

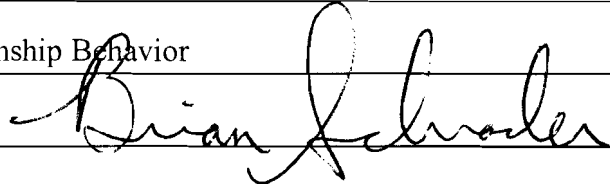
AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

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Title: Employees' Perceptions of Organizational Justice on Job Satisfaction and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Abstract approved:



Past research studies have examined the effect of different types of organizational justice (distributive, procedural, and interactional) on work attitudes and behaviors like job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB). The previous researchers emphasized the strength of procedural justice and its effect on work attitudes as compared to distributive and interactional justice. The purpose of this study was to investigate the differences (if any exist) between employees with high perceptions of organizational justice and those with moderate and low perceptions of organizational justice and their effect on job satisfaction and OCB. The researcher found significant differences between these three groups and their effect on job satisfaction and OCB. The researcher also investigated the differences between employees with high and low perceptions of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice and their subsequent effect on job satisfaction and OCB. Again, the researcher found significant differences for these groups. Job satisfaction was also significantly and positively correlated with OCB. Overall, all hypotheses in this study were strongly supported with significant differences between all groups. Implications, limitations of the study and future research directions are discussed.

Employees' Perceptions of Organizational Justice on
Job Satisfaction and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

A Thesis

Presented to

the Department of Psychology and Special Education

EMPORIA STATE UNIVERSITY

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

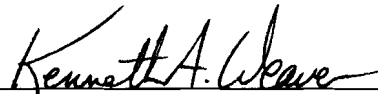
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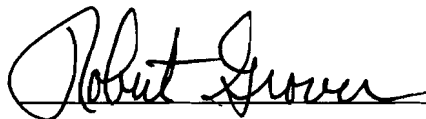
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

We all need to be treated fairly, both as employees and customers. Aristotle, long ago, suggested that humans possess a need for justice. “Man, when protected,” he wrote, “is the best of animals, but when separated from law and justice he is the worst of all” (Bowen, Gilliland, & Folger, 1999, p. 6).

Fairness in the organizations is a widely studied concept and deserves a prominent place in organizational behavior research. Justice studies are grounded in the belief that employees who are treated fairly are more likely to hold positive organizational attitudes and/or behaviors. These can include having increased levels of output or improved service quality, or positive attitudes toward organizational commitment and acceptance of organization’s goals and values (Bohlander & Blancero, 1999). Fair treatment of employees is also assumed to be related to job satisfaction. Further, organizational justice issues may affect micro aspects in the organization (e.g., pay, supervision, benefits) as well as macro aspects (e.g., organizational commitment, extra-role behaviors, productivity, organizational culture).

Definition of Organizational Justice and its Constructs

The employees’ perception of the fairness of treatment in relation to the personal and organizational outcomes is referred to as organizational justice. According to Pillai, Williams, and Tan (2001) the original work on organizational justice grew out of the study of legal proceedings by Thibaut and Walker (1975). Thibaut and Walker found that in third party dispute resolution, if participants perceived that they were given the chance to sufficiently present their cases, they saw the process as fair and were contented

with the results. Research into justice in the workplace has emphasized two aspects: distributive and procedural justice (Tremblay, Sire, & Balkin, 2000). The third construct of justice that is an extension of procedural justice is called interactional justice. In the next few paragraphs the author discusses each construct in detail.

Distributive Justice

It is important to understand the term “relative deprivation” in relation to the distributive justice theory. In a nutshell, relative deprivation refers to the unfair violation of one’s expectations. Adams (1965) studied advancement opportunities in the Army and found that high school graduates were not as satisfied with their status and jobs as were less educated men. This paradox is explained by assuming that the better-educated men had higher levels of aspiration, partly based on what would be realistic status expectations, and that they were, therefore, relatively deprived of status and less satisfied with the status they achieved. This apparent discrepancy between the high school graduates’ aspirations and actual achievement resulted in relative deprivation. The existence of relative deprivation necessarily raises the question of distributive justice or of fair share-out of rewards (Adams, 1965).

Distributive justice is defined as employees’ concerns about the fairness of managerial decisions relative to the distribution of outcomes such as pay and promotions (Dailey & Kirk, 1992). Distributive justice has been defined over the years by many researchers and it is important to review some common definitions that are integrated under the broad branch of equity theory. Authors of distributive justice theories propose that individuals will evaluate distributions of outcomes with respect to some distributive rule, the most common of which is equity. Equity assessment involves a comparison of

one's inputs and obtained outcomes relative to a referent comparison other. Evaluations of inequitable distributions produce negative emotions, which, in turn, motivate individuals to change their behavior or distort the cognitions associated with perceptions of unfairness (Adams, 1965). While further defining the concept of distributive justice, Fields, Pang, and Chiu (1999) refer to distributive justice simply as the fairness of the allocation of rewards by an organization. Adams' theory has given rise to equity theory of work motivation. The theory argues that a major input into job performance and satisfaction is the degree of equity (inequity) that people perceive in their work situation (Luthans, 1995).

