

The Effect of Distributive, Procedural, and Interactional Justice on Job Crafting among Frontline Hotel Employees: The Mediating Role of Psychological Ownership

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Abstract

Frontline hotel employees are increasingly expected to proactively reshape their jobs to cope with unpredictable and demanding service encounters, yet not all employees engage in such job crafting to the same extent. Although previous research has established the importance of organizational justice in shaping employee outcomes, limited attention has been given to the mechanisms through which distributive, procedural, and interactional justice differentially influence job crafting, particularly among frontline hotel employees. This study addresses this gap by examining the direct relationships between the three justice dimensions and job crafting, as well as the mediating role of psychological ownership. Drawing on Social Exchange Theory, a theoretical model was developed and tested using data from 147 valid questionnaires completed by frontline employees working in four- and five-star hotels in Klang Valley, Malaysia. Partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) was employed to test the proposed hypotheses. The findings indicate that distributive justice significantly influences both psychological ownership and job crafting, while interactional justice significantly influences job crafting but not psychological ownership. Moreover, procedural justice does not significantly influence either outcome. Importantly, psychological ownership significantly mediates the relationship between distributive justice and job crafting, but not the relationships involving other dimensions of justice. This finding indicates that the dimension-specific indirect effect of distributive justice through psychological ownership plays a key role in promoting job crafting among frontline hotel employees. This study contributes a dimension-specific account of the organizational justice and job crafting relationship, demonstrating that psychological ownership operates as a selective psychological mechanism activated specifically by distributive justice within the Malaysian hotels context.

Keywords: Job Crafting, Organisational Justice, Distributive Justice, Procedural Justice, Interactional Justice, Psychological Ownership

Introduction

Organizations increasingly struggle to design jobs that accommodate all employees amid rising uncertainty, complexity, rapid change, and competitive pressure (Zhang et al., 2022). As the business environment continues to face ongoing disruptions, employees must proactively engage in job crafting as a critical resource to adapt, perform effectively, and sustain success at work (Roczniewska et al., 2023). Accordingly, job crafting has been used as a practical approach to work design to tackle this problem (Volderauer et al., 2025). Job crafting refers to the aspects in which employees play an active role in bringing about adjustments in the social, relational, and cognitive characteristics of their work (Berg et al., 2013; Dutton & Wrzesniewski, 2020). The top-down change efforts of organizations are not adequate to solve the rapidly increasing demands and fast-changing organizational needs in the workplace (Roczniewska & Marszałek, 2023). Therefore, employers have now come to realize how important it is to implement a bottom-up approach, such as job crafting behaviors, to tackle such highly diverse customer needs (Chia et al., 2017; Rai, 2018). As such, it is critical to encourage employees to engage in job crafting, as it has been proven to produce several positive outcomes, such as job and service performance (Nergiz & Unsal-Akbiyik, 2024; Bai et al., 2025), employees' customer relationship performance (Luu, 2022), customer satisfaction (Yadav & Dhar, 2021), work engagement, employees' well-being, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and career success (Zhang et al., 2024; Fu et al., 2025; Silapurem, 2024).

Nevertheless, existing literature on the antecedents of job crafting remains limited, despite its critical role in organizations (Demerouti, 2026; Masood et al., 2023). Although prior research has examined various antecedents of job crafting (Wang et al., 2020; Laurence et al., 2020; Li & Takao, 2020; Hetland et al., 2018), organizational-related factors in particular have received insufficient attention. For instance, scholars have found that leadership styles such as proactive leadership (Jiang et al., 2025) and transformational leadership (Mainka et al., 2025) can promote job crafting. Moreover, job design factors (Jindal et al., 2022) and social support (Aulen et al., 2024) have also been identified as important predictors of job crafting. According to Gouldner (1960), one of the most critical components of Social Exchange Theory is the norm of reciprocity, which refers to individuals' motivation and obligation to reciprocate the treatment they receive from their managers or organizations. This is further supported by Colquitt et al. (2013), who suggest that employees' perceptions of organizational justice can shape their beliefs, feelings, attitudes, and behavioral responses. As argued by Li et al. (2010), a high justice climate within an organization can foster positive reciprocal social exchange relationships and subsequently encourage proactive behaviors among employees. Because job crafting is a form of proactive behavior (Parker et al., 2019; Weisman et al., 2022; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), organizational justice is expected to positively influence job crafting behavior.

Furthermore, perceptions of justice within an organization are critical to the development of a sense of psychological ownership toward the organization (Loi et al., 2006; Pierce et al., 2003). For example, when employees perceive that their organization treats them fairly in terms of promotion and pay allocation, they may develop a stronger attachment to the organization, which can subsequently trigger feelings of ownership (Pierce et al., 2003). Research examining the relationship between organizational justice and psychological ownership has generally reported a positive association (Hameed et al., 2019; Jnaneswar &

Ranjit, 2021; Mehmood et al., 2021). Nevertheless, this relationship is not consistently supported across all dimensions of organizational justice. For example, Atalay and Ozler (2013) found no statistically significant relationship between procedural and interactional justice on psychological ownership, indicating that the justice–ownership relationship may depend on the specific dimensions of justice examined and the context in which employees operate.

Only a few studies have examined the direct relationship between motivational propensities related to job crafting, such as core self-evaluation, self-efficacy, and a “can do” motivational state (Tims & Akkermans, 2017; Rudolph et al., 2017). In this respect, examining the direct relationship between psychological ownership and job crafting will shed light on how this motivational propensity shapes employees’ engagement in job crafting. Psychological ownership enables employees to meet their fundamental needs, prompting them to reciprocate by contributing positively and proactively toward the organization, including through behaviors such as volunteering, helping, assisting colleagues, and guiding new employees (Ng & Feldman, 2012; Dyne & Pierce, 2004; Pierce et al., 2001). According to Wagner (1995), psychological ownership is a more powerful predictor of employees’ behaviors than job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Thus, Parker et al. (2019) argue that future studies should investigate the effect of psychological processes on proactive behavior (i.e., job crafting). In terms of empirical evidence, Tsai (2021) found that feelings of ownership encourage employees to engage in job crafting. However, some researchers have reported no apparent positive association between psychological ownership and job crafting. For example, Naeem et al. (2021) found that psychological ownership does not consistently predict positive behaviors such as job crafting. Therefore, given the contradictory findings on the psychological ownership–job crafting link, this study examines this relationship to address the gap and enhance understanding of how ownership influences job crafting.

This study aims to achieve several key objectives. Although there has been considerable academic interest in the role of job crafting, its relationships with different forms of organizational justice and psychological ownership have not been fully explored. Scholars generally conceptualize organizational justice as comprising three primary dimensions, namely distributive, procedural, and interactional justice (Colquitt, 2001; Cropanzano et al., 2007). However, the relationships between these three dimensions and job crafting via psychological ownership remain unclear in the literature. This study addresses this gap by simultaneously examining the indirect effects of the three distinct dimensions of organizational justice on job crafting through psychological ownership, rather than treating organizational justice as a single or undifferentiated construct. Addressing this gap is important because treating organizational justice as a single or undifferentiated construct may obscure the specific forms of fairness that are more likely to foster employees’ sense of ownership and subsequent job crafting.

