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Positive Violations of Procedural Justice: Effects on Organizational Citizenship Behavior Intentions

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Positive Violations of Procedural Justice:
Effects on Organizational Citizenship Behavior Intentions

A Thesis

Presented to the

Department of Psychology

and to the

Faculty of the Graduate College

University of Nebraska

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Arts

University of Nebraska at Omaha

by

Eric Rowlee

July, 1999

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Acceptance for the faculty of the Graduate College,
University of Nebraska, in partial fulfillment of the
Requirements for the degree Master of Arts,
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Abstract

The present study examines the relationship between perceptions of procedural justice and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) intentions. Specifically, it adds to the current literature by studying positive violations of procedural justice. Positive procedural justice violations are defined as violations that give the recipient an undue advantage. Negative procedural justice violations are defined as violations that disadvantage the individual. The study first reviews the existing literature regarding distributive justice, procedural justice, the reciprocity norm, and OCB. Connections between these constructs are identified to explain the relationship between positive violations of procedural justice and OCB intentions, situational satisfaction, and supervisor approval.

It was hypothesized that participants' perceptions of fairness would be greater in situations involving no violations of procedural justice than in neutral violation, positive violation, and negative violation situations. It was also hypothesized that, consistent with the self-interest model (Tyler, 1994), participants' ratings of situational satisfaction, supervisor approval, and OCB intentions would be highest in the positive violation condition and lowest in the negative violation condition. A research design was proposed to investigate these hypotheses. Undergraduate students of an introductory psychology course were presented one of four vignettes, each representing a treatment condition. The four conditions presented were: a control condition where no violation was involved and no advantage was given, a neutral violation condition in which procedural justice was violated but no advantage or disadvantage resulted, a positive violation condition, and a negative violation condition. Participants' responses were measured in terms of their

perceptions of procedural justice, situational satisfaction, supervisor approval, and their intentions to engage in organizational citizenship behavior.

Hypothesis 1 was fully supported. Hypothesis 2 was partially supported, in that those in the positive violation condition reported significantly greater situational satisfaction and supervisor approval than those in the neutral and negative violation conditions, and significantly greater OCB intentions than those in the negative condition. Similarly, Hypothesis 2_{alt} was partially supported in that the no violation condition evoked significantly greater mean responses on the situational satisfaction and supervisor approval variables than the neutral and negative violation conditions. Overall, it was found that positive violations of procedural justice evoked responses that were just as favorable as those following situations involving no violation, and that were more favorable than those evoked by negative or neutral violations.

Table of Contents

Acceptance Page	ii
Acknowledgements	iii
Abstract	iv
Table of Contents	vi
Chapter I: Introduction	1
Distributive Justice	2
Procedural Justice	4
Norm of Reciprocity	8
Positive Violations of Procedural Justice and Reciprocity	10
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	17
Justice Perceptions and Satisfaction	21
Summary	23
Hypotheses	24
Chapter II: Method	32
Participants	32
Design	32
Independent Variable	33
Manipulation Check	34
Dependent Variables	34
Analysis	36

Chapter III: Results	37
Scale Reliabilities	37
Manipulation Check	37
ANOVA Results	41
Justice Perceptions	41
Situational Satisfaction and Supervisor Approval	47
OCB Intentions	48
Perceived Stability and Intentionality	49
Chapter IV: Discussion	54
Perceived Justice	55
Situational Satisfaction, Supervisor Approval, & OCB Intentions	56
No Violation Condition	58
Neutral Violation Condition	59
Positive Violation Condition	62
Negative Violation Condition	65
Perceived Stability and Intentionality	66
Limitations	68
Future Directions	70
Conclusions	72

References	73
Appendices	79
Informed Consent Form	79
Justice Conditions (Vignettes)	80
Instruments	84

Chapter I

Positive Violations of Procedural Justice:

Effects on Organizational Citizenship Behavior Intentions

In recent years, the topic of justice has received attention in research literature pertaining to both the psychology and the business arenas. Perceived justice refers to one's subjective evaluation of the rightness of his or her fate or treatment by others (Ball, Trevino, & Sims, 1992). It should come as no surprise that many distinct areas of our society are connected to the idea of justice and its implications. The concept of fairness is basic to our society (Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., 1996). Early in life we memorize phrases such as "...with liberty and justice for all," and "We the people..., in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice..." We maintain the assumption that justice is simply a given constant of life, and in so doing we rarely take notice of the justice we enjoy. We take it for granted, and it seems that the only time we stop to think about it is when it is lacking. In fact, situations lacking in justice characterize almost all of the research conducted on the topic.

The implications of justice perceptions can be found in a wide variety of scenarios and can have serious effects. In organizational settings supervisors are interested in the performance of those under their charge. In such contexts employees' reactions to the organization's policies and procedures should be of special concern for several reasons: first, the effects their reactions have on organizational attractiveness can directly influence recruitment and retention efforts; second, employee reactions may be related to the likelihood of litigation should difficulties in the employer-employee relationship

arise; third, their reactions may directly influence the validity and utility of the policies and procedures in question; and finally, employees' perceptions of justice may affect their willingness to adopt organizational goals (Landy, Barnes, & Murphy, 1978; Smither, Reilly, Millsap, Pearlman, & Stoffey, 1993). Cognitive appraisals of the situations in which people find themselves mediate their private experience of emotions related to those situations (Tomaka & Blasovich, 1994). Since a person's reactions to his or her situation depend on the emotions related to it, subordinates' cognitive appraisals should be important to leaders who are attempting to influence their behavior positively. Situations that are cognitively appraised to be lacking in justice are likely to produce negative reactions. These negative reactions can have detrimental implications for the organization as a whole (Ball, Trevino, & Sims, 1994). In fact, injustice not only has damaging effects on those being victimized, but also on those who are in a position to observe its occurrence. Anger has been reported as the most common reaction by victims of injustice, and moral outrage as the most frequent reaction by observers (Schmitt, 1996). Research has shown that variables such as commitment, job satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors are all affected by justice perceptions (Ball, Trevino, & Sims, 1992). As the study of justice as a construct has become increasingly sophisticated, several distinct images of justice have emerged.

Distributive Justice

Equity theory and distributive justice. Early theories focused on what is now known as "distributive justice." Distributive justice refers to the perceived fairness of an outcome an individual receives in a given situation (Greenberg, 1990b). The notion of

distributive justice first gained acceptance as a component of equity theory (Adams, 1963). Equity theory explained that an individual's perceptions about the fairness of a situation were based on a comparison of his or her ratio of inputs and outcomes to the ratio of the inputs and outcomes of a referent other. As long as these ratios were similar, justice evaluations would be positive. When the individual perceived his or her ratio, relative to the other's ratio, to be too small or too large he or she would feel emotional distress and be motivated to establish an equitable ratio. In order to correct an inequitable situation, the individual could alter his or her inputs or outcomes as needed. This could be accomplished through behavioral or psychological responses (Greenberg & Baron, 1997). Equity theory's intuitive appeal was accompanied by many empirical studies supporting the importance of outcomes in justice perceptions. According to Adams and Freedman (1976), over 100 studies of equity theory were conducted in the decade immediately following its initial publication. The interest in equity theory led the way for numerous related topics to be conceptualized and empirically studied.

Limitations of equity theory. Equity theory's strong emphasis on outcomes eventually proved to be a target of criticism. Subsequent theorists began to raise questions about the processes by which outcomes were determined; that is, the effects of the decision making process that were independent from the effects of the actual outcomes (Cropanzano & Folger, 1989). The problem with equity theory was that while it strongly emphasized the allocation of outcomes, it ignored reactions to the steps that lead to those outcomes. In other words, while distributive justice theories focused solely on outcomes, theorists began to recognize the need to also increase their understanding of

the importance of the processes involved. This new perspective paved the way for theories focusing on *how* allocation decisions are made, instead of simply *what* decisions are made. Appropriately, this new perspective came to be known as “procedural justice” (Greenberg, 1986; Schmitt, 1996).

Procedural Justice

Definition and implications of procedural justice. According to Greenberg (1990a), procedural justice refers to the idea that procedures should remain consistent across different people at different times, be based on society’s shared ethical standards, and take into account the concerns of all parties involved. Greenberg (1990a) explained that procedures are likely to be seen as fair when: people feel assured that higher authorities are sensitive to their viewpoints; the decision is made without bias; the decision is applied consistently to all those involved; the decision is carefully justified on the basis of adequate information; those making the decision communicate their ideas honestly; and those influenced by the decision are treated in a courteous and civil manner. Cropanzano and Folger (1996) identified three similar aspects of procedures that contribute to justice perceptions. They are: first, the extent to which the decision maker demonstrates neutrality; second, the extent to which the decision maker’s intentions can be trusted; and finally, the extent to which the decision maker shows respect for the rights of all those affected by the decision.

It was originally proposed that procedural justice perceptions were only important when perceptions of distributive justice were negative. Ball, Trevino, and Sims (1992) explained that procedural justice is seen as being an especially important determinant of

overall justice evaluations when outcomes are negative. That is, as long as the outcome in a given situation is favorable the procedure that led to it is not expected to play a significant role in overall justice perceptions. However, when an outcome is unfavorable, the person receiving it will turn to the procedure to find out why he or she received the negative outcome. In such cases, if the procedure that determined the unfavorable outcome was unjust, the individual will be likely to retaliate and possibly attempt to rectify the situation (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). But if the procedure is perceived to be fair, the negative effects caused by the outcome will be buffered by the understanding that even though they did not receive the outcome that they *wanted*, at least they received the outcome that they *deserved*. So, the importance of procedural justice was seen as a function of distributive justice perceptions. Although there was empirical evidence to support this point of view, it was later challenged by theorists who postulated that procedural justice was important in its own right.

Studies began to appear showing that procedural justice can have a significant impact on an individual's reactions to a situation, independent of his or her reactions to distributive justice (Thibaut & Walker, 1975; Tyler, 1994). Cropanzano and Folger (1996) stressed that procedural justice alone was able to motivate people to engage in organizational citizenship behaviors, increase job satisfaction, increase organizational commitment, reduce absenteeism, lower turnover intentions, increase performance, and improve perceptions of the organization as a whole.

Negative violations of procedural justice. Researchers started to see procedural justice in a new light. It became apparent that the procedures involved in a situation were

important and needed to be studied in more detail. These studies were, with only minor exceptions, very similar to each other in terms of the methods they employed to assess the impacts of procedural justice on their participants. The typical format was either to manipulate procedural justice perceptions and compare the positive reactions of individuals exposed to situations with high procedural justice to the negative reactions of individuals exposed to situations low in procedural justice. An alternative approach was to measure the reactions of individuals in real-world settings who had been treated unfairly, then compare those reactions with the reactions of individuals who had not experienced injustice. In almost every case those in the low-procedural justice groups responded more negatively on the dependent variables measured (Aquino, 1995; Bies, Martin, & Brockner, 1993; Greenberg, 1993; Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ, 1993; Tansky, 1993). The key similarity among such studies is that in almost every case, the violation of procedural justice was such that it made it more difficult for the individual to receive the desired outcome. In almost no instance was the procedural justice violation one that *unfairly advantaged the individual, making it easier for him or her to receive the desired outcome than those in the control group*. Thus, as researchers paid more attention to the concept of procedural justice, they came to the proverbial fork in the road and in almost every case chose to follow the path leading to negative violations of procedural justice.

Positive violations of procedural justice. As stated above, research has primarily concentrated on instances involving negative reactions resulting from violations of procedural justice that disadvantaged the individuals affected by them (Niehoff &

Moorman, 1993). One exception to this trend is a study by Ployhart and Ryan (1998) in which subjects were placed in a testing situation and were told that they would only be allowed a limited amount of time to complete the exam. Procedural justice was manipulated by allowing a portion of the group to use *more* time than the rest, thereby giving them a distinct *advantage*. This type of manipulation was quite different from those of previously conducted studies because it introduced a situation in which the violation of procedural justice was not necessarily a negative occurrence. The authors termed such violations of procedural justice “positive rule violations” in order to distinguish them from the more common “negative” variety. The purpose of the present study is to further examine the effects of positive violations of procedural justice. It will venture down the path less traveled in an attempt to better comprehend the relationship of procedural justice to other organizational variables of interest.

Webster defines justice as being reasonable but not generous, “conforming to a standard of correctness,” and “being based on merit” (Merriam-Webster, 1983). By definition then, not conforming to the set rules of a procedure, even if it involves helping a person or giving him or her an advantage, is a violation of justice. Rubin and Peplau (1975) noted that situational variables undoubtedly play a role in people’s responses to injustice. The type of justice violation may be one such situational variable. That is, whether the violation helps or hurts the individual is likely to affect how he or she perceives and responds to the injustice. These “positive rule violations” are new to the justice literature, but are not uncommon in real life. Consider as an example a group of students competing against each other in a testing situation. As long as all of them are

administered the same test under the same circumstances, justice is maintained. However, if one of them is given a form of the test that is *significantly easier* than that given to the rest, procedural justice is violated. Still, despite the fact that justice has been violated, the advantaged student is not likely to respond as negatively as if the violation caused him or her to receive a form of the test that was *more difficult*. If he or she actually notices the assistance and recognizes it as an intentional act of service (a favor), that individual will be likely to reciprocate the action in some way, acknowledging the action and returning the favor. As another example, imagine an employee being evaluated by his or her superior as dictated by the company's standard procedure. According to company policy, employee ratings are provided solely by the supervisors. In the case of this particular employee, for no apparent reason, the supervisor allows the employee to provide his or her own ratings, giving the employee the opportunity to inflate them considerably. Justice was obviously violated. The employee is likely to be bothered by the lack of justice observed. But due to the nature of that violation, he or she may be more likely to respond favorably than to retaliate toward his or her supervisor or attempt to correct the situation. In fact, he or she may be likely to reciprocate the "favor" in some way. This tendency is known as the "norm of reciprocity" and has received extensive attention in social psychological research.

Norm of Reciprocity

Reciprocity and exchange. It has been said that the reciprocity norm is one of the most powerful and motivating influences in all of social psychology, and has been linked to reactions to organizational justice perceptions (Aral & Sunar, 1977; Eskew, 1993;

Gouldner, 1960; Pepitone & L'Armand, 1977). This social rule “obligates people to return the form of behavior that they have received from another” (Gouldner, 1960). According to Gouldner, a person is expected to “*help those who have helped him and not harm those who have helped him,*” and the benefits should be roughly equal in the long run. The reciprocity norm has been associated with many influences of social compliance used in organizations (Cialdini, 1995). Cialdini explained that the reciprocity norm is one of several general psychological principles that can be evoked to generate virtually automatic compliance. Research has shown that the reciprocity norm is especially salient in situations where procedural justice is in question and that individuals feel bound by the norm of reciprocity when given the resources, treatment, and opportunities that induce satisfaction (Aral & Sunar, 1977; Organ, 1988).