Distributive justice perceptions have a greater influence over attitudes toward the results of decisions (Tremblay, Sire, & Balkin, 2000) and dissatisfaction becomes greater as inequity increases (Gilliland, 1993). When an employee perceives inequity between his/her input to output ratios as compared to his/her colleagues' input to output ratios, the employee will modify the inputs (increase or decrease the inputs), change the comparison other, or give in to the inequity by expressing dissatisfaction.

Distributive justice is more strongly related to personal outcomes, whereas procedural justice seems to be more related to organizational outcomes. McFarlin and Sweeney (1992) found that distributive justice was considered to be a more important predictor of two personal outcomes, pay satisfaction and job satisfaction, whereas procedural justice strongly predicted the two organizational outcomes – organizational commitment and subordinate's evaluation of supervisor. Folger and Konovsky (1989) captured the key distinction regarding justice in work organizations, noting that distributive justice refers to the perceived fairness of the amounts of compensation

employees receive; procedural justice refers to the perceived fairness of the means used to determine those amounts. Ruiz-Quantanilla and Blancero (1996) found that distributive justice is positively related to employees' intent to remain in the organization and job satisfaction.

Is distributive justice universal? Greenberg (2001) states that Americans learn early in life to assess fairness in terms of the relative size of the rewards they receive. Whereas cultures in the east, like the Japanese and the Indian cultures that are high in power distance, adopt an elaborate social system that emphasizes respect, politeness, and social harmony. These cultures focus more on equality than equity. Accordingly, the norm of distributive and procedural justice as known to most Western cultures is not as strong in Japan and India. Therefore, we may consider that perceptions of justice are relative to the culture in which one lives and works. It would not be surprising to find low or no correlation between distributive justice and job satisfaction constructs in East Asian cultures.

Distributive justice reactions tend to be the strongest for HR policy changes that serve an employee's direct interests (Kossek, Ozeki, & Kosier, 2001). Also, according to Kossek, Ozeki, and Kosier (2001), reactions to HR policy suggests a "self-serving bias" in fairness perceptions. Employees who are more likely to be favorably affected by HR policy changes are consistently more likely to view them as fair both in terms of outcomes and procedures. In order to achieve fairness in the allocation of rewards the organization must guarantee fair procedural treatment to all employees. This sets a platform to discuss the concept of procedural justice.

Procedural Justice

Procedural justice is referred to the perceived fairness of the processes through which decisions are made (Schappe, 1998). More recently, it has been suggested that procedural justice consists of a structural dimension (i.e., the characteristics of the formal procedures themselves) and an interpersonal dimension (i.e., how one is treated during the enactment of procedures).

According to Gilliland (1993) two major perspectives or models have initiated much of the current research and interest in procedural justice. The first is the process-control model which states that procedures are perceived to be fairer when affected individuals have an opportunity to either influence the decision process or offer some input. The second model is the reward-allocation decision process model. According to this model procedural justice is a function of the extent to which a number of procedural rules are satisfied or violated and its effect on reward allocation.

In conjunction with Gilliland's (1993) research, Thibaut and Walker's (1975) pioneering work suggests that people care at least as much about the procedures used in making allocation decisions as they do about the outcomes themselves. Their explanatory model emphasized two types of control or input into decisions: process control or voice (i.e., the opportunity to present information or evidence as input into the decision) and decision control (i.e., the opportunity to influence the decision itself). Procedures are perceived as fair when disputants have outcome control and the opportunity to participate in developing the options that will be considered for the dispute's outcome (Beugre, 1998). Criteria established for procedural justice include the presence of formal procedures that: (a) ensure decisions are based on accurate

information, (b) are applied consistently over time and across people, (c) provide an opportunity to voice one's opinions during decision making, (d) allow for the appeal of bad decisions, (e) suppress personal bias on the part of decision makers, and (f) ensure that decisions are made in a moral and ethical manner (Rahim, Magner, & Shapiro, 2000).

Goldman (2001) also emphasizes the importance of studying procedural justice. He states that employees value procedural justice as social norms so that employees carry within them some innate sense of what is morally appropriate in certain circumstances. Violation of these norms is viewed as a treason of that social norm, and thus, procedurally unjust (Goldman, 2001).

A study conducted by Hartman, Yrle, and Galle (1999) in a university setting regarding the perceived equity in the salary of faculty members found that procedural justice could be broken into two aspects: (a) the amount of information equally disseminated and (b) the acceptance of procedures. From this study the authors suggested that as long as rewards are offered, managers need to pay relatively less attention to process than is the case when negative actions are taken. This study contradicts Thibaut and Walker's model of process and decision control. Thus, according to Hartman et al. (1999), the issue of process and decision control will arise only in the case of negative consequences.