Further, scholars have pointed out the inadequate research attention given to organizational justice and emphasized the importance of broadening justice theories to encompass diverse cultural contexts beyond the West (Arab & Atan, 2018). Although the influence of organizational justice on various organizational outcomes has been established in Western settings (Ohana, 2014), this relationship remains underexplored in non-Western contexts (De Clercq et al., 2018). Malaysia is characterized by a collectivist and high-power-distance culture

(Hofstede, 2001). In this setting, cultural norms that emphasize respect, hierarchy, and relational harmony may amplify the importance of interactional and procedural justice in fostering psychological ownership and job crafting. Moreover, frontline hotel employees operate in a high-pressure service environment where fairness in rewards, procedures, and interpersonal treatment is likely to be highly salient and may strongly shape ownership feelings and job crafting. Finally, luxury hotels typically grant frontline employees a degree of autonomy, enabling them to craft their jobs in order to meet highly diverse customer needs (Kim et al., 2018). Consistent with this, Songan et al. (2016) found that frontline employees in Malaysian luxury hotels are highly empowered, as they are given opportunities to try new ideas, feel capable of performing their work well, and find their jobs meaningful. This sense of personal power and control over work can, in turn, trigger job crafting in the workplace (Loi et al., 2019; Petrou et al., 2015).

Theoretical Background and Hypothesis Development

Organizational justice and job crafting

Greenberg (1987) defines organizational justice as employees' perceptions of justice in the workplace. Building on this, further research is needed to deepen the understanding of how these perceptions shape employee behavior (Colquitt & Greenberg, 2003). Existing literature consistently shows that justice plays a critical role in work settings and significantly influences a range of employee behaviors (Colquitt et al., 2001). From a social exchange theory perspective, Organ (1988) suggests that when employees perceive fair treatment, they feel an obligation to reciprocate, which often leads them to go beyond their formal job responsibilities and engage in extra-role behaviors. Moreover, employees who feel they get fair treatment tend to reciprocate by engaging proactively and positively with their employer (Caesens et al., 2016). Job crafting involves proactively modifying one's tasks or roles, often by taking on additional responsibilities beyond formal requirements (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), and is widely recognized as a form of proactive behavior (Lanke et al., 2024; Roczniowska et al., 2023; Parker et al., 2019). Prior studies indicate that organizational justice promote both proactive and extra-role behaviors (Caesens et al., 2016; Li et al., 2010). Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that employees' perceptions of justice foster job crafting. Examining organizational justice as an antecedent of job crafting is important because it provides insight into how perceptions of justice influence employees' willingness to reshape their roles. In addition, understanding these antecedents is essential for advancing knowledge on job crafting (Nwanzu & Babalola, 2024).

Scholars generally classify organizational justice in three primary dimensions: distributive, procedural, and interactional justice (Colquitt, 2001; Cropanzano et al., 2007). Among these, distributive justice refers to employees' perceptions of fairness in decision outcomes, such as pay and rewards (Colquitt & Greenberg, 2003). Drawing on Adams' (1965) equity theory, distributive justice is understood as employees' evaluation of the justice of outcomes relative to their inputs. It represents one of the earliest conceptualizations of organizational justice and focuses on achieving fair outcomes, including pay, promotions, and rewards (Colquitt et al., 2005). Building on Homans' (1961) social exchange theory, Adams (1965) proposed that employees assess justice by comparing their input and outcome ratio with that of others. When this ratio is lower than that of a reference group, employees are likely to perceive inequality. Conversely, a higher ratio may lead to feelings of injustice. Inputs refer to the contributions employees bring to the organization, such as education, experience, effort,

time, and skills, while outcomes are the returns they receive, including pay, recognition, rewards, and satisfaction (Adams, 1963). Lower perceptions of distributive justice can negatively influence employees' attitudes and reduce their willingness to perform beyond assigned tasks (Colquitt et al., 2001). Enhancing perceptions of distributive justice is therefore seen as an important step in encouraging proactive employee behavior, particularly in service-oriented contexts such as the hotel industry (López-Cabarcos et al., 2015). Proactive behaviors are typically self-initiated and involve efforts to bring about change rather than simply responding to existing conditions or maintaining the status quo (Parker et al., 2019).

Procedural justice refers to the extent to which employees perceive that decisions about outcomes are made fairly, in accordance with established organizational procedures, and are implemented appropriately by those in authority (Moorman et al., 1993). Parallel with this; the social exchange theory indicates that workers are expected to work in ways that benefit organizations and individuals who have good relationships with them (Blau, 1964). In this regard, Cropanzano and Prehar (2001) suggested an incorporated model, insisting that procedural justice develops the fairness perception towards the organization. Besides, Masterson et al., (2000) argued that procedural fairness boosts the relationship between employees and the organization. Likewise, when workers feel that the company is implementing its procedures unjustly, they believe that the bond with the organization is deficient (Tyler & Lind, 1992). Furthermore, Tyler and Lind (1992) argue that unfair procedures can engender negative feelings regarding the current organization since workers could assume that their group has been exploited and that their colleagues are vulnerable to injustice treatment. Thus, poor procedural justice could convey negative feelings on the part of proactive employees, helping to reduce their intention to go beyond their fundamental lines of work (Parker et al., 2019). Meanwhile, in a social environment with such a high degree of procedural justice, it can trigger employees to demonstrate proactive behavior (Li et al., 2010). According to Li et al., (2010), an exhibition of the proactive behavior could be a powerful approach to reciprocate the fair treatment of the organization. Thus, according to Caesens et al., (2016), individuals strive to reciprocate the positive treatment they experience from the organization by conducting discretionary behavior that benefits the company. As Wang et al., (2018) stated that job crafting is a voluntary behavior by the workers; thus, its expected procedural justice can promote job crafting. Therefore, the procedural justice was supposed to trigger the expression of the job crafting of workers in the organization.

Finally, in 1986, the scholar found the third organizational justice dimension under the organizational justice literature, and it was the concept of interactional justice (Bies, 2001). Bies and Moag (1986) argued that interactional justice is concerned with workers' beliefs of justice in terms of the interactions with a policy-maker or the management who is in charge of the outcome's allocation. According to Colquitt (2001), interactional justice contains two components, which are the interpersonal and informational justice. Specifically, interpersonal justice concerns workers' perceptions regarding how the employer treats them in terms of dignity and respect. According to Tyler et al., (2000), workers want to be treated with dignity and respect regardless of the decision. Secondly, informational fairness relates to the workers' perception of how the organization treats them with truthful, specific, and sufficient in providing the explanation. For instance, the worker's beliefs of the honesty of the supervisor's communication will represent this aspect (Colquitt, 2001). As claimed by Bies and Moag (1986), the perception of interactional justice by employees depends on four rules.