Reciprocity and direct interaction. Aral and Sunar (1977) reasoned that in situations involving “direct interaction or exchange, it seems logical that the governing norm should be the norm of reciprocity.” In their study Turkish and American students were presented with vignettes in which one individual did another a favor. Two versions of the scenarios were created, one describing a direct interaction between the two people, and the other describing a mediated interaction. In both the Turkish and the American groups, participants in the direct interaction condition reported the norm of reciprocity as the norm governing how the characters in the vignettes should respond to each other. It follows that on occasions when one is directly involved with the person with whom the interaction is taking place, the tendency to reciprocate a favor will be greater than if the other person was far-removed, invisible, or otherwise unidentifiable. This goes well with

Shaver's (1987) point that interactions are by nature mutual exchanges of rewards, and that an interaction is unlikely to continue if one party does all the giving and the other all the receiving. Where there is direct contact between the giver and the receiver of a favor, as in our examples of the student/teacher, and the subordinate/superior interactions, the receiver will be likely to feel compelled to "pay back" the favor with one of similar magnitude. The tendency to feel a need to reciprocate will be most likely to occur if the receiver recognizes the helping behavior, sees it as intentional, and perceives that the actor will continue to behave similarly in the future. These attributional variables will be discussed in more detail below. Thus we see that the norm of reciprocity is an influential force in determining how individuals will respond to direct-interaction situations where the level of procedural justice is an issue.

Positive Violations of Procedural Justice and Reciprocity

As noted above, research has repeatedly found that as procedural justice perceptions decrease, so do people's intentions to act favorably toward the agent of the procedure. However, it can be reasoned that the positive nature of this correlation is due to the fact that almost all of the research on procedural justice has dealt with manipulating justice perceptions by somehow placing the participants at a disadvantage. The reciprocity literature is consistent with this explanation. Having been disadvantaged by the experimenter (or some other aspect of the experiment), participants would reciprocate by *decreasing* their tendencies to help him or her in any way. On the other hand, if a situation occurred in which the rules of procedural justice were violated by an intentional favor being done for the participants by the experimenter, the reciprocity

norm would predict that they would *increase* their inclinations to help him or her in the future. This would be true if the influence of the reciprocity norm is great enough to override the negative effect of the individual's perceptions of low procedural justice. Research in the area of procedural justice has not attempted to address such situations.

As a whole, the procedural justice literature has reported that decreases in procedural justice perceptions result in decreases in the willingness of those affected to exhibit helping behavior toward the person seen as being responsible for the injustice. Among the reasons why procedural justice perceptions are so influential in determining people's reactions to social interactions, researchers have listed the inherent value placed on justice itself. Like honesty and other morally relevant traits, the basic definition of justice is likely to be "simple and stark, easily categorized as good or bad" (Pepitone & L'Armand, 1997). Two other explanations, offered by Lind and Tyler (1988, Tyler 1989), are known as the self-interest model and the group value model.

Self-interest model. The self-interest model states that people value procedural justice because it increases the likelihood that they will receive desired outcomes. People desire justice because it helps individuals exhibit control over their outcomes, because participation in fair interactions fosters the assurance that those rewards to which they are entitled will in fact be received (Tyler, 1994). In other words, people rely on the fairness of procedures because it helps them obtain what they want and presumably deserve. People place a high value on the sense of control and predictability offered by justice. This model has received empirical support in numerous studies and a wide range of settings (Tyler, 1994).

Group value model. The group value model states that people value long-term relationships and therefore value procedures that promote group solidarity. In this model it is not the control over outcomes that is central, but rather the assumption that all group members will benefit fairly from belonging to the group. According to the group value model, people are predisposed to belong to social groups and are attentive to signs and symbols that communicate information regarding their position in those groups (Tyler, 1994). Thus, this model is mostly concerned with issues dealing with personal identity and status within the groups to which people belong.

Consistent with the vast majority of the justice literature, these two explanations indicate a positive relationship between procedural justice perceptions and the nature of the individual's reactions. It should be noted that the self-interest model and the group value model are complementary theories, and that both contribute to our understanding of individuals' reactions to justice perceptions. In the same vein as the self-interest model (Lind & Tyler, 1988), Lerner (1982) claimed that the quest for justice is a pre-eminent concern for human beings. He went on to explain, however, that when found in situations in which they are likely to desire self-serving results (as in our examples above concerning the test score and the employee's evaluation ratings) the "norm of selfishness" may override the desire for justice. This implies that while people do value the inherent goodness of justice itself, they also can be expected to respond favorably to situations involving violations of justice that give them some sort of desired benefit or advantage. In such situations individuals will tend to be influenced to a lesser degree than normal by the fact that justice has not been upheld.

It is not the intent of the present study to dispute the current justice literature. Certainly individuals *are* bothered by violations of procedural justice. It is fully accepted that violations of procedural justice have negative effects. However, the reciprocity literature states that the *direction* of an individual's response (favorable or unfavorable) depends greatly on the *type* of procedural justice violation involved (positive or negative). Damaging violations should decrease helping behavior (which has been demonstrated repeatedly in the justice research). On the other hand, the helpful nature of positive violations should lessen the negative effects of those justice violations and increase helping behavior (as predicted by the reciprocity literature). In the case of negative procedural justice violations, the justice literature and the reciprocity literature are in agreement regarding the reactions they predict. However, when considering positive procedural justice violations, predictions based on the reciprocity literature stray from those found in the justice literature. While it may be true that people's reactions to injustice are influenced by their attachment to justice itself, it should also be expected that their reactions be influenced by the reciprocity norm. It is this observation that the author wishes to introduce to the body of literature pertaining to procedural justice. The question therefore becomes: In situations involving positive procedural justice violations where the reciprocity norm is salient, which of the two psychological mechanisms will carry more weight in the decision of how to respond, negative reactions to "befallen injustice" (Schmitt, 1996) or positive reactions to the reciprocity norm?

Stability and intentionality. As a partial answer to this question, Cropanzano and Folger (1996) argue that if the procedural unfairness is seen as both stable and

advantageous, the favored individual might ignore the injustice. It is important that the positive rule violation be perceived as stable, meaning that the advantageous situation will persist as long as the individual is affiliated with the organization, because an unstable violation may benefit the individual now but actually hurt him or her in the future. If the situation is perceived as unstable, the lack of procedural justice that helps the individual now may be the same lack of procedural justice that places him or her at the other end of things the next time the procedure is encountered. Thus, it is essential that the person perceives the situation as not only beneficial to him or her at the present time, but that it will continue to be so. Cropanzano and Folger noted that it is unfortunate that this prediction has not yet been empirically examined. Besides being perceived as both advantageous and stable, it is expected that the positive rule violation must also be seen as intentional for it to positively affect the reactions of the individual. This is due to the general tendency of people to overestimate their own contributions to success and minimize the situational factors that actually may have helped them succeed.

Attribution theory. According to attribution theory, people use information from the situation in question as well as from the individual being observed to form perceptions regarding the causes of that person's behaviors (Coon, 1998). This is true whether observing others or making inferences about the causes of one's own behaviors. Individuals tend to make attributions, either situational or personal, regarding their own successes or failures. They want to know why they succeeded or failed in order to be able to ensure future successes and avoid future failures. This helps people to fulfill their need to feel a sense of predictability and control in their lives. To the extent that people feel

responsible for their own successes, they will feel that if they put forth a similar effort in the future they will continue to succeed. However, if some one or something else is perceived as responsible for their success, the need to feel a sense of predictability and control cannot be met. Therefore, when motivated to claim personal responsibility for their success, individuals have a tendency to have a self-serving bias in forming attributions (Jones, 1976). That is, people will discount the help received from others in an attempt to see themselves as the sole cause of their achievements.

Gilbert (1995) explained that the process of interpreting the causes of an individual's behavior can be divided into two distinct stages. First, it is necessary to *identify* the behavior itself. This means that before one can form any kind of attributional explanation of the behavior, he or she must recognize that behavior and answer the question, "What is the actor doing?" Once the observer has identified the behavior and has assigned a descriptive label to it, he or she can then begin to answer the question, "Why is the actor doing it?" This has been called the "two-stage model of attribution," and directly relates to situations involving positive violations of procedural justice in that the individual will only feel the need to reciprocate a favor if he or she recognizes the helping behavior in the first place. If the positive rule violation is not identified as such, no increase in organizational citizenship behavior intentions is expected to follow. On the other hand, if the action that produced the rule violation is identified as an action intended to benefit the recipient, he or she is in a position to make inferences regarding the reasons behind the actor's behavior. As discussed above, if the positive rule violation is seen as intentional, the observer will be likely to feel the need to reciprocate. If the behavior is

seen as unintentional or random, it is likely that the individual will discount it, saying to himself or herself, “I *deserved* it,” or “It didn’t really help me, I *would have* gotten the same outcome anyway.”

Returning to the self-interest model discussed earlier, there may be a bridge connecting the apparently opposing predictions of justice theory and reciprocity theory. As stated above, the self-interest model explains that people value justice because it makes them more likely to get the outcome they desire. Given the scenario that an individual would not have received a desired outcome had the procedure been perfectly fair, but did receive the desired outcome because a positive violation of procedural justice occurred, it is reasonable to expect that he or she would have an overall positive reaction to the situation even though it was unfair. This again raises the question: Is receiving a desired outcome important enough to overcome the negative effects of seeing procedural justice being violated? Will people stop to compare what they received due to a positive rule violation with what they would have received had the procedure been fair? Referent cognitions theory (Cropanzano & Folger, 1989) answers this question.

Referent cognitions theory. According to referent cognitions theory (RCT) (Cropanzano & Folger, 1989), people evaluate their outcome situations by comparing what they obtained through the procedure that was used to the outcome they *would have* obtained if a different procedure had been used instead. RCT predicts that people’s resentment will be maximized when they perceive that they would have received a more desirable outcome if the decision maker *would have* used the procedure that *should* have been used, but didn’t. By extension of the same logic, positive reactions should result

when the individual perceives that the decision maker used a procedure that delivered a desired outcome that *would not* have been received if the correct (fair) procedure had been used instead. So in both the self-interest model and referent cognitions theory we find ways to reconcile the difference between predictions made by the procedural justice and the reciprocity research regarding positive rule violations. Still, it is interesting to note that very rarely have justice theorists used these models to analyze the probable reactions of individuals to positive rule violations. For some reason, they have consistently chosen to examine the negative side of the issue.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Definitions of organizational citizenship behavior. One specific type of behavior frequently identified in the justice literature as being related to perceptions of procedural justice is known as “Organizational Citizenship Behavior” (Organ, 1988). Organ originally defined organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) as

...individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization. By discretionary, we mean that the behavior is not an enforceable requirement of the role or the job description, that is, the clearly specifiable terms of the person’s employment contract with the organization; the behavior is rather a matter of personal choice, such that its omission is not generally understood as punishable. (p. 4)

He further identified five facets of OCB that contribute to its effectiveness. *Altruism* referred to the act of helping others on the job. *Courtesy* concerned checking with co-

workers about actions that could affect their responsibilities. *Sportsmanship* dealt with refraining from engaging in negative behaviors that could potentially damage the organization or its members. *Conscientiousness* referred to respecting the rules and policies of the organization beyond what is normally expected. Finally, *civic virtue* concerned the degree to which an employee interacts appropriately with the organizational government. Many of the empirical studies of OCB measure some or all of these subsets of OCB in relation to the various independent variables that are presumed to affect them (Eskew, 1993). Later, Organ (1997, p. 85) altered his original definition of OCB to avoid the “discomforting softness” introduced by the word “discretionary.” Noting that many employees may see OCBs as actually being in-role behaviors, Organ adopted the definition of contextual performance proposed by Borman and Motowidlo (1993). They defined these behaviors as behaviors that do not support the technical core itself as much as they support the broader organizational, social, and psychological environment in which the technical core must function. Like Organ they identified five categories of contextual performance, including volunteering for activities beyond a person’s formal job expectations, persistence of enthusiasm when needed to complete important task requirements, assistance to others, following rules and prescribed procedures even when it is inconvenient, and openly espousing and defending organizational objectives. Clearly there is a great deal of overlap between the categories identified by Organ (1988) and those cited by Borman and Motowidlo (1993). The benefits of OCB have been identified by many organizational theorists, and include promoting positive relationships between members of the organization, providing the

flexibility required for innovation, and guiding the efficient use of scarce resources (Aquino, 1995; Organ, 1988). Needless to say, OCBs are extremely helpful to an organization and may be the extra boost needed to be successful in today's competitive world.

Antecedents of organizational citizenship behavior. Of fundamental interest to OCB theorists is the search for the causes of employees' decisions to engage in OCB. Moorman and Blakely (1995) explained the probable connection between procedural justice perceptions, OCB, and the reciprocity norm by stating that OCB is a likely means of reciprocating fair procedures. Because fair procedures show the members of a group that those in charge are concerned for the welfare of those that make it up, group members may engage in OCB in order to return a show of caring and personal investment. Similar intentions may be perceived when decision makers violate procedural justice in order to benefit the individual in a given situation. Social exchange theory (Adams, 1965) is relevant to the current discussion in that it predicts that in certain conditions people will seek to reciprocate actions that benefit them. Niehoff and Moorman (1993) said that an employee would exhibit OCB because doing so would be consistent with the social exchange nature of the employment relationship, and not because a contract called for it. One reason that employees engage in OCBs is instrumental in nature, and assumes that they will exhibit OCBs because they feel that they will be given rewards in exchange for them (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1993). Eskew (1993) supported the notion that OCB may be one thing that employees do in situations where justice is salient. He stated that when interacting with the organization, how

members are treated determines how they will reciprocate in kind. A way in which they can reciprocate is through the use or nonuse of OCB. He went on to explain that when workers are treated positively (fairly), and trust that they will continue to be treated that way, they are more likely to perceive a social exchange relationship between themselves and the organization. This will increase their willingness to perform extra-role behaviors. However, if they are treated negatively they are likely to “shift their perceptions to a more economic exchange view” and only perform those behaviors for which they are paid. Moorman, Neihoff, and Organ (1993) argued that individuals are disposed to go “above and beyond their prescribed roles because they feel the need to reciprocate” positive treatment they have received from the organization with which they are associated. Folger (1993) added that the procedural and systematic properties of organizations alone make significant contributions to the occurrence of OCB.