As in the case of distributive justice, in procedural justice too, differences in the criteria of the definitions were found across cultures. Blader, Chang, and Tyler (2001) indicated strong support for cultural moderation of the meaning of procedural justice. Their study compared the role of procedural justice in motivating organizational

retaliatory behaviors between two employee samples, one American and the other Taiwanese. The results of this cross-national study of employees suggested that although there is only modest evidence of national moderation in the influence of procedural justice on retaliation, there is considerable variation in the meaning of procedural justice as a function of culture. The Taiwanese employees demonstrated a tendency to consider instrumental factors more in their determination of the fairness of procedures, as compared to the U.S. sample of employees. People who care about control because it provides greater assurance that the outcomes reached would be fair is referred to as an instrumental approach.

Interactional Justice

Interactional justice, an extension of procedural justice, refers to the human side of organizational practices, that is, the way the management (or those controlling rewards and resources) is behaving toward the recipient of justice. Because interactional justice is determined by the interpersonal behavior of management's representatives, interactional justice is considered to be related to cognitive, affective, and behavioral reactions toward these representatives, that is, the direct supervisor or the source of justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). This kind of justice is effective in interviews conducted during selection, performance appraisals, and feedback interventions.

Often times the rules and regulations needed for an employee to achieve the target performance is left unexplained. If the supervisor or the designated source of justice does not possess the interpersonal skills required to communicate procedures, s/he may face serious consequences, both from the employees as well as the top management, and above all the industrial laws.

Interactional justice is also one's perception to being unfavorably or unjustly treated during some encounter with an individual in the organization (Bohlander & Blancero, 1999). The discussion of interaction effects directs attention to instances when fair procedures are most important. In particular, research suggests that when a decision does not meet an individual's preferences, they are more apt to assess carefully the procedures followed in making a decision. When the outcome favorability is high, however, the effects of procedural justice rules are reduced (Meyer, 2001). That is, when employees receive favorable rewards or promotions, they are less likely to question the procedural justice rules than otherwise.

The studies in interpersonal treatment during the selection process have examined several outcome variables including: (a) perceptions of the test administrator, (b) impressions of the organization, (c) intent to recommend the employer to others, (d) expectation of a job offer, (e) intent to accept a job offer, and (f) self esteem (Schurkamp & Schmitt, 2002). These variables, it is assumed, will also have an impact on the employees' trust in their management, intent to stay with the organization, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Although organizational commitment may develop with the amount of employee's duration in the organization, it could also be an important outcome of interactional justice over a period.

Job Satisfaction Defined

Simply stated, "job satisfaction" refers to the employees' happiness and contentment towards various aspects of the job. Davis and Palladino (2002) define job satisfaction as a relatively stable positive feeling toward one's job. Job satisfaction is considered a multi-faceted construct and generally, is supervisor and organization related

(Aryee, Budhwar, & Chen, 2002). Job satisfaction may also be defined differently depending upon the context in which it exists. One such framework is described by Netemeyer, Boles, McKee, and McMurrian (1997) in their investigation into the antecedents of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) in a personal selling context. The authors conceptualized job satisfaction as both affect and cognition based, with definitions ranging from a “positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences” to “all characteristics of the job itself and the work environment which (salespeople) find rewarding, fulfilling, and satisfying, or frustrating and unsatisfying (Chuchill, Ford, & Walker, 1974, p. 255). Life satisfaction is a similar concept as defined by Rain, Lane, and Steiner (1991) and refers to the satisfaction regarding one’s life in general that comprises of family and other non-work related life.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) Defined

Skarlicki and Latham (1997) describe OCB as behaviors that are discretionary in that they are neither required nor contractually rewarded by the organization, but nonetheless contribute to its functioning effectively. Assisting newcomers to the organization, not abusing the rights of co-workers, not taking extra breaks, attending elective company meetings, and enduring minor impositions that occur when working with others are examples of OCB that help in coping with various organizational uncertainties (Kidwell, Mossholder, & Bennett, 1997). A key element to OCB is voluntarily aiding others with job-related concerns. Some OCB behaviors may also include helping relocate your colleague or supervisor, working overtime, and sharing your co-workers work. These behaviors are also beneficial for lifting the organization’s morale.

An appealing study by Morrison (1994) scrutinized the conceptual boundary between OCB, or extra-role behavior, and in-role behavior. Morrison (1994) found that the employees and their supervisors did differ in whether they define various behaviors as in-role or extra-role and consequently differed in how broadly they defined the employees' job responsibilities. Therefore, the findings of this study suggest that OCB is not a clear-cut construct because the boundary between in-role and extra-role behavior is ill-defined and varies from one employee to the next and between employees and supervisors. OCB is also a function of how employees define in-role and extra-role behavior.