First, managers should openly and honestly communicate their decision-making procedures to avoid deception. Second, managers should justify any decision-making procedures. Third, all employees should be respected by managers. Lastly, managers should avoid making questions or comments that are inappropriate.

Drawing from social exchange theory, Organ (1988) stated that workers would be motivated to reciprocate justice treatment that they experience from the organization. According to Durbin et al., (2018), the reciprocity norm implies that employees will feel obliged to repay any equal treatment that they experience from the organization. Organ (1990) and Blau (1964) argues this reciprocation involves employees will go beyond and above their specific job requirements in order to comply with the perceived extra responsibilities. Parallel with this, Blakley et al., (2005) argued that if workers believe that they have been treated unfairly by the organization or its supervisor, they are probable to feel that the social exchange has already been breached. If workers see a justice workplace environment, they are expected to react in line towards the social exchange and produce more extra-work behavior (Blakley et al., 2005). As claimed by Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001), job crafting behaviors include actions such as taking on additional work and building relationships with customers. Moreover, Li et al., (2010) claim that in organizations that have a higher justice climate, it promote proactive behavior among employees when they think that is the way to reciprocate fair treatment from organizations. Therefore, it is expected that interactional justice will stimulate job crafting behavior.

Hypothesis 1. *Distributive justice is positively related job crafting behavior;*

Hypothesis 2. *Procedural justice is positively related to job crafting behavior;*

Hypothesis 3. *Interactional justice is positively related to job crafting behavior.*

Organizational Justice and Psychological Ownership

Individuals evaluate an organization in terms of fairness or unfairness, particularly through accountability considerations, which directly shape their attitudes toward the organization (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). Fair treatment can foster positive emotional and cognitive bonds between employees and their organization (Loi et al., 2006). In particular, distributive justice strengthen psychological ownership when employees perceive that rewards, recognition, promotions, and other outcomes are fairly allocated relative to their contributions (Pierce et al., 2003). From a social exchange perspective, such fair treatment creates an obligation to reciprocate through positive attitudes and stronger psychological attachment to the organization. Equity theory further explains this relationship by suggesting that employees continuously evaluate the balance between their inputs, such as effort and skills, and the outcomes they receive relative to others (Adams, 1965). When this balance is perceived as fair, employees are more likely to develop a sense of value, belonging, and ownership toward the organization. Accordingly, employees who perceive higher levels of distributive justice are expected to experience stronger psychological ownership.

Within the framework of social exchange theory, procedural justice represents a critical resource that shapes how employees evaluate the quality of their relationship with the organization (Atalay & Özler, 2013; Masterson et al., 2000). Prior studies suggest that fair procedures play a key role in strengthening employer–employee relationships and fostering positive attitudes, including psychological ownership (Atalay & Özler, 2013; Sieger et al., 2011). When employees perceive decision-making processes as fair, they are more likely to

develop broader perceptions of organizational fairness (Cropanzano et al., 2001). Masterson et al., (2000) stated that individual relationships towards organizational would get stronger when employees were feeling fairness in procedural. Drawing on social exchange theory, it can therefore be argued that fair procedural treatment encourages reciprocity toward the psychological ownership.

Moorman and Byrne (2005) suggest that when employees perceive fair treatment, they feel confident that their interests will be protected even without formal safeguards. Similarly, interactional justice, particularly in exchanges with supervisors, shapes how employees respond to authority and influences the quality of workplace relationships (Cropanzano et al., 2001). Fair and respectful treatment strengthens employee-employer relationships and fosters a sense of psychological ownership (Hameed et al., 2019). Therefore, a culture of justice plays a vital role in developing these ownership feelings. Importantly, perceptions of fairness extend beyond tangible outcomes such as pay and promotions to include intangible aspects like reputation and respect (Rousseau & Shperling, 2003). Therefore, we propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4. *Distributive justice is positively related to psychological ownership;*

Hypothesis 5. *Procedural justice is positively related to psychological ownership;*

Hypothesis 6. *Interactional justice is positively related to psychological ownership.*

Psychological Ownership and Job Crafting

Pierce et al. (2001) define psychological ownership as a personal sense of belonging toward a target, such as an organization. Psychological ownership enables employees to meet their needs, and they probably reciprocate by contributing to the organization (Ng & Feldman, 2012). Workers who feel employer contribute to their fundamental needs will reciprocate by contributing positively and proactively towards the organization (Dyne & Pierce, 2004). When employees develop this feeling toward their company, they are more likely to experience a sense of responsibility, which encourages them to invest time and behave in ways that benefit the organization (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004). Employees who feel a strong sense of belonging are more inclined to work collaboratively, strengthen work relationships, and craft their roles to support the organization's goals (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). In particular, employees who develop a strong sense of ownership over their roles and feel connected to their organization are more likely to actively modify their tasks, workplace relationships, and perspectives in meaningful ways (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004). Thus, this sense of belonging naturally results in job crafting, as workers proactively refine their roles and strengthen their contributions to the organization (Tims et al., 2011). Moreover, Wilpert (1991) argues that when employees develop a sense of "mine" toward the organization, they are more likely to engage in proactive behaviors aimed at protecting and enhancing what they perceive as their own. Based on these arguments, it is reasonable to expect that psychological ownership is positively related to job crafting behavior.

In addition, Van Dyne and Pierce (2004) argue that psychological ownership positively influences discretionary, extra-role behaviors that fall outside formal job requirements. Similarly, Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) note that job crafting often involves extra-role activities, such as taking on additional tasks or building relationships with customers. Therefore, we propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 7. *Psychological ownership is positively related to job crafting behavior.*

Psychological Ownership Mediates Between Organizational Justice and Job Crafting

Grounded in social exchange theory, the norm of reciprocity plays a foundational role in shaping employee behavior (Gouldner, 1960). When individuals receive fair treatment from their organization, they feel obligated to reciprocate. More specifically, perceived organizational justice fosters a stronger sense of psychological ownership (Pierce et al., 2003), which subsequently drives proactive work behaviors (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004; Wilpert, 1991; Qiu et al., 2015). As job crafting constitutes a well-established form of proactive behavior (Parker et al., 2019; Tims & Bakker, 2010; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), employees who perceive fair treatment are likely to develop deeper psychological ownership and, in turn, engage in greater job crafting. In essence, psychological ownership serves as a crucial mechanism transmitting the positive effects of organizational justice to job crafting behaviors. Despite its theoretical plausibility, this specific mediating effect remains largely unexplored in the literature. To address this gap, we propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 8. *Psychological Ownership mediates the relationship between Distributive Justice and Job Crafting;*

Hypothesis 9. *Psychological Ownership mediates the relationship between Procedural Justice and Job Crafting;*

Hypothesis 10. *Psychological Ownership mediates the relationship between Interactional Justice and Job Crafting.*

Research Model

The overall research model is presented in Figure 1.