Organizational citizenship behavior and procedural justice violations. Consistent with the rest of the research pertaining to procedural justice, studies examining the relationship between procedural justice and OCB uniformly create or observe low procedural justice conditions in which the justice violations disadvantage the participants in that particular group. Because of this, positive correlations have been systematically found between OCB and perceptions of procedural justice. The reason commonly cited for this is that justice perceptions are instrumental in establishing the levels of faith and trust needed for employees to provide the type of extra-role behaviors that will benefit the organization (Moorman, Neihoff, & Organ, 1993). According to the justice literature, as people’s perceptions of procedural justice decrease, so do their intentions to engage in

OCB. As explained above, however, in situations where an individual perceives procedural justice violations to be beneficial, intentional, and stable, the influence of the reciprocity norm may override the negative effects of violated justice. He or she will be likely to respond to such events in a reciprocal fashion, performing OCBs in order to return the favor to the decision maker. Again, this is consistent with the self-interest model (Lind & Tyler, 1988).

Justice Perceptions and Satisfaction

By closely examining the interplay between justice perceptions and OCB intentions, it becomes apparent that there may be more to the equation than judgments regarding the level of justice observed in the situation. Undoubtedly, those judgments do play a key role in determining how an individual will respond in such situations. However, it is likely that how an individual responds to the situation is affected by his or her overall feeling of satisfaction. This variable may be called situational satisfaction, and refers to the level of satisfaction experienced by the person regarding the way the events of the procedure affect the likelihood that he or she will receive the desired outcome. Recently, van den Bos, Lind, Vermunt, and Wilke (1997) addressed the issue of satisfaction and its relationship with justice perceptions. While the present study focuses on issues of procedural justice and situational satisfaction, their work dealt with distributive justice and outcome satisfaction. Nevertheless, parallels can clearly be drawn between their reasoning and the logic of the present study.

In their study, van den Bos et al. (1997) demonstrated that researchers should be careful not to treat justice perceptions and satisfaction as if they were the same thing.

They agreed with the existing body of equity literature that a person who is faced with equity will feel less distress than one who is faced with inequity, whether that inequity represents underpayment or overpayment. They went on to explain that in conditions of inequity, relative egoism will affect people's satisfaction judgments. That is, when individuals are bothered by disadvantageous inequity there are two sources of negative affect: the injustice and the relative deprivation of what the other individual received.

When individuals encounter advantageous inequity, on the other hand, there is one source of negative affect and one source of positive affect. The source of negative affect is once again the observed injustice. The source of positive affect is the egoism-based pleasure of having a relatively pleasing outcome. They continued by explaining that while each situation involves negative affect (the person is bothered by a justice violation), two sources of negative affect are bound to sum to less overall satisfaction than one source of negative affect and one source of positive affect. So, persons who are confronted with advantageous inequity should feel uncomfortable but still more satisfied than those confronted with disadvantageous inequity.

In terms of the present study, the van den Bos et al. (1997) results indicate that it would be inappropriate to treat justice perceptions and situational satisfaction as one and the same. It is logical that there may exist situations in which an individual perceives that procedural justice has been violated and still feel a great deal of satisfaction with the situation overall. This notion dovetails nicely with the self-interest model of justice (Tyler, 1994). Even though a person may be bothered by a violation of procedural justice, he or she may be pleased with the overall situation because the violation was one that

increased his or her chances of getting the desired outcome; in other words, a positive violation of procedural justice. Just as van den Bos et al. (1997) showed with distributive justice, people may not always come away from a procedural justice violation situation with completely negative feelings toward the agent of that violation. The “norm of selfishness” presented by Lerner (as cited in Greenberg, 1993) may be powerful enough to counteract a large portion of the negative reactions to injustice.

Summary

Before stating the hypotheses of the present study, it may be useful to summarize the main concepts that have been discussed and drawn together. Beginning with a brief history regarding the study of distributive justice and how its limitations led to the establishment of a body of literature focusing on procedural justice, the above discussion explained some of the implications of procedural justice perceptions in organizational contexts. It was noted that the vast majority of research studies in the area of procedural justice have violated procedural justice in negative ways (that disadvantage the participants). It was also noted that the literature is severely lacking in studies of positive violations of procedural justice, in which the participants are unfairly advantaged. The norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) was discussed and was identified as having a strong influence on the reactions of individuals in justice-related situations, whether positive or negative. Several models were introduced that are expected to explain how individuals interpret situations of positive or negative procedural justice violations, and the variables of stability and intentionality were proposed as being important determinants of those interpretations (see Figures 1 & 2). Attribution theory (Gilbert, 1995) and referent

cognitions theory (Cropanzano & Folger, 1989) were then discussed in relation to individuals' reactions to perceptions of positive or negative violations. Organizational citizenship behavior (Organ, 1988) was defined and presented as an important outcome variable related to procedural justice perceptions, and its benefits and antecedents were discussed. Research was cited that showed a positive relationship between procedural justice perceptions and organizational citizenship behavior intentions. Thus, as justice perceptions decrease, so should those intentions. However, it was also explained that research supports the notion that the reciprocity norm may increase one's tendency to engage in organizational citizenship behaviors when a favor has been received. These two opposing influences should have interesting effects on organizational citizenship behavior intentions. Finally, the distinction was made between justice perceptions and situational satisfaction. It was reasoned that under certain conditions situations involving violations of procedural justice may still be quite satisfying. It is expected that the present study will significantly add to the current body of justice literature by providing a more precise explanation of the link between procedural justice perceptions, satisfaction, and individuals' willingness to engage in organizational citizenship behavior.

Hypotheses

As previously stated, it is not the intent of the current study to dispute the findings of the justice literature that there is a positive correlation between individuals' perceptions of procedural justice and OCB intentions. When rule violations are disadvantageous, OCB intentions are negatively affected. On the contrary, the present study hopes to add to the strength of this widely-held assumption. However, this study

Figure 1

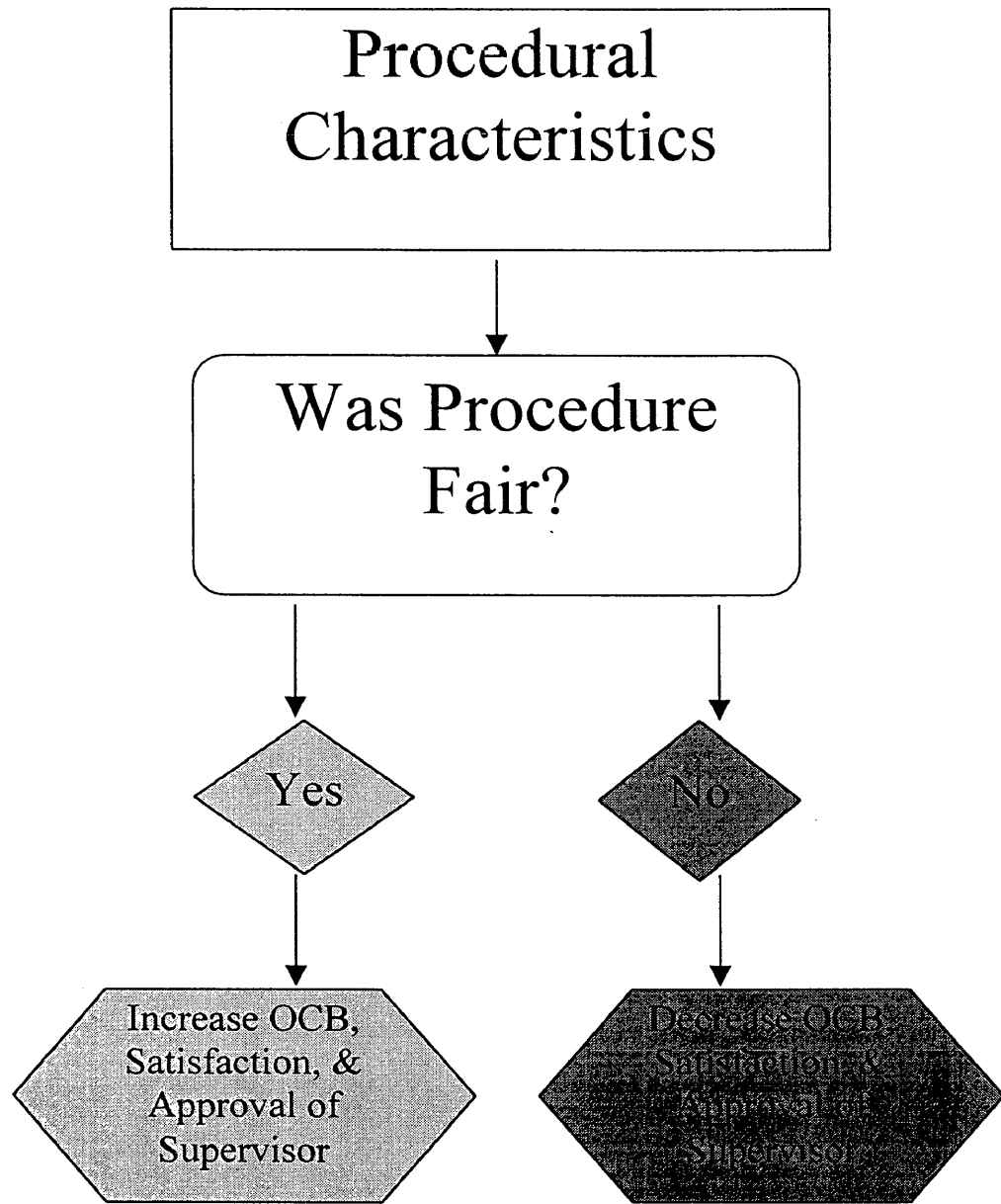
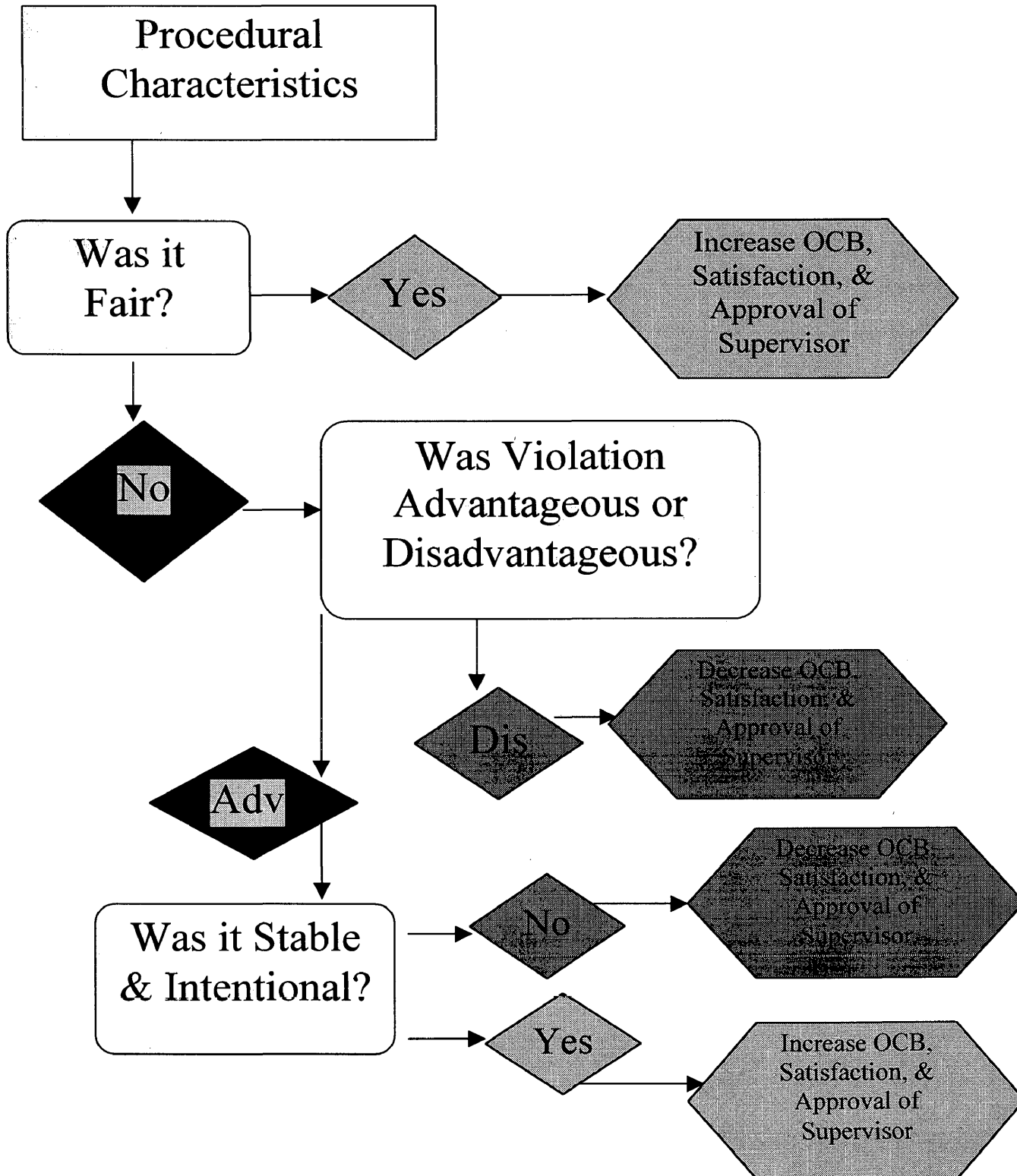


Figure 2



does intend to add to the literature by further explaining this relationship. By introducing a situation in which individuals are likely to feel both negative reactions to violations of procedural justice and favorable reactions to the helpful nature of positive violations (and therefore the need to reciprocate), it is expected that insight can be gained regarding the relationship between procedural justice and organizational citizenship behavior intentions. Greenberg (1993) made a plea for exactly such a study when he wrote,

Now that it has been established that links between justice and citizenship behavior actually exist in nature, the time has come to help examine some of the processes believed to be underlying these connections. Toward this end, the laboratory may be a useful venue for conducting this research. Beyond merely discovering people's perceptions of the justice/OCB connections that may exist (i.e., norms about responses to unfair treatment), ...I also think it would be valuable to manipulate fair and unfair treatment (insofar as this can be done in an ethical manner) to see how various forms of OCB might be affected. Without going into detail, I can envision a situation in which an employee is unfairly treated in one of several possible ways, and is subsequently given an opportunity to make a prosocial action toward the unfair agent. Investigations of this type would enable us to more clearly determine the direct causal nature between justice and OCB. (p. 254)

In order to examine the effects of different levels of procedural justice on individuals' situational satisfaction and OCB intentions, it is necessary to study a variety of situations in which various levels of procedural justice can be observed. The most

obvious situation would be one in which there is no violation of procedural justice. This would be the simplest setting. A more interesting situation would be one in which procedural justice is violated, but in a way that does not affect the individual's overall satisfaction with the situation. For example, a test administrator might break the rules of the testing situation in a way that neither helps nor hurts the person being tested. A third setting would be one involving a positive violation of procedural justice. As described above this would involve, to continue with the earlier example, the test administrator violating the rules of the testing situation in a way that helps the individual. Finally, it is necessary to include a situation in which a negative violation of procedural justice occurs. This type of situation, in which the violation hurts the individual in some way, is found in almost all of the existing justice literature. Regarding the selection of dependent variables to measure the effects of the different situations just described, the most obvious is the perceived level of procedural justice. This variable is considered in the first hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1: Participants' perceptions of fairness will be greater in the no violation condition than in the neutral violation, positive violation, and negative violation conditions.