According to Williams and Anderson (1991) it is important to discriminate between two types of OCBs: (a) OCBs that benefit the general organization and carrying out role requirements well beyond minimum required levels are referred to OCBO (i.e., organizational citizenship behavior towards one's organization) and (b) OCBs that immediately benefit specific individuals (helping a specific other person with an organizationally relevant task or problem) but through this means contribute to the organization are referred to OCBI (i.e., organizational citizenship behavior towards one's fellow members/individuals).

In order to demonstrate that OCBO and OCBI are two distinct dimensions, Bolon (1997) conducted a study on hospital employees that elucidated the relationship between job satisfaction and OCBI. Job satisfaction was significantly and positively related to coworker-rated OCBI ($r = .24, p < .001$) and supervisor-rated OCBI ($r = .22, p < .01$). Affective commitment was also significantly and positively related to coworker-rated OCBI ($r = .28, p < .001$) and supervisor-rated OCBI ($r = .24, p < .001$). Since there was

no relationship found between commitment and OCBO, this study raised construct validity concerns for OCBO and further questioned the existence of OCBO.

Using OCBI among work groups, Kidwell et al. (1997) found that higher work group cohesiveness may act as a contextual catalyst for social exchange processes, making it easier for satisfied individuals to act on their tendency to demonstrate courteous citizenship behavior toward other group members.

A meta-analytic study by Organ and Ryan (1995) confirmed that a modest overall relationship exists between job satisfaction and various measures of organizational citizenship behavior, like altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, civic virtue, and compliance. When these various dimensions were aggregated into an overall OCB measure, the correlation between satisfaction and the composite OCB was .38. After correcting for reliability of measurement, the correlation was .44.

Skarlicki and Latham (1997) conducted a replication of a quasi-experiment, in which they investigated the effect of training union leaders in the administration of organizational justice principles on union members' perceptions of their leaders' fairness and the members' subsequent citizenship behavior toward their union. Union leader training increased members' perceptions of their leaders' fairness as well as union members' citizenship behavior directed toward the union as organization (OCBO) and the fellow union members (OCBI). Therefore, this study suggests that training organizational leaders or management in organizational justice principles will result in union members' positive perceptions of fairness and increase in organizational citizenship behaviors favorable to the organization.

Williams and Anderson (1991) relate OCBI to altruism (i.e., behavior that occurs without any external rewards) and OCBO to generalized compliance (i.e., behavior that occurs because of expected rewards or avoidance of punishment). The authors also successfully distinguished between in-role behaviors (i.e. behaviors guided by job descriptions) and organizational citizenship behaviors, and posit that in-role behaviors may be task oriented and OCBs may be people oriented.

In their study on altruistic organizational citizenship behaviors among nursing staff, Wagner and Rush (2000) found that the antecedents of altruistic OCB among younger employees (below 35 years) were different from the antecedents among older employees. Altruistic behavior among younger employees was significantly ($p < .05$) related to trust in management ($r = .31$), job satisfaction ($r = .47$), and organizational commitment ($r = .40$). Among older employees (above 35 years) altruistic behavior was significantly ($p < .05$) and positively related to the modifiable dimension of self-monitoring ($r = .35$) and to moral judgment ($r = .32$) and negatively related to pay satisfaction ($r = -.31$). Further, the study provided some indications of how extrarole behavior might be facilitated. Employers may wish to promote altruistic OCB through sensitivity to the issues of job satisfaction, trust, commitment, and a climate that promotes reciprocity.

Bettencourt and Brown (1997) in their study on contact employees (tellers and customer service managers) of fifty branches of a prominent multi-state, western bank found that contact employees' workplace fairness perceptions are positively related to their extra-role customer service ($t = 2.82, p < .01$). Approximately, 11% of the variance in extra-role customer service behavior, 7% of the variance in employee cooperation ($t =$

3.06, $p < .01$), and 8% of the variance in role-prescribed customer service behavior ($t = 2.85, p < .01$) was explained by employee overall fairness perceptions. The authors also found a positive relationship between workplace fairness and contact employee job satisfaction ($t = 8.65, p < .001$). Approximately 35% of the variance in job satisfaction is explained by workplace fairness. All these hypotheses were supported by structural equation modeling (SEM). In sum, Bettencourt and Brown (1997) suggest that workplace fairness perceptions are an important antecedent of contact employee prosocial service behaviors.

OCB in a Non-Western Context

In a study conducted by Kuehn and Al-Busaidi (2002) on a sample from several organizations, both private and public, from the Sultanate of Oman; the authors found that satisfaction significantly predicted OCB scores above variance captured by demographic variables, and better than job scope and commitment variables. Normative commitment, a measure of an employee's feelings of obligation to the organization to remain, also contributed significantly to OCB. Younger Omanis seemed to be unhappy and not likely to contribute much to the organization in the form of OCBs due to the government policies in Oman that restrict free movement of labor, modest pay raises and lack of job enrichment among younger Omanis, and high unemployment.