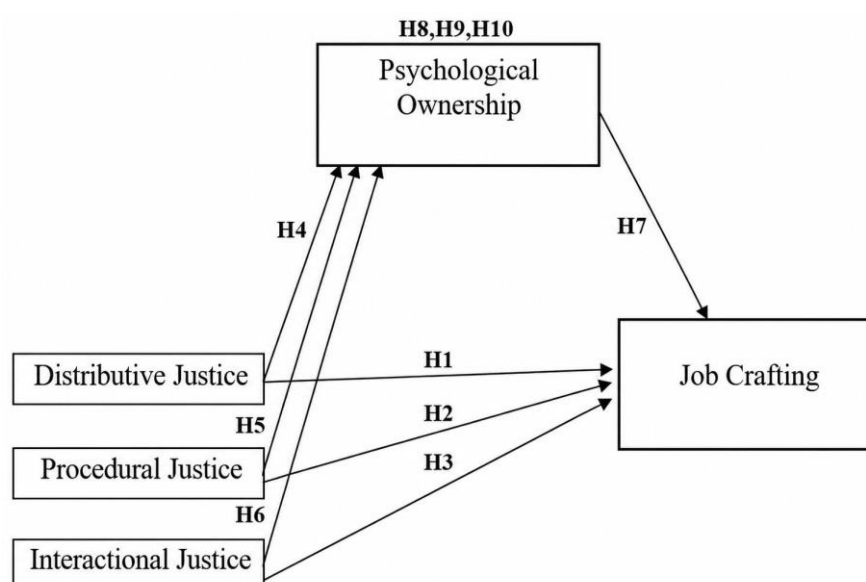


Figure 1. Research model.

Research Methodology

Sampling and Procedure

Frontline employees from four- and five-star hotels in the Klang Valley, Malaysia, were selected to participate in this study. The research design utilized a structured quantitative printed survey as the primary instrument for data gathering. Although originally developed in

English, the questionnaire was translated into Malay language so that respondents could fully understand its content, and the two language versions were combined into a single bilingual survey for data collection. Translation accuracy was verified through a back-translation procedure (Brislin, 1970). This study adopted a non-probability sampling approach by employing convenience sampling techniques. Convenience sampling was adopted due to the accessibility and availability of frontline employees across multiple hotels. This approach was considered appropriate given the practical challenges of accessing the target population and the need to collect data efficiently within the available time and resources (Saunders et al., 2019). Due to limited access to a comprehensive employee database, a complete sampling frame could not be established. Consequently, respondents were recruited according to their accessibility and voluntary consent to participate in the study. A "drop-off and collect" method was utilized for survey distribution (Zikmund, 2003). Data collection was conducted from February to June 2026. Prior to distribution, the researchers secured approval from the respective Human Resources (HR) departments or Manager at Front Desk Department by phone, email, and in-person consultations. They were fully briefed on the study's objectives, procedures, and benefits, as well as the strict protocols regarding anonymity and confidentiality.

The target population comprised employees working at the front desk, guest services, room service, food and beverage services, and other frontline operational functions. Participation was strictly voluntary, and instructions clearly stated that respondents could decline to participate at any time. To guarantee confidentiality and encourage honest, unbiased responses, the survey did not collect any personally identifiable information. Across 18 participating hotels, a total of 166 questionnaires were distributed to frontline employees, of which 151 were returned. Following data screening, four incomplete questionnaires were excluded, resulting in 147 valid responses for the final analysis and an overall response rate of 88.6%. G*Power was used to determine the minimum sample size through an a priori power analysis using an F-test for linear multiple regression. The analysis used a medium effect size ($f^2 = 0.15$), $\alpha = 0.05$, power = 0.95, and three predictors. The analysis indicated a minimum sample size of 119 respondents.

Variables Measurement and Questionnaire Design

Structural equation modelling (SEM) involves two key stages of evaluation, namely the assessment of the measurement model and the examination of the structural model. The measurement model evaluation aims to verify the adequacy of construct validity through analyses of convergent and discriminant validity. Reliability of the constructs was established by examining internal consistency using Cronbach's alpha (α) and composite reliability (CR) indices (Sarstedt et al., 2017). In addition, convergent validity was determined by analysing indicator loadings together with average variance extracted (AVE) values (Hair et al., 2014). To ensure sufficient discriminant validity among the constructs, the Fornell–Larcker criterion and the Heterotrait–Monotrait ratio (HTMT) approach were employed.

The structural model assessment focuses on examining the relationships among the study variables and determining the nature of their interconnections (Coulacoglou & Saklofske, 2017). To estimate the model parameters, a bootstrapping procedure was employed to generate bias-corrected estimates and confidence intervals. A non-parametric resampling technique involving 5,000 bootstrap subsamples was utilised, as this approach is suitable for

addressing potential violations of normality assumptions in datasets that do not exhibit normal distribution characteristics (Sarstedt et al., 2017; Streukens & Leroi-Werelds, 2016). Furthermore, the structural model was used to assess both direct and indirect mediation effects among the constructs under investigation.

Measures

Cavana et al. (2001) argued that researchers must conduct a pre-test of the final questionnaire before using it to gather data. Three types of pre-tests can be carried out: content validity, face validity, and a pilot study (Cavana et al., 2001). Specifically, content validity referred to the extent to which the questionnaire measured all the relevant aspects or phenomena of a given construct (Cavana et al., 2001). A group of experts was required to review the questionnaire items to ensure that they measured the selected theoretical constructs (Cavana et al., 2001). Therefore, content validity was assessed by two senior lecturers and two managers from 4-star hotels in the Klang Valley.

Face validity addresses the question of whether the questionnaire truly measures the concept being investigated (Burns, 1994). Cavana et al. (2001) state that unclear wording of the questionnaire items may cause confusion and make it difficult for respondents to understand the questions. Moreover, since the items of the questionnaire have been translated from English to Bahasa Malaysia, the researcher must conduct a pre-test to avoid any face validity problems. In parallel with this, Hair et al. (2007) argues that when researchers use a questionnaire in a language other than the original, it must be extensively pretested. Additionally, the researcher will use both English and Bahasa Malaysia languages for better clarity and comprehension. As explained by Hair et al. (2007), the minimum number of respondents should be four, and the maximum number should not exceed 30. Therefore, the researchers select a small number of respondents to answer the questionnaire and conduct an interview to determine if any items caused confusion (Cavana et al., 2001). In this study, 4 frontline employees from the four- star hotel were chosen to take part in the face validity procedure.