In order to expose participants to the various situations needed to test the hypotheses of the present study, four vignettes will be presented, one representing each of the justice situations described above. The context will involve an employee-supervisor interaction in which the employee is given a written test to determine whether he or she receives a desired promotion. Having exposed participants to one of these four justice conditions, it will be possible to measure and compare not only their perceptions of

procedural justice but also their responses to a number of dependent variables related to those situations.

When considering the numerous variables that are affected by procedural justice, several tend to cluster together. Individuals' sense of satisfaction with the situation, approval ratings of the person seen as responsible for the justice or injustice of the procedure, and individuals' intentions to engage in OCB are variables that can be expected to show similar patterns of responses. For that reason, these three variables are included in the second hypothesis of the present study. Participants' responses regarding each of these three variables are expected to correlate significantly with each other.

Based upon the above reasoning, the author proposes the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 2: Consistent with the self-interest model (Tyler, 1994), participants' ratings of overall satisfaction with the testing situation, approval of the supervisor, and intentions to engage in OCB will be highest in the positive violation condition, next highest in the no violation and neutral violation conditions, and lowest in the negative violation conditions.

Hypothesis 2_{alt}: If Hypothesis 2 is not supported, it is predicted that the pattern of results will be consistent with the group value model (Tyler, 1994). That is, participants' ratings of overall satisfaction with the testing situation, approval of the supervisor, and intentions to engage in OCB will be higher in the no violation condition than in the neutral violation, positive violation, and negative violation conditions.

The prediction of Hypothesis 2_{alt} is based on the reasoning that participants who are faced with injustice will be bothered or even offended by the actor's disregard for justice in general. Even in situations involving positive violations, participants may feel offended that the actor's offer of help implies that the participant needs assistance in order to be successful.

Said differently, the hypotheses of the present study predict that not only will procedural justice perceptions affect participants' satisfaction ratings, supervisor approval ratings, and OCB intentions, but the nature of their responses will also be a function of the *type* of rule violation encountered. Again, this study does *not* intend to imply that individuals will fail to notice violations of procedural justice, nor does it purport that those violations will not bother them. What it *does* propose is that the positive effects of the reciprocity norm and situational satisfaction will be enough to offset a significant portion of the negative reactions to injustice and will enhance OCB intentions and supervisor approval.

It should be noted that while the above discussion predicts that OCB intentions will increase when violations of procedural justice are advantageous, stable, and intentional, no attempt is made to analyze the effects of the stability and intentionality perceptions separately. Examinations such as these are beyond the scope of the present study and are considered to be important questions for future research efforts.

As explained above, the self-interest model and the group value model provide different accounts of why individuals value procedural justice (Lind & Tyler, 1988). Still, these models are not mutually exclusive. It is logical that people who are hurt by negative

violations will lower their approval of the individual seen as responsible for that violation. What is interesting is the question regarding positive violations. Will positive violations cause an increase in the person's ratings of the person seen as responsible, or will those feelings decrease? If they increase, support is found for the self-interest model. On the other hand, if his or her feelings of approval decrease, support is found for the group value model. Such a finding would indicate that the person affected by the violation is bothered by the message being sent regarding his or her position or status in the group and is bothered by the violation, even if he or she has benefited from it. This question is found at the core of the study of organizational justice and must be considered in order to accurately interpret individuals' reactions to situations that involve unjust procedures.

Chapter II

Method

Participants

Undergraduate students at a mid-sized, public, Midwestern university were solicited to volunteer to participate in the study. To test the hypotheses of the present study, data were collected from 144 participants. While anonymity was maintained, demographic information was collected regarding participant gender and age. Of the 144 participants, 56 were men (38.9%). The average age was 21.33 years, ranging from 18 to 46 years. Participants were evenly distributed across the four treatment conditions ($n = 36$). All those who participated were currently enrolled in a freshman-level psychology class. Each participant was compensated with extra-credit points that counted toward his or her semester grade in that course. Although participation in the study counted toward partial fulfillment of a course requirement, an alternative activity was provided for those students who did not wish to participate, and no penalty was assessed to those who did not wish to participate (see Appendix A).

Design

Participants met in a classroom setting and were given a packet of papers, including instructions, one of four vignettes, and several rating scales. Participants met in groups of approximately 15 to 25 individuals. Participants were told that there was no time limit and that their responses to the vignettes and subsequent questions would remain anonymous. Each of the packets was identical to the others, with the exception of

the enclosed vignette. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the four conditions using a random numbers table (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991).

Independent Variable

The independent variable in the present study was the justice violation condition designated for each individual participant. There were four possible conditions to which a participant could have been assigned, each involving a vignette describing a face-to-face interaction between an employee and his or her superior. Participants were asked to imagine how they would feel if the events in the vignettes were happening to them. This was done to increase the similarity between participants' responses and what they would have been if actual situations were used. The *control* condition consisted of a vignette that involved no violation of procedural justice (see Appendix B). The interaction in this condition was presented in such a way that no aspect of procedural justice was violated and that did not give the employee an advantage or put him or her at a disadvantage. The *neutral violation* condition involved a similar interaction, with the exception that there was a violation of procedural justice (see Appendix C). In this condition the violation did not give the employee any advantage or place the employee at a disadvantage. The *positive violation* condition was identical to the other two, with the exception that it involved a violation of procedural justice that gave the employee a significant advantage (i.e., a favor), making it easier for him or her to receive the desired outcome (see Appendix D). The final vignette presented a *negative violation* condition, in which procedural justice was violated in a way that placed the employee at a serious disadvantage, thereby making it less likely that he or she would receive the desired

outcome (see Appendix E). While these four conditions may not exhaust all possible scenarios, they were expected to represent those necessary to test the hypotheses of the present study.

Manipulation Check

One item was presented (see Appendix F, item 15) to investigate whether the participants perceived the supervisor's behavior as stable. Similarly, one item (see Appendix F, item 16) was presented to question whether the supervisor's actions were perceived as intentional. These two items were presented using a five-point scale.

Six items were constructed to verify that the participants noticed the key characteristics in the vignettes presented to them (see Appendix F). Two items (items 9 & 10) were presented to the participants to verify that the participants noticed whether or not they received the appropriate amount of time to take the test. Two items (items 11 & 12) were presented to verify that the participants perceived whether or not the supervisor in the vignette followed the prescribed rules of the procedure, and two items were presented (items 13 & 14) to investigate whether or not the participants felt advantaged, disadvantaged, or unaffected by the supervisor's behavior.

Dependent Variables

Justice perceptions. In the present study, the first dependent variable was the extent to which participants perceived the procedures described in the vignettes to be just. This variable was operationalized by three items (see Appendix G, items 7, 8, & 9).

Situational Satisfaction. The next dependent variable was the level of satisfaction with the testing situation experienced by the participants, having placed themselves

mentally in the role of the employee in the vignettes. This variable was operationalized by three items (see Appendix G, items 1, 2, & 3).

Supervisor approval. The third dependent variable was the level of approval felt by the participants toward the supervisor described in the vignettes. Participants' approval of the supervisor was operationalized by three items (see Appendix G, items 4, 5, & 6).

OCB intentions. The final dependent variable reflected participants' intentions to engage in OCB. The OCB intentions variable was operationalized by each participant's score on the OCB Intentions Scale (see Appendix F). This scale consisted of seven items and was developed to assess the likelihood that participants in each group would engage in OCB after being exposed to one of the four vignettes. The development of the OCB Intentions Scale followed the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale created by Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994). The OCBS was developed to measure three dimensions of OCB: helping behavior, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. This instrument has been shown to demonstrate acceptable internal consistency reliability, with Cronbach's alphas of .89, .82, and .84 being reported for the helping behavior, sportsmanship, and civic virtue sub-scales, respectively. In order to ensure that the items in the OCB Intentions Scale were presented in a way that was consistent with the four vignettes, the OCBS items were slightly modified. The construction of the OCB Intentions Scale was also carried out while keeping in mind the five areas of OCB identified by Organ (1988). Each of these five areas (altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and civic virtue) was represented by at least one item. Items were

presented using a five-point scale format (1 “strongly disagree,” 5 = “strongly agree”). These variables were measured without the participants having any knowledge of the supposed test outcome. Efforts were specifically made to avoid mentioning the outcomes of the vignettes in order to isolate the effects of their perceptions of procedural justice and thereby avoid the confounding effects of distributive justice perceptions.

Analysis

To analyze the relationship between the independent variable (justice condition) and justice perceptions, OCB intentions, situational satisfaction, and approval of the supervisor, a one-way ANOVA was performed for each dependent variable (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991). This procedure was used to determine whether a significant difference existed between any of the four treatment groups with regards to any of the dependent variables. Where significant differences were detected, multiple comparisons followed to test specific contrasts and identify those groups whose means were significantly different from one another.

Chapter III

Results

Scale Reliabilities

Statistical analyses were performed to calculate the internal consistency reliability (Cronbach's alpha), mean, and standard deviation for each of the four measurement scales. Correlations between the four dependent variables were also calculated. The reliability of each of the four scales was found to be greater than .85 (see Table 1), showing that the scales used in the present study had adequate internal consistency.

Manipulation Check

Six manipulation check items were included to verify that the experimental manipulation had the intended effect. Two items referred to the amount of time allowed for the test, two dealt with the observance of the procedural rules, and two were aimed at participants' perceptions of being advantaged or disadvantaged. Responses to these items are summarized in Table 2.

Of the 144 participants, 141 (98%) answered the first item correctly and 129 (90%) answered the second item correctly. Some participants apparently answered item 2 in terms of the formal procedure rather than their own experience with it. A total of 138 (96%) and 120 (83%) participants responded correctly to the third and fourth items, respectively. Finally, 113 (78%) and 122 (85%) individuals responded correctly to the fifth and sixth items. Some participants in the neutral violation condition apparently responded to the supervisor's action rather than its (neutral) effect. The average number of correct responses to the six manipulation check items was 5.30. These results largely

Table 1

Dependent Variable Reliabilities, Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

	α	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	1	2	3	4
1. Perceived Justice	.92	2.24	1.25	--			
2. Sit. Satisfaction	.90	2.51	1.25	.69	--		
3. Sup. Approval	.93	2.46	1.11	.64	.85	--	
4. OCB Intentions	.86	3.49	.68	.20	.32	.34	--

Note. All correlations are significant, $p < .05$. All variables were measured on a five-point scale.

Table 2

Manipulation Check Item Frequencies

	No Viol.	Neut. Viol.	Pos. Viol.	Neg. Viol.
1. The supervisor gave me _____ than he was supposed to for the test.				
a) the exact amount of time	34	0	0	0
b) more time	0	0	36	1
c) less time	2	36	0	35
2. I had _____ 60 minutes to take the test.				
a) exactly	35	6	3	4
b) more than	0	0	33	1
c) less than	1	30	0	31
3. The supervisor _____ the rules about how the test was supposed to be given.				
a) followed	33	2	1	0
b) did not follow	3	34	35	36
4. The supervisor _____ the company's policy about how the test was supposed to be given.				
a) observed	33	6	8	7
b) did not observe	3	30	28	29

No Viol. Neut. Viol. Pos. Viol. Neg. Viol.

5. I was _____ by how I was given the test.

a) given an advantage	4	0	35	2
b) given a disadvantage	3	20	1	33
c) not affected	29	16	0	1

6. My chances of passing the test were _____ by the supervisor's actions.

a) increased	3	0	35	1
b) decreased	4	12	0	34
c) not affected	29	24	1	1

confirm that participants were aware of the manipulation in the vignette to which they were assigned.

ANOVA

To compare the effects of the various treatment conditions on each of the dependent variables, a one-way ANOVA was employed. In each case, significant differences between groups were detected. The mean responses for each of the four treatment conditions on each dependent variable are reported below in Table 3 and Figures 3 through 6.

Following a one-way ANOVA for each dependent variable, a multiple comparisons analysis was performed using Tukey's HSD test to identify which groups were significantly different from each other with respect to each dependent variable. The results of these analyses are indicated by subscripts in Table 3, and are discussed below.

Justice Perceptions

Hypothesis 1 predicted that of the four treatment groups, the no violation condition would evoke the highest perceived justice responses. Participants' responses to the justice perceptions scale were analyzed to investigate the findings regarding this hypothesis. An ANOVA identified that there was indeed a significant difference between groups $F(3,140) = 109.55, p < .001$. To further investigate the relationships between the four treatment groups, a multiple comparisons analysis was performed using Tukey's HSD test. The no violation condition evoked significantly higher responses than any other group, as indicated by subscripts in Table 3. Those in the positive violation condition reported higher justice perceptions than those in the neutral and negative conditions. The

Table 3

Mean Responses and Standard Deviations Across Treatment Groups

	Justice Condition			
	No Viol.	Neut. Viol.	Pos. Viol	Neg. Viol.
Perceived Justice				
<u>M</u>	3.96 _a	1.60 _b	2.14 _c	1.27 _b
<u>SD</u>	.79	.73	.72	.46
Sit. Satisfaction				
<u>M</u>	3.47 _a	1.69 _b	3.55 _a	1.33 _b
<u>SD</u>	.79	.69	.96	.43
Sup. Approval				
<u>M</u>	3.13 _a	1.74 _b	3.51 _a	1.49 _b
<u>SD</u>	.60	.73	.88	.54
OCB Intentions				
<u>M</u>	3.56 _{a,b}	3.38 _{a,b}	3.78 _a	3.24 _b
<u>SD</u>	.62	.65	.55	.79

Note. All responses given on a five-point scale. For each dependent variable, means not sharing a common subscript are significantly different ($p < .01$).