Alotaibi (2001) in his study on Kuwaiti civil service employees found that procedural and distributive justice both contribute toward explaining variance in OCB, with the strongest correlation associated with procedural justice ($r = 0.22, p < .01$). The author also found that job satisfaction was positively correlated to OCB, but when distributive and procedural justice were held constant, hierarchical regression analysis

showed that job satisfaction is no longer a significant predictor of OCB. Therefore, we notice that Alotaibi's (2001) findings contradict with Kuehn and Al-Busaidi's (2002) finding that job satisfaction significantly predicts OCB scores, and the modest correlation found between job satisfaction and OCB in Organ and Ryan's (1995) meta-analytic study. One of the explanations for the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB could be the existence of fairness in job satisfaction measures.

The researcher of this study also believes that the concept of OCB may be ill-defined across cultures. Helping one's supervisor in household chores in eastern culture, which is high in power distance, may be perceived by the employee as merely a part of job description. But the same behavior is perceived as an OCB in western cultures. This also refers to Morrison's (1994) study previously mentioned, where employees and supervisors differed in their definitions of in-role and extra-role (OCBs) behaviors. Such differences then might be present across cultures, and thus it is essential to understand the national cultures to study employees' perceptions of organizational justice on job satisfaction and OCB (Greenberg, 2001). Greenberg (2001) posits that understanding people's perceptions of fairness requires understanding the norms that prevail in the cultures in which those individuals live.

Aryee, Budhwar, and Chen (2002) in their study of an Indian public coal industry found that trust in the *supervisor* fully mediated the relationship between interactional justice and the work-related behaviors of OCBO, OCBI and task performance, whereas trust in the *organization* was related to job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and organizational commitment, but not OCBO. Further, in their cross-cultural study, the authors found that distributive justice was correlated with the four outcomes- job

satisfaction, turn-over intentions, organizational commitment, and OCBO. This finding is in conjunction with Pillai, Williams, and Tan's (2001) finding that procedural justice plays a more important role than distributive justice in predicting satisfaction, commitment, and trust in the U.S. sample, and distributive justice plays a correspondingly important role with respect to these outcomes in an Indian sample. Procedural justice may not be as salient as distributive justice in India, because it could be taken for granted.

In an interesting study in Taiwanese Ministry of Communications, Farh, Podsakoff, and Organ (1990) found that task characteristics largely correlated to the two important dimensions of OCB: altruism and compliance. The authors of this study stated that responsibility, psychologically meaningful tasks, and the general intrinsic motivation acquired from the task characteristics are highly correlated to OCBs. We will discuss the various antecedents to organizational citizenship behaviors and specifically the relationship between organizational justice and OCBs later in the paper.

Major Perspectives in Organizational Justice

Reengineering

In regards to the equity theory of motivations, credit for equity theory is usually given to social psychologist J. Stacy Adams. The theory argues that a major input into job performance and satisfaction is the degree of equity (or inequity) that people perceive in their work situation. Inequity occurs when a person perceives that the ratio of his or her outcomes to inputs and the ratio of a relevant other's outcomes to inputs are unequal (Luthans, 1995). This inequity is also referred to as distributive injustice. In terms of layoffs, downsizing, transfers, retraining, promotions and demotions, distributive

injustice is inevitable. In implementing business process reengineering (i.e., the fundamental rethinking and radical redesign of business processes to achieve dramatic improvements in critical measures of performance such as cost, quality, service, and speed) distributive justice issues may include allocation of new tasks and responsibilities, power, rewards, and promotion (Beugre, 1998). In this regard, if people promoted to a higher position during the reengineering process are less likely to question the process undertaken in promotion, whereas the chances of questioning the process if one is demoted are higher. People may also tend to assume that if they are demoted or not considered for promotion, there will be a considerable drop in their loyalty toward the organization and probably toward their supervisor.

Major environmental changes such as deregulation may also pose a threat to the quality of the exchange relationship between the employee and the employer, as manifested in three aspects: (a) employees' sense of their obligation to the organization, (b) their trust in its managers, and (c) their intention to remain a part of the organization (Korsgaard, Sapienza, & Schweiger, 2002). Korsgaard et al. conducted a longitudinal study in two coal-powered electric generation plants of a US utility and found that procedural justice moderated the impact of planning change on employee obligations, trust in management, and intention to remain. This indicates the importance of procedural justice in managing change. In other words, modification of rules and procedures in the company affected the quality of exchange relationships (employee obligations, trust, and intention to remain) between the employee and the employer.

Leventhal (1980) and Wooten (1996), as cited in Beugre (1998), have discussed the concept of ground rules. In business process reengineering, ground rules would refer

to the fundamental reasons for the change. Such reasons should be explained to the employees. For Leventhal, ground rules (if they are perceived as fair rules and if they are followed by all) enhance perceptions of procedural justice (Beugre, 1998). Folger (1975) found that employees who had a voice tended to consider a system as fair and to be committed to it. Voice refers to the extent to which an employee expressed his or her views to decisions makers prior to the final decision.