Following corrections identified through the pre-test, the researcher conducted a pilot study. Prior to primary data collection, it is common practice to carry out a pilot or feasibility study to assess the reliability and validity of the research instrument and refine its design (Zikmund et al., 2012). Accordingly, the pilot study in this research was undertaken to evaluate the validity and reliability of the self-administered questionnaire used to measure organizational justice, job crafting, and psychological ownership. Following Sekaran (2003) and Cavana et al. (2001), Cronbach's alpha coefficients were used to assess instrument reliability, with a value of 0.70 or above considered acceptable. Cavana et al. (2001) recommend an ideal pilot sample size of 30 respondents, while Hill (1998) suggests that a sample of 10 to 30 respondents is generally sufficient for pilot testing. In this study, 38 questionnaires were distributed to frontline employees at four-star hotels in the Klang Valley area, of which 33 completed responses were returned. The results indicated that all constructs achieved Cronbach's alpha values above 0.70, demonstrating satisfactory internal consistency and confirming the reliability of the measurement instruments

Job crafting

Job crafting was measured using the original 15-item job crafting scale developed by Slemp and Brodrick (2013). Participants indicated the frequency with which they engaged in each job crafting behavior using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = never to 5 = very often. Following the measurement model assessment, five indicators were removed due to low outer loadings. The removal of these indicators was necessary to improve the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) value above the recommended threshold of 0.50 (Hair et al., 2022). Consequently, although the original job crafting scale consisted of 15 items, the final structural analysis was conducted using the 10 retained indicators. Although previous study shows that Slemp and Vella-Brodrick (2013) job crafting scale treated as first-order measurement model, but others study also shows that it can be treated as high-order measurement model (Chang et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2020). Thus, job crafting construct was treated as unidimensional in this study. The example of this job crafting measurement is "Remind yourself of the importance of your work for the broader community." and "Engage in networking activities to establish more relationships". The original three subscales demonstrated satisfactory reliability, with Cronbach's alpha values ranging from .84 to .91, exceeding the recommended threshold of .70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). The scale was selected because it is applicable across occupations and industries (Slemp & Brodrick, 2013) and has also been used in the hotel industry (Kim et al., 2018).

Organizational justice

In order to measure organizational fairness, researchers borrowed and adapted 20-items from Niehoff & Moorman (1993) justice scale. The study measured distributive fairness with the help of five items and procedural fairness with six items. Meanwhile, interactional justice was assessed by nine items. According to Niehoff and Moorman (1993), all three dimensions showed reliabilities above .90. All the organizational justice items were measured by participants demonstrate the agreement with which they engage in each one (1= strongly disagree, and 5= strongly agree). Among the sample is "I think that my level of pay is fair" for distributive justice dimensions. Moreover, items like "My general manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees" is to measure procedural justice. Finally, other items such as "When decisions are made about my job, my supervisor treats me with respect and dignity" is to measure the interactional justice. However, prior to data collection, a content validity assessment was conducted through an expert review involving from two senior lecturer. The expert review identified two double-barreled items within the interactional justice dimension. Following the experts' recommendations, these double-barreled items were separated into individual items to ensure that each item captured a single, conceptually distinct aspect of interactional justice and to improve item clarity. Consequently, the number of interactional justice items increased from nine to eleven item.

Psychological ownership

The researcher measured psychological ownership with a seven-item scale developed by Dyne and Pierce (2004) and adapted for this study. This item is developed to measure employees feeling ownership or possession towards the organization. The sample item includes "I feel a very high degree of personal ownership for this organization" and "This is my organization." All items of this scale have been assessed using a Likert-type scale with a five-point scale (1= strongly disagree up to 5= strongly agree). Previous study show that this Dyne and Pierce

(2004) psychological ownership measurement has acceptable Cronbach's coefficient (Mehmood et al., 2020). A few minor changes were made following the expert review to simplify the wording of the items. For example, the original item, "It is hard for me to think about this organization as mine," was simplified to "I find it difficult to think of this organization as mine. However, after conducting the measurement assessment using PLS-SEM, one item was deleted due to its low outer loading. Consequently, only six items were retained for analysis in the structural model.

Data screening and cleaning & Common Method Bias Assessment

Data screening and cleaning were performed using SPSS 22 prior to analysis. Each construct was checked for abnormal entries, which were corrected accordingly. During initial screening, four incomplete questionnaires with more than 10% unanswered items were removed, as such responses could bias the results (Hair, 2010). This threshold follows the recommendation that questionnaires with 10% or more missing data be excluded, retaining only those with above 90% completion (Kline, 2011; Cohen & Cohen, 1983). A missing value analysis on the remaining 147 questionnaires showed missing data below 10% at the item level, falling within the acceptable "ignorable" range (Cohen & Cohen, 1983).

Because all study variables were measured using self-reported data, the potential presence of Common Method Bias (CMB) was considered. Following the recommendations of Podsakoff et al. (2003), appropriate procedural measures were implemented to minimize the potential influence of CMB. Specifically, respondents were assured that their responses would be kept confidential and that no personally identifiable information would be disclosed. After conducting Harman's single-factor test using SPSS, the results indicated that the average variance explained was 36.528%. According to Podsakoff et al. (2003), common method variance (CMV) is not considered a serious concern when the variance explained by a single factor is below 50%. Therefore, the findings suggest that CMV is unlikely to pose a significant issue in the present study.

Statistical Procedure

The data were analyzed using the Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) approach implemented in SmartPLS 4.0. It is suitable for both exploratory and confirmatory research purposes and can accommodate non-normal data distributions involving either small or large sample sizes in predictive research contexts (Latan et al., 2023). The analysis involved the assessment of both the measurement model and the structural model. For the measurement model, convergent validity and discriminant validity were evaluated to establish the adequacy and distinctiveness of the constructs. The significance of the hypothesized relationships in the structural model was assessed using a bootstrapping procedure with 5,000 resamples. A two-tailed test was employed, and statistical significance was evaluated using 95% confidence intervals. The results of the measurement model and structural model assessments are presented in the subsequent sections.

Results

Demographic result

The demographic characteristics of the respondents are presented in Table 1. Out of the 147 (N = 147) respondents, females constituted a slightly larger proportion of the sample (58.5%) than males (41.5%). The majority of respondents were Malay respondents (79.6%). In terms

of marital status, 58.5% were single, while 40.1% were married, based on 146 valid responses, with 1 missing response. Regarding educational level, more than half of the respondents held an undergraduate degree (55.8%), followed by other qualifications (32.7%), based on 145 valid responses, with 2 missing responses. Most respondents were from the Room Division (68.0%), based on 146 valid responses, with 1 missing response, and were employed on a full-time basis (95.9%).

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics (N=147)

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Age	<20 years old	21	14.3
	21–30 years old	82	55.8
	31–40 years old	34	23.1
	41–50 years old	8	5.4
	>51 years old	2	1.4
Gender	Male	61	41.5
	Female	86	58.5
Marital Status	Married	59	40.4
	Single	86	58.9
	Others	1	0.7
Education Level	Undergraduate degree	82	55.8
	Master's degree	14	9.5
	PhD	1	0.7
	Others	48	32.7
Race	Malay	117	79.6
	Chinese	12	8.2
	Indian	9	6.1
	Others	7	4.8
Years of Service	Less than 5 years	25	17.0
	5–10 years	34	23.1
	11–20 years	66	44.9
	21–30 years	20	13.6
	31 years and above	2	1.4
Department	Room Division	100	68.0
	Food and Beverage Division	20	13.6
	Sales and Marketing Division	15	10.2
	Others	11	7.5
Job Status	Full-time employee	141	95.9
	Part-time employee	2	1.4
	Others	4	2.7

Measurement Model Assessment

The PLS-SEM framework consists of two essential components, namely the measurement model and the structural model. According to Hair et al. (2019), the assessment process begins with evaluating the measurement model before proceeding to the structural model. This evaluation involves verifying the reliability of individual indicators through outer

loadings, assessing internal consistency using Composite Reliability (CR), establishing convergent validity by examining the Average Variance Extracted (AVE), and confirming discriminant validity through cross-loadings and the Fornell–Larcker Criterion.