Figure 3

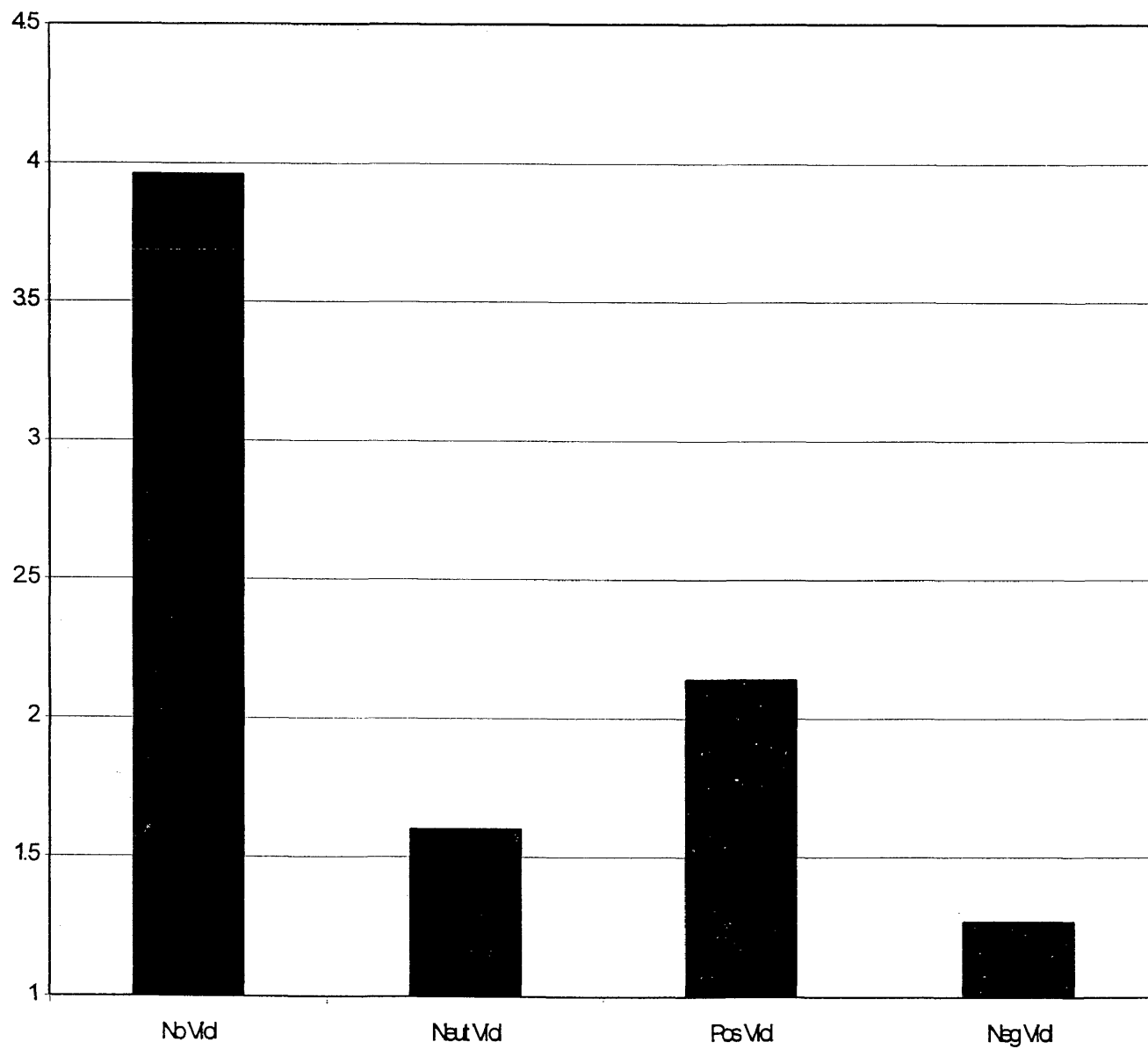
Mean Perceived Justice Responses

Figure 4

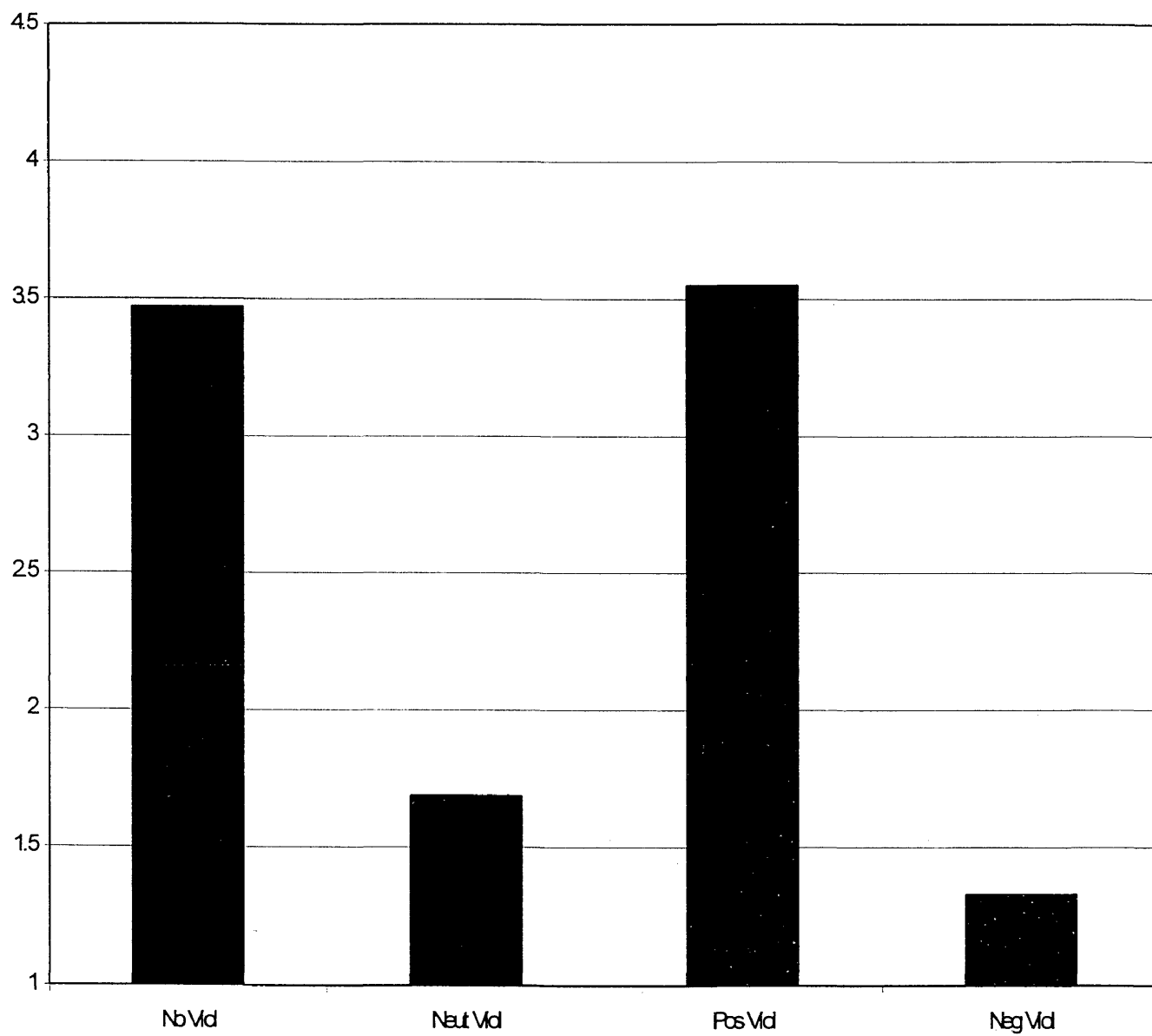
Mean Situational Satisfaction Responses

Figure 5

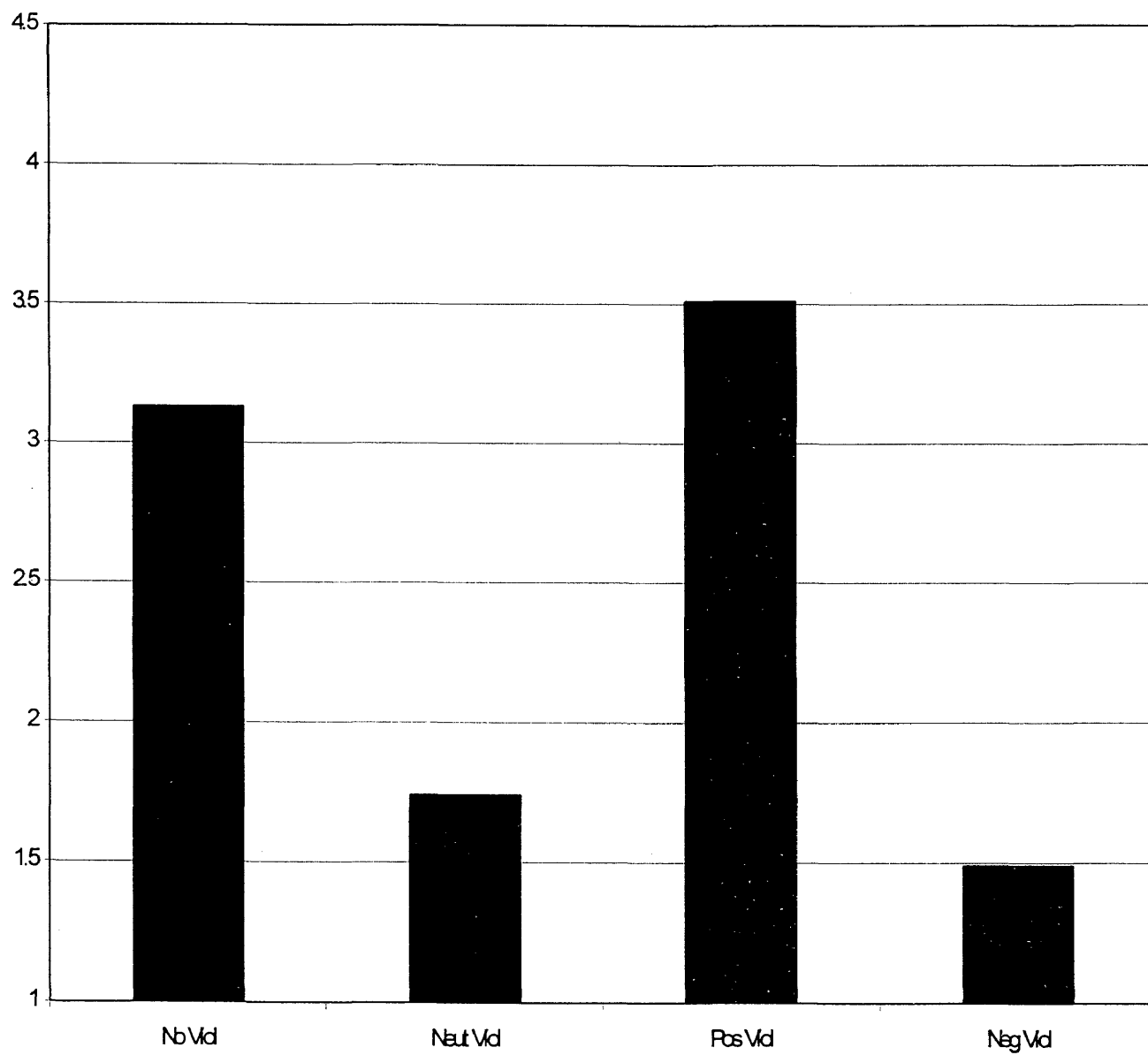
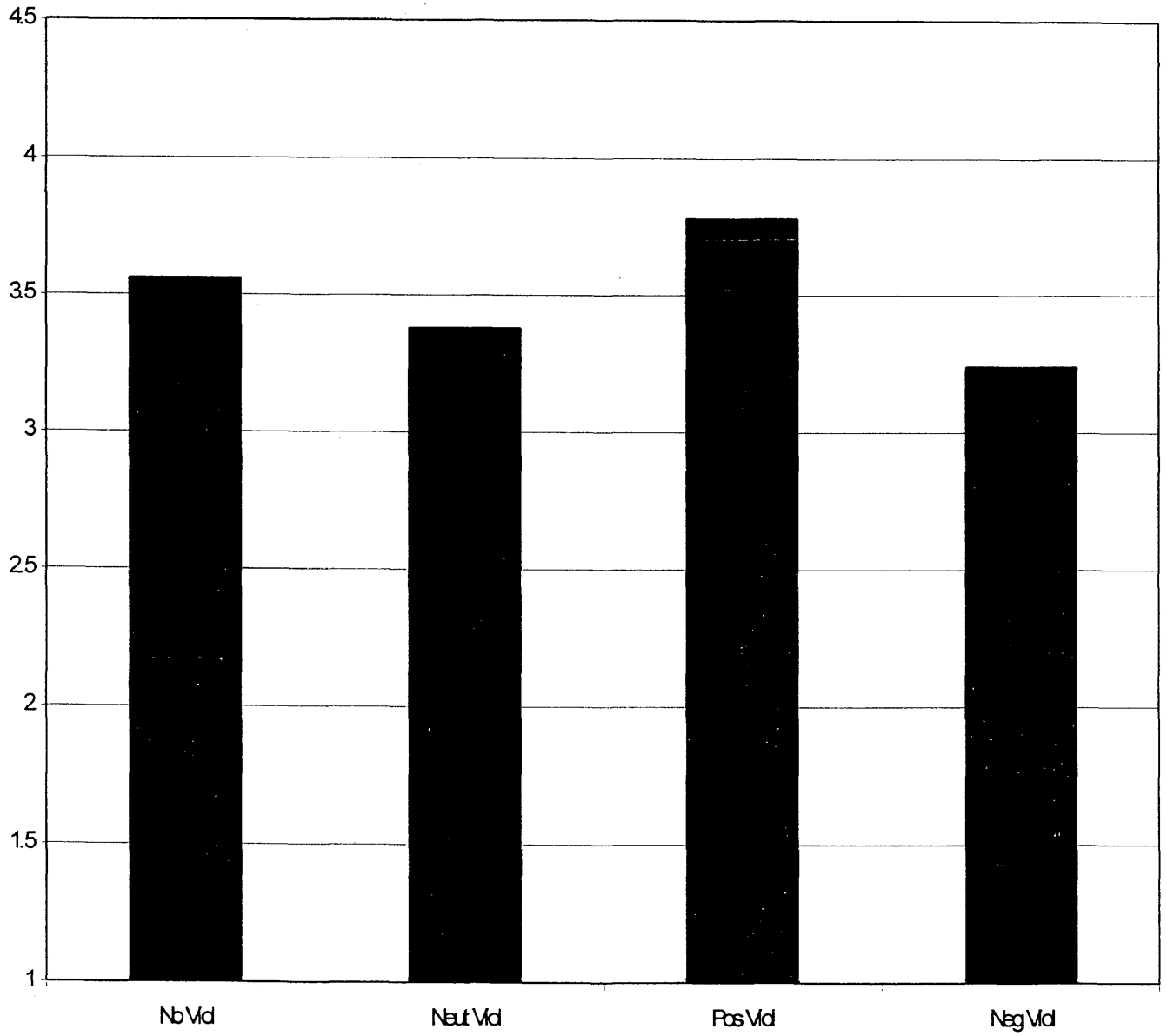
Mean Supervisor Approval Responses

Figure 6

Mean OCB Intention Responses



neutral and negative violation conditions were not significantly different from each other.