Selection System

Inputs in a selection situation can be conceptualized as self-perceptions of ability or qualifications for the job. At first glance, equity may not appear applicable to the selection situation because of the lack of opportunity to compare one's inputs to the inputs of other job applicants.

Goodman (1974) suggested that the use of an "other" as the referent comparison is only one of the three possible referents. Structural aspects of the system, such as contracts, and self-referents compose the other two categories of referents, and it is this latter category that should be most applicable to selection-system equity. With self-referents, people compare their current input/outcome ratio with a past input/outcome ratio or an ideal input/outcome that is held for the situation. It is this comparison of self-referents that lead to feelings of inequity, and perhaps dissatisfaction and frustration of not attaining the job.

In reference to employment interviews, Martin and Nagao's (1989) study supports the proposition that computerized interview procedures can decrease job applicant's socially desirable responses (SDRs) relative to face-to-face interviews. The authors of this study also reported that the improper and insensitive use of an interview technique

resulted in lower appraisals of an interview's fairness and greater resentment toward interviewers as a whole, regardless of whether or not applicants' perceived chances of obtaining a job were high or low and independent of the outcome of the interview.

Similarly, Tyler, Rasinski, and McGraw (1985), as cited in Martin and Bennett (1996), found that when individuals were asked to place trust in or endorse institutions (e.g., government), procedural fairness consistently explained significant variance beyond that accounted for by relative or absolute outcome levels. In both the above studies, procedures seemed more important than the end results; a favorable outcome did not necessarily bring with it recipient support (Martin & Bennett, 1996).

Gilliland (1993) suggests that conditions such as test type, human resource policy, and behavior of human resource personnel influence applicants' procedural justice perceptions of the selection system. Procedural justice is conceptualized in terms of procedural rules. Perceptions of the extent to which each of these rules is satisfied or violated are combined to form an overall evaluation of the fairness of the selection system. Procedural justice in selection systems can be summarized in terms of three components: (a) formal characteristics of the selection system (e.g., job relatedness, opportunity to perform, opportunity for reconsideration, and consistency of administration), (b) explanation of information offered to applicants in the form of feedback, selection information, and honesty in treatment composes the second category, and (c) interpersonal treatment of the applicants (e.g., interpersonal effectiveness of the administrator, two-way communication, and propriety of questions) constitutes the third category.

Gender Differences

The research by Sweeney and McFarlin (1997) demonstrated that women tend to under reward themselves and act more generously toward their coworkers than do men. Men tend to divide rewards equitably according to inputs, whereas women seem to divide rewards more equally. Several studies have found that women reward themselves less than men even when there are no co-workers involved. In fact, when women are paid less than their male counterparts, studies also show that women often do not feel more dissatisfied with their pay nor experience higher levels of relative deprivation, a concept discussed earlier by Adams (1965).

The relationship of procedural justice and organizational outcomes are stronger for women than men, whereas the relationship between distributive justice and outcomes is stronger for men than for women (Lee & Farh, 1999). Research has shown that women tend to be less dissatisfied or more accepting of inequitable pay than men.

According to Sweeney and McFarlin (1997), women are more likely than men to define success and achievement in terms of the achievement process – how they played rather than the outcome of the game. Research also shows that groups of women try to avoid the formation of status hierarchies, whereas men have been observed to turn leaderless discussion groups into such hierarchies. One explanation for this could be that women are historically groomed to be more sensitive to other co-workers and have had always to accept the lower positions in tall hierarchical societies, especially those in the east. Also women have suffered varied role-conflicts in the workplace and tried to create an identity by breaking into the executive seat or the “glass ceiling.” Another possibility could be that women have to rely on more formal procedures and systems to obtain

various organizational outcomes because of a history of discrimination and sex-role stereotyping that has kept them out of key decision-making processes.

Cross-Cultural Dimension

Greenberg (2001) notes several objectives in studying cross-cultural differences in organizational justice. First, he states, one's goal is to comprehend systematic variation and/or causation between cultural variables and various behavioral and attitudinal variables. For example, Americans are more likely to differentiate between workers in terms of pay with respect to how well they performed, whereas Japanese are likely to pay differently-performing workers equal amounts. This shows that organizational justice is better defined from the native's point of view. That is, the Japanese societal culture seems to influence the Japanese organizational justice issues. In a more collectivistic culture like the Japanese, employees believe in equality rather than equity.

An opposing view was presented by Pillai, Williams, and Tan (2001) who explored the role of procedural and distributive justice in influencing supervisory trust, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. The findings indicate that justice and trust are related not only in a U.S. context but in German, Indian, and Hong Kong Chinese cultures. Although procedural justice plays a more important role than distributive justice in predicting satisfaction, commitment, and trust in the U.S. sample; it is distributive justice that plays a correspondingly more important role with respect to these outcomes in the Indian sample. It could be possible that the high power distance culture (i.e., the extent to which a society accepts high unequal distribution of power in institutions) and nurturing and benevolent style of leadership prevalent in India (Pillai et

al., 2001), generates a certain degree of confidence in the supervisors' ability to take care of procedural issues.