The findings demonstrated that all study constructs exhibited satisfactory internal consistency reliability. Cronbach's alpha was first assessed to evaluate the internal consistency of the measurement items. A Cronbach's alpha value of at least 0.70 is generally considered acceptable for establishing satisfactory internal consistency reliability (Hair et al., 2013). As shown in Table 2, the Cronbach's alpha values ranged from 0.855 to 0.955, indicating satisfactory to excellent internal consistency across all constructs. Composite reliability (CR) was subsequently assessed to further establish the reliability of the constructs. A CR value exceeding 0.70 is considered indicative of satisfactory internal consistency reliability (Hair et al., 2011; Sarstedt et al., 2017). As presented in Table 2, the CR values for all constructs exceeded the recommended threshold of 0.70, confirming satisfactory composite reliability across all constructs.. In addition, the average variance extracted (AVE) values for every construct exceeded the minimum recommended threshold of 0.50, with values ranging from 0.504 to 0.690. Five items for job crafting and one from psychological ownership were removed due to low loadings, which improved model fit, particularly the AVE. After removing six items, the AVE achieved a satisfactory value above .50. For items to be retained, each item had to have a loading above .50 (Hair et al., 2018). Thus, the evaluation of indicator loadings showed that all retained items exhibited acceptable loading values, providing further support for the adequacy of the measurement model (see Table 2).

Furthermore, discriminant validity was assessed using the Fornell–Larcker Criterion (Table 3) and the Heterotrait–Monotrait Ratio (HTMT) (Table 4). According to the Fornell–Larcker criterion, the square root of the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) for each construct should exceed its correlations with other constructs. As presented in Table 3, the diagonal values representing the square root of AVE (0.796, 0.831, 0.710, 0.818, and 0.827) were consistently greater than the corresponding inter-construct correlations. The highest correlation observed was 0.693, which remained lower than the square root of AVE of the associated constructs, thereby satisfying the discriminant validity criterion proposed by Fornell and Larcker (1981). In addition, all correlation coefficients were below the recommended threshold of 0.90, as suggested by Kline (2023) and Sarstedt et al. (2017), providing further support for discriminant validity. The HTMT analysis presented in Table 4 also confirmed these findings, with all values ranging from 0.381 to 0.785, remaining below the recommended cut-off value of 0.90. These results indicate that the constructs are empirically distinct from one another and provide support the measurement model possesses satisfactory discriminant validity and overall construct validity.

Table 2

Result of the measurement models

Construct	Items	Loadings	α	CR	AVE
Distributive Justice	DJ1	0.714	0.855	0.860	0.633
	DJ2	0.827			
	DJ3	0.795			
	DJ4	0.838			
	DJ5	0.799			
Interactional Justice	IJ1	0.838	0.955	0.958	0.690
	IJ2	0.811			
	IJ3	0.850			
	IJ4	0.796			
	IJ5	0.866			
	IJ6	0.849			
	IJ7	0.874			
	IJ8	0.802			
	IJ9	0.821			
	IJ10	0.817			
	IJ11	0.810			
Job Crafting	JC2	0.755	0.891	0.895	0.504
	JC3	0.714			
	JC4	0.656			
	JC5	0.679			
	JC6	0.639			
	JC9	0.697			
	JC10	0.694			
	JC12	0.749			
	JC13	0.756			
	JC14	0.751			
Procedural Justice	PJ1	0.797	0.900	0.900	0.669
	PJ2	0.812			
	PJ3	0.830			
	PJ4	0.845			
	PJ5	0.867			
	PJ6	0.749			
Psychological Ownership	PO1	0.756	0.907	0.909	0.685
	PO2	0.833			
	PO3	0.815			
	PO4	0.880			
	PO5	0.841			
	PO6	0.834			

Table 3

fornell and larcker's

	Distributive Justice	Interactional Justice	Job Crafting	Procedural Justice	Psychological Ownership
Distributive Justice	0.796				
Interactional Justice	0.443	0.831			
Job Crafting	0.591	0.485	0.710		
Procedural Justice	0.693	0.666	0.528	0.818	
Psychological Ownership	0.585	0.359	0.629	0.502	0.827

Table 4

Heterotrait–monotrait criteria (HTMT) discriminant validity

	Distributive Justice	Interactional Justice	Job Crafting	Procedural Justice	Psychological Ownership
Distributive Justice					
Interactional Justice	0.487				
Job Crafting	0.674	0.522			
Procedural Justice	0.785	0.717	0.587		
Psychological Ownership	0.661	0.381	0.686	0.553	

Structural model evaluation

After completing the measurement model evaluation, the structural model is subsequently assessed. This process involves examining collinearity, analysing the path coefficients, evaluating the coefficient of determination (R^2), calculating the effect size (f^2), and determining the model's predictive relevance (Q^2). Whereas the β coefficient represents the magnitude and direction of the relationship between the observed variables, the R^2 value indicates the overall explanatory and predictive power of the structural model (Hair et al., 2012). Additionally, the p-value was examined to determine the statistical significance of the hypothesised relationships and, consequently, whether the proposed hypotheses were supported. Beyond assessing changes in R^2 , the effect size (f^2) was also evaluated to determine the substantive contribution of each predictor to the endogenous construct. Furthermore, the blindfolding procedure in SmartPLS was employed to obtain the Q^2 value, which serves as a measure of predictive relevance. This procedure systematically omits selected observations from the data matrix and subsequently uses the estimated model parameters to predict the omitted observations. In accordance with the recommendations of Hair et al. (2012), β values above 0.20 are considered indicative of meaningful relationships, while R^2 and f^2 values exceeding 0.13 and 0.15, respectively, suggest adequate explanatory

power and meaningful effect sizes. SEM using Smart-PLS generates the Q^2 value to evaluate the model's predictive power. A Q^2 value closer to 1 indicates stronger predictive relevance, while a value closer to 0 suggests weaker predictive ability. The structural model's predictive performance can also be assessed using R^2 , which represents the combined effect of exogenous (independent) variables on endogenous (dependent) variables (Tenenhaus et al., 2005). Sarstedt et al. (2017) suggest that R^2 values of 0.25, 0.50, and 0.75 indicate weak, moderate, and strong predictive power, respectively.

