포츠 조직을 대상으로 직원인사평가제도의 수용성에 영향을 미치는 요인을 분석한 최초의 연구라는 점, 직원인사평가제도의 수용성을 향상 시킬 수 있는 실질적 방법을 제시한 점, 인적자원관리 분야에 유용하게 활용될 수 있는 이론적, 실무적 시사점을 제공했다는 점에서 중요한 의의를 찾을 수 있다.

마지막으로 본 연구의 한계를 제시함과 동시에 후속연구에 필요한 부분과 방향을 제안하였다.

.....

주요어: 조직공정성, 절차공정성, 분배공정성, 상호작용공정성(조절효과), 인사평가제도 수용성

학번: 2013-23403