Organizational justice issues can have a large impact on transnational organizations, especially those established in lesser developed countries. Parties to an international contract may find it preferable to have their commercial disputes adjudicated by the global court rather than the courts or arbitral bodies of specific national governments (Jackson, 1998). In this respect, the reward systems, satisfaction, organizational commitment, and trust for one's organization will largely depend on the ethical administration of procedural and distributive justice laws by the courts in respective countries.

According to Jackson (1998), there is an issue as to how high the court's procedural standards should be. On the one hand, the U.S. Constitution provides standards of due process of law that far exceeds those of many countries. On the other hand, international human rights standards of procedural fairness have developed to provide a basic framework that would satisfy the minimum requirements of most other countries.

Organizational Justice and Job Satisfaction

McFarlin and Sweeney (1992) found distributive justice a more important predictor of two personal outcomes, pay satisfaction and job satisfaction, than procedural justice, whereas procedural justice was an important predictor for two organizational outcomes, organizational commitment and subordinate's evaluation of supervisor.

McFarlin and Sweeney (1992) further posit that fair treatment or noninstrumental procedural justice should lead employees to feel respected by, and proud of their

immediate work (or the organization). Hence, they are more likely to identify with and internalize the values of the organization (Brewer & Kramer, 1986, as cited in McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992). Huffman and Cain (2001) in their experiment on undergraduates (as salespeople) demonstrated that adjusting for territory difficulty can have both distributive and procedural effects on satisfaction with the performance – evaluation outcome. Referents used to gauge distributive justice may be interpersonal or intrapersonal. When an interpersonal referent is used, a person's outcomes and inputs are compared to others' outcomes and inputs in order to judge satisfaction (Huffman & Cain, 2001). With regard to procedural justice, the authors state that if adjustments for territory difficulty are perceived as fair, performing them could increase satisfaction with the outcome through this fair-process effect. The results showed that the adjustment procedure itself can be perceived as fair. Thus, procedural fairness perceptions led to outcome satisfaction.

One study by Bohlander and Blancero (1999) surveyed members of a teachers' association regarding their perceptions of procedural, distributive, and interactional justice. Concerning procedural justice, the authors concluded that while association members perceive the organization as providing procedural fairness, they do not give the association high marks on this justice construct. As with the procedural justice means, members gave the association positive ratings for interactional fairness but those ratings were not overly high. Of the three organizational justice constructs, distributive justice received the lowest perception from association members and clearly represented a weak area of member satisfaction. While the teachers' association received favorable marks for grievance administration and the resolution of member disputes, these means were not

overly strong. This study indicates the importance of procedural and interactional justice in academics. It is not only the rewards (distributive justice) that teachers are seeking, but also the fair implementation of rules and regulations, and fair interpersonal treatment that enhances teachers' perceptions of interactional justice.

Tremblay, Sire, and Balkin (2000) suggested that (a) pay satisfaction and employee benefits satisfaction are separate constructs that possess their own sets of predictors, (b) the distributive and procedural justice dimensions must be present if the attitudes toward compensation are to be properly understood, and (c) distributive justice perceptions are better predictors of pay satisfaction than procedural justice perceptions, whereas procedural justice perceptions are better predictors of employee benefits satisfaction than distributive justice perceptions. Contrary to the results by Martin and Bennet (1996), in Tremblay et al.'s study, benefits satisfaction is influenced more by process justice than by results justice. Also, contrary to Martin and Bennet's (1996), Tremblay et al. used the presence of three specific components to measure process justice rather than a global evaluation of this justice. It was surprising to find that distributive justice regarding pay and benefits provided a better explanation of satisfaction with the organization than did procedural justice. One explanation given by Tremblay et al. was that for pay and benefits the authors used four specific measures of distributive justice rather than global measure of distributive justice and compensation satisfaction. Other explanations were the possible influence of time and culture.

Kosseck, Ozeki, and Kosier's (2001) study on wellness incentive plans and organizational change led to some significant findings: (a) employees who were rated as the healthiest in their annual fitness evaluations were significantly more likely to perceive

the wellness incentive program as fair in terms of distributive justice and as a new employment contract, (b) healthier workers had better work attitudes and positively influenced productivity by having lower absenteeism and fewer doctor visits, and as expected (c) employees who thought the program was less fair procedurally had significantly lower job satisfaction, but not necessarily lower absenteeism.

The significance of the above study in terms of job satisfaction is that after controlling for healthiness, demographics, and employment background, employees who thought the program was procedurally fair just were more likely to have higher job satisfaction (Kossek, Ozeki, & Kosier, 2001). Thus, organizational justice issues have important implications in determining employees' job satisfaction.