Hypothesis 1 was fully supported, in that the highest levels of perceived procedural justice were reported in the no violation condition. These findings provide further evidence that participants were aware of the four distinct justice manipulations. It is noteworthy that those in the positive violation condition reported less perceived justice than those in the no violation condition but *more than* those in the other two conditions. This finding will be discussed in a later section.

Situational Satisfaction and Supervisor Approval

Hypothesis 2 predicted that, according to the self-interest model (Tyler, 1994), participants' ratings of satisfaction with the testing situation and approval of the supervisor would be highest in the positive violation condition, next highest in the no violation and neutral violation conditions, and lowest in the negative violation conditions. Hypothesis 2_{alt} predicted that if this hypothesis was not supported, the pattern of results would be consistent with the group value model (Tyler, 1994). That is, participants' ratings of situational satisfaction and approval of the supervisor would be higher in the no violation condition than in the neutral violation, positive violation, and negative violation conditions.

The patterns found for the situational satisfaction and supervisor approval variables were very similar. An ANOVA identified significant differences among treatment groups: for situational satisfaction, $F(3,140) = 87.00$, $p < .001$, and for supervisor approval, $F(3,140) = 73.01$, $p < .001$. A multiple comparisons analysis using Tukey's HSD test found that the no violation condition was significantly greater than the

neutral and negative conditions for both dependent variables (see Figures 4 and 5). These differences are denoted by subscripts in Table 3. Also, the positive violation condition evoked greater responses than the neutral and negative conditions. As predicted by Hypothesis 2, participants in the positive violation condition reported the highest levels of situational satisfaction and supervisor approval. However, no significant difference was found between the no violation and positive violation conditions. Similarly, the neutral and negative violation conditions were not significantly different from each other. Thus, partial support was found for Hypothesis 2 regarding the situational satisfaction and supervisor approval variables in that those participants in the positive violation condition reported higher levels of satisfaction and approval than those in the neutral and negative violation conditions. Although Hypothesis 2 predicted that the positive violation group would report greater levels of satisfaction than the no violation group, this was not the case.

OCB Intentions

Finally, participants' responses to the OCB Intentions scale were considered (see Figure 6). Hypothesis 2 predicted that, according to the self-interest model (Tyler, 1994), participants' OCB intentions would be highest in the positive violation condition, next highest in the no violation and neutral violation conditions, and lowest in the negative violation condition. Hypothesis 2_{alt} stated that if Hypothesis 2 was not supported, the pattern of results would be consistent with the group value model (Tyler, 1994). That is, participants' OCB intentions would be higher in the no violation condition than in the neutral violation, positive violation, and negative violation conditions.

An ANOVA found that significant differences existed between treatment groups, $F(3,140) = 4.53, p < .01$. To follow up, a multiple comparisons analysis was performed. As predicted, participants in the positive violation condition reported the strongest intentions to engage in OCB. These responses were significantly greater than those in the negative condition. Contrary to the prediction, this was the only significant difference to be found across the four treatment conditions. This finding, indicated by subscripts in Table 3, provides only partial support for Hypothesis 2. This response pattern is quite interesting, and possible explanations will be discussed in a later section.

In sum, these results completely support Hypothesis 1, and partially support Hypothesis 2 regarding the self-interest model (Tyler, 1994).

Perceived Stability and Intentionality

A supplementary analysis was performed to investigate the relationships between the perceived stability ($M = 3.23, SD = .76$) and intentionality ($M = 3.88, SD = .98$) of the supervisor's behavior and the four main dependent variables in the present study. As noted in the methods section, one item was presented to assess participants' perceptions of each of these two variables. This analysis was done on the correlational level, the results of which can be seen in Table 4.

Participants' perceptions of the stability of the treatment by the supervisor were significantly correlated with situational satisfaction, supervisor approval and OCB intentions. In other words, as perceptions of stability increased, so did participants' responses regarding situational satisfaction, supervisor approval, and OCB intentions. Perceived intentionality was only significantly correlated with perceived justice. While

Table 4

Supplementary Correlational Analysis

	Stability	Intentionality
1. Stability	--	
2. Intentionality	-.001	--
3. Justice	.130	-.238**
4. Situational Satisfaction	.174*	-.116
5. Supervisor Approval	.223**	-.038
6. OCB Intentions	.295**	.080

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

these relationships were not specifically included in the hypotheses, they were expected based on the review of the current literature. The stability and intentionality measures were not significantly correlated.

In addition to the correlational analysis, an ANOVA was performed to test for significant differences between groups on the stability and intentionality variables (see Figures 7 and 8). No significant difference was found for perceived stability, $F(3,140) = 1.85, ns$. A significant difference was found, however, for the perceived intentionality variable, $F(3,140) = 3.97, p < .01$. A multiple comparisons analysis followed using Tukey's LSD test to identify where the significant differences occurred. This analysis showed that those in the no violation group ($M = 3.44$) perceived the supervisor's actions to be significantly less intentional than those in the positive ($M = 4.14, p < .01$) and negative ($M = 4.08, p < .05$) conditions. From this, it appears that when the supervisor's actions were impactful, that is when they affected the probability of obtaining the desired outcome (for better or worse), they were seen as more intentional than when there was no violation at all. No difference was detected between the neutral violation condition ($M = 3.86$) and any of the other conditions.

Figure 7

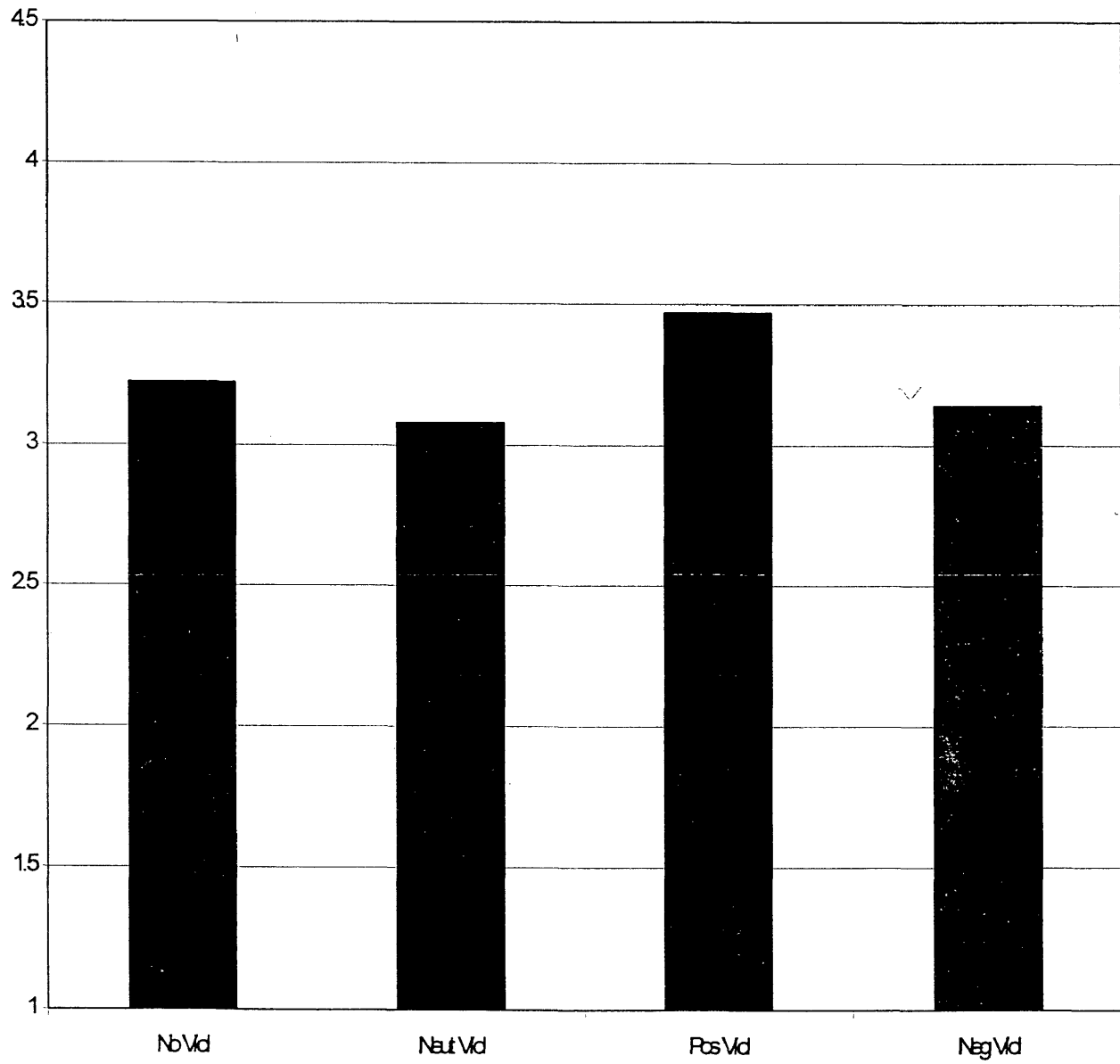
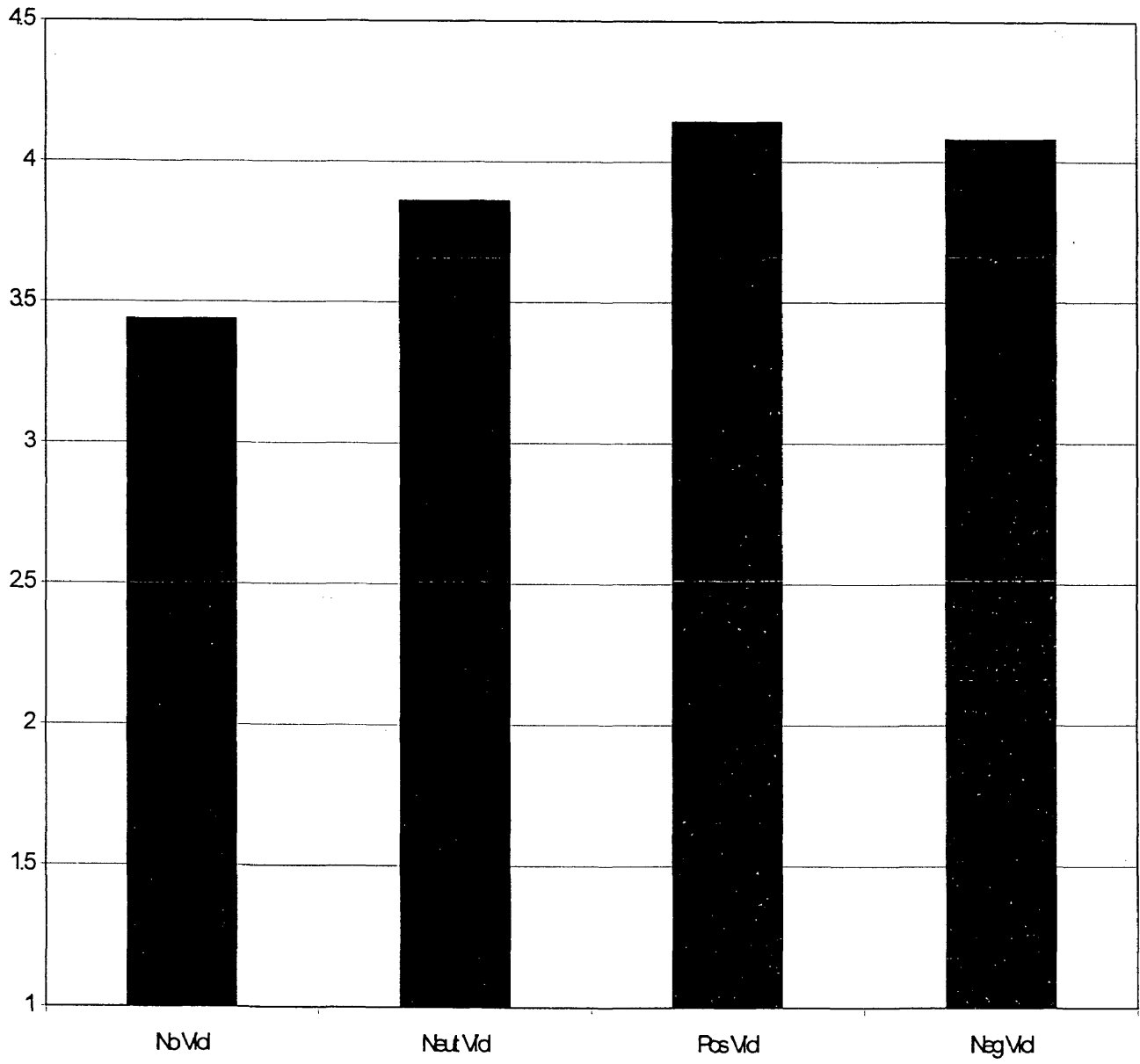
Mean Perceived Stability Responses

Figure 8

Mean Perceived Intentionality Responses



Chapter IV

Discussion

The purpose of the present study was to gain a deeper understanding of the effects of procedural justice violations. Specifically, it was proposed that there exist different types of procedural justice violations, and that each type has different effects on those who experience them. It was explained that almost all of the existing literature on procedural justice has dealt with negative violations, that is, violations that place the individual at a disadvantage. These studies have consistently found a positive relationship between perceptions of procedural justice and organizational variables such as situational satisfaction, approval of the person responsible for the violation, and intentions to engage in OCB. The present study intended to add to the current body of literature by demonstrating that not all types of procedural justice violations negatively impact dependent variables such as these, and may even increase participants' responses on them. Also, it intended to investigate the relationship between the perceived stability and intentionality of violations and these dependent variables. The findings were generally in line with these expectations.

Regarding the adequacy of the experimental test used in this study, there is reason to believe that the results presented here are accurate and are founded on sound psychometric principles. Based on informal questioning of participants following the treatment administration, the experimental manipulations appeared to be clear and well understood. This point was emphasized by the large proportion of participants who satisfied the manipulation check. The sample size used in this study was large enough to

detect differences between treatment groups and adequately represented a wide range of ages as well as both genders. The sample sizes were equal across treatment groups. This point is important, because equal sample sizes are required in cases where the homogeneity of variance assumption is violated in order to avoid inflated alpha levels. Since this assumption was violated in the present study, it is of special interest that the sample sizes across the four groups were indeed equal.