Table 5 shows the VIF values, which range from 1.567 to 2.812. All values are below the recommended threshold of 5, indicating no critical collinearity issues (Hair et al., 2022). Moreover, Tables 6 and 7 display the β , p-values, R^2 , f^2 , and Q^2 of the hypothesized structural model. The results in Table 6 indicate that four of the seven proposed direct relationships are significant at less than the 1% significance level ($p < 0.01$). Specifically, the results show that distributive justice has a positive and significant relationship with job crafting ($\beta = 0.259$, $t = 3.632$, $p < .001$) and psychological ownership ($\beta = 0.457$, $t = 4.745$, $p < .001$). Similarly, interactional justice has a positive and significant relationship with job crafting ($\beta = 0.231$, $t = 2.609$, $p < 0.01$). In addition, psychological ownership has a positive and significant relationship with job crafting ($\beta = 0.397$, $t = 4.542$, $p < .001$). Therefore, the corresponding hypotheses for these four relationships are supported. In contrast, the results indicate that interactional justice does not have a significant relationship with psychological ownership ($\beta = 0.058$, $t = 0.641$, $p = 0.522$). Likewise, procedural justice does not have a significant relationship with job crafting ($\beta = -0.005$, $t = 0.051$, $p = 0.960$) or psychological ownership ($\beta = 0.146$, $t = 1.150$, $p = 0.250$). Therefore, the corresponding hypotheses for these three relationships are not supported.

After examining the structural relationships among the key variables of the study, the subsequent stage in completing the structural model assessment involves determining the strength of these relationships. This assessment is conducted by examining the coefficient of determination (R^2), effect size (f^2), and predictive relevance (Q^2). The R^2 values were above the minimum threshold limit, with R^2 values of 0.513 for job crafting and 0.362 for psychological ownership. These values indicate that the model explained 51.3% of the variance in job crafting and 36.2% of the variance in psychological ownership. Moreover, Cohen (1988) classified f^2 values of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35 as representing small, medium, and large effect sizes, respectively. As can be seen at table 6, the effect sizes ranged from 0.000 to 0.206, indicating small to medium effect sizes across the hypothesized paths. Table 7 shows the Q^2 values of the dependent constructs: Q^2 (psychological ownership) = 0.321 and Q^2 (job crafting) = 0.379. All the Q^2 values were above zero, providing support for the predictive relevance of the conceptual model (Hair et al., 2014). Based on the Q^2 estimates, the hypothesized model demonstrated satisfactory predictive relevance.

Table 5

Collinearity statistics (VIF) – Inner model

	VIF
Distributive Justice → Job Crafting	2.252
Distributive Justice → Psychological Ownership	1.924
Interactional Justice → Job Crafting	1.804
Interactional Justice → Psychological Ownership	1.798
Procedural Justice → Job Crafting	2.812
Procedural Justice → Psychological Ownership	2.778
Psychological Ownership → Job Crafting	1.567

Table 6

Evaluation of structural model

Relationship	β	f^2	SD	T statistics	P values	2.5%C	97.5%C
DJ → JC	0.259	0.061	0.071	3.632	0.000	0.115	0.398
DJ → PO	0.457	0.170	0.096	4.745	0.000	0.252	0.638
IJ → JC	0.231	0.061	0.089	2.609	0.009	0.043	0.392
IJ → PO	0.058	0.003	0.091	0.641	0.522	-0.115	0.241
PJ → JC	0.005	0.000	0.094	0.051	0.960	-0.179	0.187
PJ → PI	0.146	0.012	0.127	1.150	0.250	-0.100	0.391
PO → JC	0.397	0.206	0.087	4.542	0.000	0.213	0.557

Table 7

Predictive relevance and power of endogenous variables

	R-square	Q ²
Job Crafting	0.513	0.379
Psychological Ownership	0.362	0.321

The current study tested the mediating role of psychological ownership between the relationship dimensions of organizational justice (procedural justice, distributive justice, and interactional justice) towards job crafting, following the mediation procedure recommended by Preacher and Hayes (2008). The mediating hypotheses were examined by assessing the significance of the indirect effects using the bootstrapping procedure with 5,000 resamples. The bootstrapping results indicated that the indirect effect of distributive justice on job crafting through psychological ownership was significant ($\beta = 0.181$, $SE = 0.056$, $T\text{-value} = 3.242$, $P\text{-value} = 0.001$). Therefore, psychological ownership significantly mediates the relationship between distributive justice and job crafting. In contrast, the indirect effect of procedural justice on job crafting through psychological ownership was not significant ($\beta = 0.058$, $SE = 0.051$, $T\text{-value} = 1.137$, $P\text{-value} = 0.256$). Similarly, the indirect effect of interactional justice on job crafting through psychological ownership was also not significant ($\beta = 0.023$, $SE = 0.038$, $T\text{-value} = 0.610$, $P\text{-value} = 0.542$). All indirect-effect results are presented in Table 8. Furthermore, the summary of the hypothesis test for direct relationships is displayed in Table 9.

Table 8

Result of hypothesis indirect effect (mediator test)

	Effect	Sample mean (M)	Standard deviation (STDEV)	T statistics (O/STDEV)	P values	2.5%C	97.5%C
PJ → PO → JC	0.058	0.055	0.051	1.137	0.256	-0.036	0.168
DJ → PO → JC	0.181	0.183	0.056	3.242	0.001	0.084	0.303
IJ → PO → JC	0.023	0.025	0.038	0.610	0.542	-0.041	0.110

Table 9

Summary of hypothesis test for direct relationships

N	Hypotheses Statement	Decision
H1	Distributive justice is positively related job crafting behavior	Supported
H2	Procedural justice is positively related to job crafting behavior	Not Supported
H3	Interactional justice is positively related to job crafting behavior	Supported
H4	Distributive justice is positively related to psychological ownership	Supported
H5	Procedural justice is positively related to psychological ownership	Not Supported
H6	Interactional justice is positively related to psychological ownership	Not Supported
H7	Psychological ownership is positively related to job crafting behavior	Supported

Discussion

Drawing on Social Exchange Theory, this study examined whether distributive, procedural, and interactional justice influence job crafting both directly and indirectly through organization-based psychological ownership. Overall, the findings indicate that some of the proposed relationships were supported, while others were not, highlighting the differential effects of organizational justice dimensions within the proposed model. Specifically, distributive justice had significant positive effects on both job crafting and organization-based psychological ownership, while interactional justice significantly influenced job crafting. organization-based psychological ownership, in turn, had a significant positive effect on job crafting. However, procedural justice did not significantly influence either job crafting or organization-based psychological ownership, and interactional justice did not significantly influence psychological ownership. Furthermore, organization-based psychological ownership significantly mediated the relationship between distributive justice and job crafting.

The significant relationship between distributive justice and job crafting indicates that employees who perceive organizational outcomes as fair are more likely to proactively modify their work. This finding suggests that fair allocation of rewards, recognition, workload, and opportunities can encourage employees to invest additional effort in job crafting. Such behavior is consistent with Social Exchange Theory, which suggests that employees tend to reciprocate favorable organizational treatment through positive and discretionary behaviors (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). In the hotels context, fair outcomes particularly

important because frontline employees face demanding workloads and changing customer expectations. Therefore, employees who feel fairly rewarded more willing to take initiative and adjust their work to improve the task. The significant relationship between interactional justice and job crafting indicates that respectful and considerate treatment from supervisor can encourage employees to engage in job crafting. This finding can be explained through Social Exchange Theory because employees reciprocate positive interpersonal treatment through constructive behaviors (Blau, 1964). However, interactional justice did not significantly influence organization-based psychological ownership. This is not fully consistent with the previous study on the relationship between interactional justice and psychological ownership (Hameed et al., 2019). A possible explanation is that employees may attribute respectful treatment to their immediate supervisor rather than to the organization. Thus, interactional justice may be more closely related to supervisor-focused outcomes, than to organization-based psychological ownership.

The significant positive relationship between distributive justice and organization-based psychological ownership further demonstrates that fair outcomes can strengthen employees' psychological connection with their organization. Employees who perceive that their contributions are fairly recognized feel more valued and develop a stronger sense of personal responsibility toward their work. This finding is consistent with recent evidence that organizational justice can act as an important mechanism to trigger organizational psychological ownership (Jnaneswar & Ranjit, 2021; Mehmood et al., 2021). In this sense, distributive justice provide employees with a psychological basis for developing ownership because fair treatment signals that their contributions are valued by the organization. Meanwhile, the significant positive relationship between organization-based psychological ownership and job crafting is also consistent with recent research (Tsai, 2021). Employees who feel a strong sense of ownership toward their work are more likely to take initiative and actively modify their jobs.

In contrast, procedural justice did not significantly influence job crafting or organization-based psychological ownership. One possible explanation may be that frontline employees in Malaysian four- and five-star hotels operate within relatively standardized procedures and hierarchical structures. Consequently, formal procedures is less influential than immediate experiences such as rewards, recognition, workload, and interpersonal treatment. Moreover, Sieger et al. (2011) suggested that employees may perceive their supervisors, rather than the organization as a whole, as responsible for procedures implemented during performance appraisal. Similarly, in the hotel context, employees may associate fair procedures with their immediate supervisors rather than the organization itself. Consequently, procedural fairness may improve employees' perceptions of their supervisors without developing a broader sense of ownership toward the organization.

Finding of this study show the significant mediating effect of organization-based psychological ownership between distributive justice and job crafting. This finding indicates that fair organizational outcomes encourage employees to develop organization-based psychological ownership, which subsequently motivates them to engage in job crafting. Employees who feel fairly rewarded develop a stronger sense of responsibility and personal connection toward their organization, encouraging them to invest additional effort in improving their work through job crafting. This finding extends the research on organization-based psychological

ownership and job crafting by demonstrating that organization-based psychological ownership can serve as a mechanism through which a specific dimension of organizational justice influences job crafting. However, organization-based psychological ownership did not mediate the relationships involving procedural justice or interactional justice. Thus, organization-based psychological ownership does not represent a universal mechanism linking all forms of organizational justice to job crafting.

Theoretical Implications

Theoretically, this study contributes to the advancement of Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) by explaining how distributive justice (Greenberg, 1990) influences job crafting (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001) through organization-based psychological ownership (Pierce, Kostova, & Dirks, 2001). It integrates Social Exchange Theory with Equity Theory (Adams, 1965), to provide a comprehensive framework for understanding job crafting among frontline employees in Malaysian four and five-star hotels. First, the study extends job crafting literature by identifying distributive and interactional justice as a significant antecedent, broadening existing perspectives beyond job characteristics, personality, and leadership. Second, the findings demonstrate that distributive justice significantly predicts organization-based psychological ownership, supporting the applicability of Social Exchange Theory, particularly within Malaysia's collectivist and high-power-distance context (Hofstede, 2001). Third, the study establishes a theoretical connection between organization-based psychological ownership and job crafting, addressing the limited research examining this relationship. Fourth, the study demonstrates that organization-based psychological ownership mediates the relationship between distributive justice and job crafting, providing greater insight into how different dimension of organizational justice encourages job crafting. Overall, the findings broaden the nomological network of job crafting and strengthen understanding of organizational justice outcomes. The study further demonstrates the cross-cultural applicability of psychological ownership and highlights organizational justice as an important organizational context that motivates employees to actively craft their work.

Practical Implications

Encouraging job crafting is increasingly important in complex service environments, particularly among frontline employees in four- and five-star hotels who must continually respond to diverse and evolving customer needs. The findings indicate that organizational justice exerts differential effects on job crafting, with distributive and interactional justice emerging as significant predictors. Hotel managers are therefore advised to prioritize the fair distribution of rewards, recognition, workload, and developmental opportunities, as these factors play a critical role in encouraging employees to engage in job crafting. In parallel, supervisors should maintain respectful and considerate treatment of employees, as interactional justice was similarly found to promote job crafting behaviors. Although procedural justice did not significantly predict job crafting in this study, maintaining fair and transparent organizational procedures remains important for sustaining a broader climate of organizational fairness that supports employee well-being and engagement over time.

The findings further demonstrate that organization-based psychological ownership significantly influences job crafting, suggesting that hotel management should cultivate conditions that strengthen employees' sense of ownership toward their work and

organization. In addition, organization-based psychological ownership was found to significantly mediate the relationship between distributive justice and job crafting, indicating that distributive justice enhances employees' sense of psychological ownership, which in turn encourages greater engagement in job crafting behaviors. These results suggest that hotels should place particular emphasis on fair rewards, recognition, workload allocation, and growth opportunities to reinforce employees' sense of ownership. Collectively, the findings offer practical implications for Malaysian four- and five-star hotels: by prioritizing distributive and interactional fairness while fostering psychological ownership, hotel management can effectively encourage frontline employees to engage in job crafting.

Conclusions, Limitations, and Recommendations for Future Research

Despite its contributions, this study has several limitations. First, the study focuses only on frontline employees in Malaysian four- and five-star hotels and uses convenience sampling, which may introduce selection bias and limit the representativeness and generalizability of the findings to employees in other hotel categories, industries, or countries. Second, the study uses a cross-sectional research design, which limits the ability to establish causal relationships among organizational justice, organization-based psychological ownership, and job crafting. Third, the study relies on self-reported data, which may be affected by respondents' perceptions, personal biases, social desirability, and common method variance. Finally, the study examines only selected dimensions of organizational justice and psychological ownership, while other organizational and individual factors may also influence job crafting.

Future research should extend the study to different hotel categories, industries, and geographical contexts to improve generalizability. Comparative studies between different countries or hotel categories could provide further insight into how organizational context influences justice perceptions and job crafting. Longitudinal research is also recommended to examine changes in organizational justice, psychological ownership, and job crafting over time and provide stronger evidence of causal relationships. Future studies could also incorporate other variables, such as organizational support, leadership style, employee engagement, autonomy, or work motivation, to develop a more comprehensive model of job crafting. This study focused exclusively on the positive consequences of psychological ownership. Moreover, prior research suggests that psychological ownership may also lead to undesirable behaviors, such as knowledge hiding (Batool et al., 2023). Therefore, future research should further examine the potential influence of psychological ownership on negative workplace outcomes, particularly pro-organizational unethical behavior. Finally, future researchers may consider using multiple data sources, such as supervisor ratings and objective performance measures, to reduce potential bias associated with self-reported data.

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