What follows is a twofold discussion of the results. First, the findings will be interpreted in terms of the separate hypotheses. Once this has been done, the pattern of results across dependent variables will be discussed to enable the reader to compare and contrast the participants' responses to the various justice manipulations.

Perceived Justice

Recall that Hypothesis 1 predicted that those in the no violation condition would report the highest levels of perceived justice. This was indeed the case. As expected, participants' responses showed that when a rule was broken it was definitely noticed. What was not expected, however, was that a positive violation was seen as more fair than a neutral or negative one. Apparently, participants were able to partially look past the injustice as long as it was beneficial to them. The fact that the neutral and negative violation conditions were not significantly different from each other emphasizes this point. That is, if a rule is broken in a way that helps the individual it is easier to accept than one that doesn't help. If it doesn't benefit the person, it doesn't matter if it is neutral or negative in nature. Each is equally unacceptable. Having considered the perceived

justice variable, let us now turn to the remaining three dependent variables, those discussed in Hypothesis 2 and Hypothesis 2_{alt}.

Situational Satisfaction, Supervisor Approval, and OCB Intentions

Hypothesis 2 predicted that participants' reported levels of satisfaction with the overall situation, approval of the supervisor, and intentions to engage in OCB would be greatest in the positive violation condition and lowest in the negative violation condition. Here, the response patterns for the satisfaction and approval variables were almost identical. There seemed to be two groupings of responses. Those in the no violation and positive violation condition reported similar amounts of satisfaction and approval, as did those in the neutral and negative conditions. The fact that the responses in the positive condition were greater than those in the neutral and negative conditions supports Hypothesis 2, which was based on the self-interest model (Tyler, 1994). However, responses in the no violation condition were also greater than those in the neutral and negative violation conditions, supporting Hypothesis 2_{alt}, in accordance with the group value model (Tyler, 1994). This is not a source of concern. As explained earlier, these two models are complementary, not contradictory.

It appears that when individuals experienced a rule violation in their favor it was as if there had been no violation at all. As indicated by the perceived justice responses, they noticed the infraction. They did not, however, allow it to detract from their feelings of satisfaction and approval. It was almost as if in the positive condition they were thinking, "Sure, you might have broken the rules, but that's alright with me." On the other hand, if the violation was neutral, they seemed to say, "Hey, you broke the rules. It

doesn't matter if it hurt me or not. You broke them and that's wrong." It was just as if the violation was negative. Comparing the neutral violation with the negative one, the only real difference was in the actual impact of the violation on the probable outcome. In both situations, the supervisor took ten minutes off of the time allowed to finish the test.

However, this only affected the likely outcome of the negative condition. The outcome in the neutral condition was unaffected. It appears, then, that participants in the neutral condition concentrated more on the intent of the supervisor than on the true impact of his actions. This focus on the supervisor's intentions will be discussed below in more detail.

Turning to the OCB intentions variable, a different pattern of results was found. Those in the positive group reported the highest levels of OCB intentions. In both the no violation and neutral violation conditions OCB responses were moderate. Finally, those in the negative condition reported very low OCB intentions. While their responses were not significantly greater than those in the no violation and neutral violation conditions, they were significantly different from those in the negative condition. In the positive condition it seemed that when the supervisor's action resulted in a benefit for the individual, even though it was against the rules, the reciprocity norm may have influenced participants to be willing to pay him back through OCB. Likewise, when his actions in the negative condition gave participants a disadvantage, they seemed to repay him by withholding OCB. In each case, the supervisor's actions were reciprocated. This pattern is generally consistent with the self-interest model (Tyler, 1994) and supportive of Hypothesis 2. When the supervisor's actions were beneficial (positive condition), participants responded more favorably than when it significantly increased their chances

of failure (negative condition). It seems that participants were interested in assuring that they had the best possible chance for success, and their negative reaction to the supervisor making it harder to obtain the desired outcome was witnessed in their lower OCB responses.

Having considered participants' responses to each variable, the discussion will now shift to consider the patterns of responses within each treatment condition. The purpose of this approach is to facilitate a discussion of each group independently, looking at how each type of violation affected responses across all dependent variables

No Violation Condition

As expected, participants in the no violation condition perceived higher levels of procedural justice than participants in any other group. It is logical that those participants who did not witness any violation of procedural justice should report the highest justice perceptions. As noted earlier, in addition to demonstrating that participants were sensitive to the fundamental rules defining procedural justice, this pattern of results lends strength to the findings of the manipulation check items. Knowing that the participants did in fact distinguish between the various manipulations, greater confidence can be placed on the results of the present study.

As shown in Table 3, participants in the no violation condition reported higher levels of satisfaction than those in the neutral and negative conditions. From this we can conclude that situations involving violations of justice, whether they hurt those affected by it or do not affect them at all, are more bothersome than situations in which justice is

maintained. Similar results were found for the supervisor approval variable. This was expected, given the strong correlation between this variable and situational satisfaction.

Turning to the OCB intentions variable, a different pattern is seen. Here, those in the no violation group reported the same level of intentions as those in the other three groups. This pattern demonstrates that participants were not significantly more willing to engage in OCB following a perfectly just procedure than they were following a neutral, positive, or negative violation.

In sum, those in the no violation condition reported the highest levels of perceived justice, high levels of situational satisfaction and supervisor approval, and roughly the same levels of OCB intentions as those in the other groups. It appears that if individuals in leadership positions desire to maximize their overall gains on these four variables, the best advice is to avoid justice violations altogether. By this, justice perceptions, situational satisfaction, and supervisor approval are maximized without sacrificing much regarding OCB intentions.

Neutral Violation Condition

Participants in the neutral violation condition reported lower justice perceptions, situational satisfaction, and supervisor approval than those in the no violation and positive violation groups. Those in the neutral condition did not respond significantly differently from those in the negative condition on any of the four dependent variables. From this, it appears that when individuals see a non-beneficial violation of procedural justice occur, the question of whether or not it hurt them is irrelevant. It seems that when no benefit is received, all that matters is that justice was violated and that the supervisor's

intentions were potentially harmful. While its effects on the outcome were neutral, the neutral violation seemed to take on a *negative* tone. That is, even though it was clearly neutral in terms of the probable outcome, it was not seen as neutral in terms of the supervisor's intent. Perhaps it would be more precise to label "neutral" violations of procedural justice as "non-consequential." After all, they do not appear to be neutral in terms of how they affect participants' responses to them. They are really only neutral in the sense that they do not directly affect the probable outcome. The tone of these "neutral" violations seems to be fairly negative, even though they have no direct consequences. It appears, then, that the term *negatively non-consequential* might better describe this variety of violations.

An interesting treatment condition would be a non-consequential condition where justice was violated in a positive way. That is, the supervisor could attempt to help the subordinate by breaking the rules to give him or her an extra ten minutes, as in the positive condition. However, in this *positively non-consequential* condition the subordinate would have already finished the test and would not be advantaged by the extra time. This would help researchers tease apart participants' reactions to the perceived intent of the supervisor and the real effects of his actions (which would have no real impact in either condition).

Many of the participants in the "neutral" violation condition answered the final two manipulation check items incorrectly (see Appendix F, items 13 & 14). They seemed to focus more on the perceived intentions of the supervisor, or perhaps on the *potential* effects of his actions, than on the true effects of the violation on the outcome. This

ambiguity reiterates the need to further investigate the role of perceived intentions in the formation of responses to justice situations.

The pattern of responses found in the neutral violation condition raises an interesting question concerning referent cognitions theory (Folger, 1989). Recall that this theory states that individuals who fail to obtain a desired outcome will ask themselves two questions. The first is, "Was the procedure that was used the one that *should have been used?*" The second question follows logically. It is, "If the correct procedure had been used, *would the outcome have been more favorable?*" Referent cognitions theory predicts that the person's response will be very negative only if the answer to the first question is "no" *and* the answer to the second question is "yes." In the context of the neutral violation, this logic becomes interesting. For the first question, regarding whether the correct procedure had been used, the answer is clearly "no." The rules were indeed broken. However, in this condition the answer to the second question is also "no." The violation did not affect the outcome. According to referent cognitions theory, this condition should not produce reactions that are more negative than if the correct procedure had been used in the first place. The results of the present study call this expectation into question. According to referent cognitions theory, there is no middle ground. Either the procedure was wrong *and* it would have been better if another was followed, or there should be no large negative effect. Obviously, the neutral condition involved the wrong procedure but it did not change the probable outcome. While the theory predicts that the situation should not evoke responses that are significantly different from a fair procedure, such differences were indeed found. Participants were

just as bothered by the violation in the neutral condition as they were by the one in the negative condition, regardless of whether or not the violation hurt them. Could it be that people don't always ask themselves the second question outlined by referent cognitions theory? Is it possible that a non-positive violation causes a negative reaction, regardless of its perceived effects? The results of the present study seem to support such an idea. Given that these findings run contrary to much of the research in the area of referent cognitions theory, future research should attempt to understand this unusual relationship.

Positive Violation Condition

It was mentioned earlier that participants in the positive violation condition reported significantly less perceived justice than those in the no violation condition. This finding came as no surprise. What is interesting is that participants in this condition reported higher levels of justice perceptions than those in the neutral and negative violation conditions. This implies that violations of procedural justice that help individuals are seen as being less offensive than violations that either have no direct effect or that cause the recipient to experience a disadvantage. This finding is consistent with the writings of Greenberg (1987) and Cropanzano and Folger (1989) in that it demonstrates the ability of individuals to clearly recognize an unfair procedure, even when it works to their advantage. Do people simply explain away helpful violations of justice? No, they do not. Recall that the positive group reported lower levels of justice than the no violation group. These positive violations are, however, viewed under a slightly different light than those that have neutral or negative effects. That is, even

though people notice violations of procedural justice, they are generally less concerned if the violation is one that provides assistance.

The effect of this perceptual difference was demonstrated in the response patterns on the situational satisfaction and supervisor approval variables. The responses of participants in the positive violation condition were significantly greater than responses in both the neutral and negative conditions. It appears to be true that when people are helped by a positive violation of justice, they are willing to accept it. Even though a violation was observed, participants seemed to feel that it was not necessarily a bad thing. As long as the violation was advantageous, participants responded as if there were no violation at all. This response pattern highlights the role of self-interest in the formation of individuals' reactions to justice violations. It appears that when individuals benefit from an injustice, they respond quite favorably. This finding is not consistent with conventional thought regarding procedural justice. While research has agreed that people may be *less* bothered by positive violations than by neutral or negative violations, it has maintained that there is a distinct difference between individuals' reactions to situations involving no violation and those involving positive violations. Even though there was a clear difference with regard to perceived justice in these two conditions, the present study found no such difference in terms of the other three dependent variables.

This has important implications for supervisors who are accustomed to adhering as closely as possible to company policies in order to maximize the approval of their subordinates. While it is probably best to avoid justice violations altogether, supervisors may periodically break a rule and still achieve the same levels of approval, as long as that

violation is helpful to those affected by it. A decrease in subordinates' justice perceptions is not always accompanied by a decrease in their feelings of situational satisfaction and supervisor approval. In fact, such a decrease was only found where the lowered justice perceptions were related to violations that either did not affect or that actually hurt those subordinates. A word of caution, however, is due before moving on to the next point of discussion. It should be mentioned that these results focus on only the responses of the individual directly affected by the supervisor's actions. While a positive violation will not cause that employee's situational satisfaction and supervisor approval to decrease, others observing the violation may have quite different responses. By seeing the supervisor act in favor of the employee, observers may feel left out and therefore disadvantaged. So, supervisors must keep in mind the effects of their actions on all those close enough to observe them, and not simply those directly affected by them.

In the introduction, it was explained that the reciprocity norm was expected to influence individuals' reactions to justice situations. Evidence in support of this argument was found in the positive violation condition. Here, participants reported high levels of supervisor approval and situational satisfaction, even though they clearly acknowledged that a rule was broken. On the surface, this response seems a bit confusing. But taking into account the influence of the norm of reciprocity, it begins to make more sense. When participants came to realize that the supervisor's actions benefited them, it was as if he had simply done them a favor. A favor which, while against the rules, was quite satisfying. Participants seemed to be willing to trade their disapproval of violated justice for an advantage in the testing situation. In essence, the positive feelings resulting from

the advantage were able to offset the negative effects of seeing the rule broken. This response pattern fits nicely with the logic of the norm of reciprocity.

The reciprocity norm was also evidenced in the responses on the OCB variable. Of all the comparisons performed in the analysis regarding OCB intentions, the only significant difference was found between the positive and negative conditions. Even though a rule was broken, when participants perceived that the violation was beneficial to them they reported more willingness to engage in OCB aimed specifically at the supervisor (the person seen as responsible for the assistance). This finding has important implications for organizational leaders, especially when coupled with the findings related to the other dependent variables of the present study. By committing positive violations of procedural justice, leaders may find their subordinates to be more willing to engage in OCB than if the violation was negative. Further, subordinates' intentions will not be lower than if no violation had occurred. Based on the results reported here, they will feel just as much approval toward their leaders and be just as satisfied with the situation as they would if there had been no violation at all. Thus we see that positive violations are in fact quite different from other types of violations in terms of the reactions they evoke. As such, they deserve increased attention in future contributions to the justice literature.

Negative Violation Condition

Participants in the negative group reported the lowest ratings across all four dependent variables. As discussed in the previous section, those in the negative violation group expressed significantly lower OCB intentions than those in the positive violation condition. This was the only difference in the response patterns in the neutral and

negative groups. These responses are informative of how individuals are affected by negative procedural justice violations. As has been shown in the literature for years, those who were subjected to negative violations seemed to retaliate emotionally toward the supervisor and the situation. Consistent with the self-interest model (Tyler, 1994), when it became apparent that their chances of obtaining the desired outcome were decreased, participants expressed negative feelings toward both the supervisor and the situation. This pattern is also predicted by the reciprocity norm. People have a tendency to return what they are given, whether it is good or bad. The results showed that when participants perceived that an offense had been committed against them by the supervisor, they were less inclined to see the situation in a favorable light. Again, this is nothing extraordinary, and has been reported in the literature many times. It seems that the worst thing a leader can do, then, is to break the rules in a way that has hurtful consequences for his or her subordinates.

Perceived Stability and Intentionality

The supplemental analysis regarding perceived stability and intentionality yielded very interesting results. As predicted, participants' perceptions of the stability of the supervisor's actions were significantly correlated with situational satisfaction, supervisor approval, and OCB intentions. This indicates that, in general, when individuals believe that the justice conditions they encounter will consistently (or inconsistently) be encountered in the future, their situational satisfaction, supervisor approval, and OCB intentions increase (or decrease).

Surprisingly, the only dependent variable to correlate significantly with the perceived intentionality of the supervisor's behavior in the vignettes (across all participants) was the perceived level of procedural justice. Even more surprising was the fact that this correlation was negative. This indicated that as perceptions that the supervisor's behavior was intentional increased, perceptions of justice decreased. This statistic is a bit misleading, however, because it reflects responses of the entire sample. The intentionality scale assessed the *level* of intentionality, but not the *type* of intention that the supervisor was perceived to have. It is logical that participants in each group may have been affected by *both the level and type* of perceived intentionality. In other words, the role played by perceived intentions in the formation of individuals' responses may partly depend on *what* the intention was perceived to be, and not only whether it was there. Hence, the unusual correlation (negative) between justice perceptions and OCB could be explained by the influence of perceived hurtful intentions in the negative violation and neutral violation conditions.

The results of the ANOVA of perceived intentionality support this explanation. There seemed to be two clusters of responses, with the impactful violation conditions (positive and negative violation conditions) reporting significantly greater levels of perceived intentionality than the no violation condition. Where the violation had an effect on the probability of obtaining the desired outcome, for better or worse, participants saw it as more intentional.

In the neutral condition, the perceived intentionality appeared to have a greater influence on some of the dependent variables than the actual effect of the violation itself.

While the neutral violation had no real effect on the expected outcome, participants' responses in this condition on the situational satisfaction and supervisor approval variables were not significantly different from those in the negative condition, in which the violation had an obvious effect on the expected outcome. Perhaps people are more concerned with the intentions of those around them than they are with the actual effects of those actions. This may explain why those in the neutral condition responded in a way that was similar to those in the negative condition. If this is true, it could mean that individuals in leadership positions not only have to be concerned with how their actions affect their subordinates, but also with what intentions they are believed to have. This may expose an interesting connection between the research areas of justice and impression management. Further research focusing on this issue may add to the current understanding of these relationships.

Limitations

Before concluding this discussion, several limitations need to be mentioned. First, the study was carried out in a laboratory setting. While such a setting provides a great deal of control, a certain degree of reality is sacrificed. While it is likely that the results obtained here are quite similar to those that would have been obtained if the study had been conducted in a "real-world" setting, the conclusion that they are necessarily identical is obviously not warranted. However, the sample used here consisted of individuals who were old enough to have held jobs or be in other situations (school, etc.) where they have been evaluated and perhaps experienced injustice first-hand. It is not unreasonable to claim that these participants were capable of placing themselves mentally

in the role of the subordinate in the vignettes. In fact, Lind and Tyler (1988) explained that when scenarios are constructed to deal with situations the respondents have experienced and understand, their use is very appropriate in the study of participant reactions to procedures. They claimed that it is reasonable to ask what procedures one would prefer in a particular situation, or to ask what one's attitudes would be given certain circumstances. They proposed that scenario studies should be taken as establishing minimum effects that are often equaled or exceeded in natural settings. Thus, while a study conducted in a real-world context is an obvious next step, the results of the present study can be interpreted with a fair degree of confidence.

Another limitation of the present study is in the design itself. During the analysis it was noted that in the no violation, neutral violation, and positive violation conditions, participants' responses to the OCB intentions scale were not significantly different. At face value, it appears from these data that participants were affected equally by these three different treatments. There is, however, an alternative explanation. Recall that the vignettes included no information regarding the actual outcome of the situation (promotion, raise, etc.). It is entirely possible that since this decision was still pending, participants perceived OCB as a way to influence the outcome. That is, it is possible that they reported high OCB intentions in each of these three conditions *despite their feelings about the situation* in order to increase their chances of obtaining the desired outcome. This explanation is partially supported by the data obtained for the situational satisfaction and supervisor approval variables in these three conditions, where the neutral violation evoked significantly lower responses for both of these variables. Unlike the OCB

intentions reported by participants, their feelings of situational satisfaction and supervisor approval would not likely be seen as instrumental to influencing the outcome, and would therefore not be confounded by its pending status. So, even though participants felt less satisfaction and approval toward the supervisor in the neutral violation condition, they were still as willing to engage in OCB as those in the positive and no violation conditions. Given that the desire to influence the outcome through OCB may have confounded the results obtained on the OCB measure, it would be informative to conduct a follow-up study in which the justice situation did not involve a pending outcome. One such situation might involve a worker whose supervisor distributes work assignments of various difficulty levels that are perceived as fair or unfair. This way, participants would be likely to respond to all of the dependent variables without being concerned with influencing any outcome.

Future directions

Since the present study explored an area of procedural justice that was almost untouched by the existing literature, several interesting paths for future researchers are apparent. First, future researchers should address the relationships between positive violations of procedural justice and other organizational variables, such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Obviously, even though the dependent variables included in this study are important to organizations, they are not the only ones of interest. While it seems likely that similar results would be obtained using these other dependent measures, it remains to be seen.

Another direction for future research is to investigate the effects of individual differences. There are numerous individual differences that could affect the way people respond to procedural injustice, including past encounters with injustice, level of religiosity, and the perceived value of the outcome affected by the injustice. Schmitt (1996) has identified one possible variable, “sensitivity to befallen justice.” People are not all affected by injustice in the same way. It is possible that individuals’ differing levels of sensitivity to injustice may make them respond to it in different ways. It is possible that those who are extremely sensitive to it may react to *any* injustice as a bad thing. Similarly, those who are very tolerant of it may respond to it only when it places them at a severe disadvantage.

Yet another direction for future research to follow would be to investigate the effects of the various types of procedural justice violations on individuals who witness them from a distance. The present study examined participants’ reactions to situations in which they were directly involved with the injustice. Schmitt (1996) reported that those who observed negative violations, even if they were not directly involved in the situation, reported feelings of anger, similar to those who were directly affected by the injustice. Future researchers should explore the effects of positive violations on individuals who are not directly involved in the situation, but are close enough to it to observe and recognize the violation and its effects. This way, conclusions could be drawn as to whether this type of violation has the same effect on observers as on those directly affected.

Conclusions

The results discussed above add significantly to the body of procedural justice literature. Until now it has been widely accepted that people will respond negatively to almost all unjust situations. The findings of this study advance the idea that in the future, researchers need to be more aware of the subtle differences between the various types of procedural injustice. Positive violations of procedural justice do indeed have effects that are significantly different from those of neutral or negative ones. It is apparent from this research that the role of self-interest in formulating reactions to an injustice is, under certain circumstances, powerful enough to partially overcome the negative affect caused by the injustice itself. These findings have important implications for social scientists and employers in general. Future studies will surely shed more light on this interesting area of research.

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Appendix A

Employee Responses to Promotion Decisions

You are invited to participate in a research study. You are eligible because you are a student in Psychology 1010 at the University of Nebraska at Omaha (UNO).

The purpose of this study is to observe individuals' reactions to promotional decisions. Your participation will take approximately 15 to 20 minutes. You will be asked to read a short story and mentally put yourself in the place of one of the characters. Then, you will be asked to answer several questions regarding how you felt about the story.

We are unaware of any risks or discomforts associated with participating in this study.

There are no known benefits to participating in the survey. If you choose to participate in this study you will be awarded 1 research exposure point for every half-hour of participation. If you have already earned all of your required research exposure points and all of your extra-credit points, you will not receive any for participating in this study. Your Psychology 1010 course has alternative ways to earn these points available to you.

Your responses will be recorded by participant number rather than by name. Your responses will be kept completely confidential, and will not be associated with the information you provide.

Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your present or future relationship with the University of Nebraska at Omaha, the researchers, or your Psychology 1010 instructor. If you decide to participate, you are free to stop at any time. You will be given a copy of this informed consent form to keep.

I AM VOLUNTARILY MAKING A DECISION TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY.
MY SIGNATURE CERTIFIES THAT I HAVE DECIDED TO PARTICIPATE
HAVING READ AND UNDERSTOOD THE INFORMATION PRESENTED ABOVE.

Signature

Date

Principal Investigator:

Eric Rowlee (402) 571-4079

Secondary Investigator:

Wayne Harrison, Ph.D. (402) 554-2452

Appendix B

Please read the following story carefully. As you read, imagine that you are an employee of the company in the story. Try to imagine how you would feel as the events of the story take place.

Imagine that you work at a large company that produces and sells computer equipment. You have worked there for several years, and are currently being considered for a promotion. If you get promoted you will get a large raise and a nicer office than you have right now. It is the company's policy to give a written test to any person who is being considered for a promotion. The only way to get promoted is to do well on the test. The purpose of the test is to measure how much you know about how the company works. Your boss is the department supervisor. He will continue to be your boss whether or not you get the promotion. He is responsible for giving you the test.

As your department supervisor gives you the test papers, he explains to you that the company's rule is that you get exactly 60 minutes to answer all of the questions. You then begin to take the test.

As you finish the last test question, you see that you have a few minutes left. When the 60 minutes is up your supervisor returns and takes your test papers from you. He tells you that your test will be graded as soon as possible.

Appendix C

Please read the following story carefully. As you read, imagine that you are an employee of the company in the story. Try to imagine how you would feel as the events of the story take place.

Imagine that you work at a large company that produces and sells computer equipment. You have worked there for several years, and are currently being considered for a promotion. If you get promoted you will get a large raise and a nicer office than you have right now. It is the company's policy to give a written test to any person who is being considered for a promotion. The only way to get promoted is to do well on the test. The purpose of the test is to measure how much you know about how the company works. Your boss is the department supervisor. He will continue to be your boss whether or not you get the promotion. He is responsible for giving you the test.

As your department supervisor gives you the test papers, he explains to you that the company's rule is that you get exactly 60 minutes to answer all of the questions. You then begin to take the test.

When only 50 minutes of your time has elapsed your supervisor returns and says, "You'll have to give me your test now. I don't think that it should take you the whole 60 minutes." Fortunately, you have just answered the last question and finished the test. He takes your test papers from you and tells you that your test will be graded as soon as possible.

Appendix D

Please read the following story carefully. As you read, imagine that you are an employee of the company in the story. Try to imagine how you would feel as the events of the story take place.

Imagine that you work at a large company that produces and sells computer equipment. You have worked there for several years, and are currently being considered for a promotion. If you get promoted you will get a large raise and a nicer office than you have right now. It is the company's policy to give a written test to any person who is being considered for a promotion. The only way to get promoted is to do well on the test. The purpose of the test is to measure how much you know about how the company works. Your boss is the department supervisor. He will continue to be your boss whether or not you get the promotion. He is responsible for giving you the test.

As your department supervisor gives you the test papers, he explains to you that the company's rule is that you get exactly 60 minutes to answer all of the questions. You then begin to take the test.

When the 60 minutes are up, your supervisor comes in to see if you are finished. You tell him that you are almost done but still have a few questions left to answer. He says, "Well, I'm really supposed to take your test from you now. But if you need more time I'll give you an extra 10 minutes." Using this extra time you are able to answer all of the questions and finish the test. When the extra time is up he returns and takes your test papers from you. He tells you that your test will be graded as soon as possible.

Appendix E

Please read the following story carefully. As you read, imagine that you are an employee of the company in the story. Try to imagine how you would feel as the events of the story take place.

Imagine that you work at a large company that produces and sells computer equipment. You have worked there for several years, and are currently being considered for a promotion. If you get promoted you will get a large raise and a nicer office than you have right now. It is the company's policy to give a written test to any person who is being considered for a promotion. The only way to get promoted is to do well on the test. The purpose of the test is to measure how much you know about how the company works. Your boss is the department supervisor. He will continue to be your boss whether or not you get the promotion. He is responsible for giving you the test.

As your department supervisor gives you the test papers, he explains to you that the company's rule is that you get exactly 60 minutes to answer all of the questions. You then begin to take the test.

When only 50 minutes of your time has elapsed your supervisor returns and says, "You'll have to give me your test now. I don't think that it should take you the whole 60 minutes." You probably would have finished the test on time, but without the remaining 10 minutes you are forced to leave several questions blank. He takes your test papers from you and tells you that your test will be graded as soon as possible.

Appendix F

After reading the story, imagine how you would feel if you were in the place of the employee. Please read the following statements and circle the number that most accurately describes how you feel toward the supervisor in the story.

1)	I would stay after normal working hours without pay to finish a project.				
	1	2	3	4	5
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
2)	I would help the supervisor if it appeared that he needed assistance.				
	1	2	3	4	5
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
3)	I would stick up for the supervisor if others were saying negative things about him.				
	1	2	3	4	5
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
4)	I would help the supervisor feel better when he was down.				
	1	2	3	4	5
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
5)	I would try to follow the rules and do what the supervisor asked me to do.				
	1	2	3	4	5
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
6)	I would check with my supervisor before doing anything out of the ordinary.				
	1	2	3	4	5
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
7)	I would act as a peacemaker in the department if disagreements occurred.				
	1	2	3	4	5
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

-
- 8) I would take steps to prevent problems with the supervisor.
- | | | | | |
|----------------------|----------|---------|-------|-------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Strongly
Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly
Agree |
-
- 9) My supervisor gave me:
- a) the exact amount of time that he was supposed to for the test.
 - b) more time than he was supposed to for the test.
 - c) less time than he was supposed to for the test.
-
- 10) I had:
- a) exactly 60 minutes to take the test.
 - b) more than 60 minutes to take the test.
 - c) less than 60 minutes to take the test.
-
- 11) My supervisor followed the rules about how the test was supposed to be given.
- a) Yes, he followed the rules.
 - b) No, he did not follow the rules.
-
- 12) My supervisor observed the company's policy about how the test should be given.
- a) Yes, he observed the company's policy.
 - b) No, he did not observe the company's policy.
-
- 13) I _____ by the way my supervisor gave me the test.
- a) was given an advantage
 - b) was given a disadvantage
 - c) was not affected
-
- 14) My chances of passing the test were _____ by my supervisor's actions.
- a) increased
 - b) decreased
 - c) not affected
-

15) The way my supervisor treated me during the test is representative of the way he usually treats me.

1
Strongly
Disagree

2
Disagree

3
Neutral

4
Agree

5
Strongly
Agree

16) Whether my supervisor did or did not follow the rules, it was a deliberate decision on his part.

1
Strongly
Disagree

2
Disagree

3
Neutral

4
Agree

5
Strongly
Agree

Appendix G

Please answer the following questions, keeping in mind the events of the story you just read. Circle the answer that best fits what you remember from the story.

1) I am satisfied with the testing situation.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

2) The way that I was given the test helped me to do my best.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

3) I like how the time limit rule was handled.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

4) I would like to work for the supervisor in the story.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

5) The supervisor treats employees well.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

6) All supervisors should treat their employees like the one in the story.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

7) The way the test was given to me was fair.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

8) My supervisor gave me the test properly.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

9) My supervisor followed the rules about how the test should be given.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