In a study by Tang and Sarsfield-Baldwin (1996) five clearly identified factors of procedural justice emerged: (a) fairness, (b) two-way communication, (c) trust in supervisor, (d) clarity of expectations, and (e) understanding of the performance appraisal process. Also, results of their study clearly suggest that distributive justice is significantly related to satisfaction with pay, promotion, the performance appraisal, and two measures of organizational commitment (organizational commitment questionnaire and index of organizational commitment). Different aspects of procedural justice were also related to satisfaction with supervision, self-reported performance appraisal rating, performance appraisal, both measures of commitment, and job involvement. It appeared from the study that both distributive and procedural justice are important in predicting employees' subsequent personal satisfaction and commitment to the organization (Tang & Sarsfield-Baldwin, 1996).

Byrne, Rupp, and Eurich's (2003) study on the effects of discrete emotions on distributive, procedural, and interactional justice showed that individuals who rated feeling happy or proud tended to rate the three forms of fairness significantly higher than those who reported feeling angry or resentful. With this study Byrne et al. (2003) suggest that fairness may serve as an attenuator or amplifier and in this manner fair processes and treatment may alter the effects of pre-established emotions such as anger, thus resulting in a less upset angry emotion as an outcome.

Moving from personal satisfaction to group satisfaction, a study conducted by Welbourne (1998) examined the effects of procedural and distributive justice on satisfaction with gainsharing, which involves group based outcome. The study was conducted with two firms, one representing high payout condition and the other a low and a zero-bonus payment.

In this same study by Welbourne (1998) one view holds that procedural justice is more important when the outcome is group-based, and distributive justice is more important when the outcome is individual based. This might be reasonable taking into consideration the competitive nature of the groups. Being a part of a group instigates one's commitment toward the group goals and its success. When groups evaluate one group with the other they might be more concerned with the process in evaluation than the absolute outcome, because it might be the unfair process that will lead to feelings of guilt among group members. Whereas the individual might be more concerned with the personal satisfaction derived from the absolute outcome, and if s/he experiences some guilt with overpayment inequity, it can soon be eradicated by defense mechanisms. However, Welbourne (1998) suggested otherwise, finding that procedural justice is not

more important than distributive justice in predicting gainsharing satisfaction and distributive justice is more important than procedural justice in predicting gainsharing satisfaction when pay outs are high.

In conjunction with the group satisfaction research, Dulebohn and Martocchio (1998), in their study to evaluate the fairness perceptions of employees in a work group incentive based pay plan found that the evaluations of the fairness of group incentive payouts are affected by overall pay satisfaction and thus influenced by employees' satisfaction with their primary pay (i.e., base pay). Thus, the authors of this study suggest that interventions to increase fairness evaluations of work group incentive pay plan outcomes should not occur in isolation from efforts to increase satisfaction with other compensation (e.g., base pay) outcomes.

According to the group-value (noninstrumental) model, people intrinsically value some aspects of procedural justice regardless of whether they influence the outcomes achieved (Robbins, Summers, Miller, & Hendrix, 2000). Robbins et al. (2000) predicted that noninstrumental procedural justice would capture unique variance in explaining organizational commitment, turnover intentions, and compliance behavior. It would be interesting to find to what extent job satisfaction will mediate this relationship. In a study of 75 nursing department employees conducted to assess the relative importance of across-department and within-team cooperation on workplace outcomes, Carson, Philips, Yallapragada, and Roe (2001) showed that a strong support exists for the relative importance of across-departmental cooperation over within-group cooperation. As compared with within-team cooperation, across-department cooperation is more positively associated with procedural justice, interpersonal justice, satisfaction with the

supervisor feedback, supervisory rating, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. It was also found that across-department cooperation is more negatively associated with role ambiguity, role overload, role conflict, job tension, and job withdrawal intentions. Carson et al. (2001) further underplay the unimportance for team members to cooperate with each other. In fact the authors suggest that group cooperativeness and cohesion should be facilitated through the visibility of a supervisor and his or her engagement in helping behaviors.

Schappe's (1998) finding that distributive justice is the strongest predictor of job satisfaction is consistent with current organizational justice conceptualizations that suggest job satisfaction, as a context specific response is more likely to be related to distributive fairness than procedural justice (Lind & Tyler, 1988). An interesting result of Schappe's (1998) study was that interpersonal procedural justice was a stronger predictor of employee job satisfaction than structural procedural justice. One reason for this could be the ability of decision makers to treat employees well when sharing procedural information may overcome any concerns employees have about the structural characteristics of the procedures themselves.

Organizational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCB)

In a significant meta-analytic work, Viswesvaran and Ones (2002), the authors reported that procedural justice and distributive justice, though highly correlated, have a substantial unique variance associated with them. In one of their hypotheses, the authors found that the correlation between procedural justice and organizational citizenship behaviors was higher than the correlation between distributive justice and organizational citizenship behaviors (0.28 vs. 0.18), thus providing a strong support to their hypothesis.

The authors also indicated that procedural justice is more closely related to work attitudes and behaviors (like productivity, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviors) than distributive justice.

Employees at all times are concerned about both, the fairness of the outcomes they receive and fairness of their treatment within the organization. As discussed earlier, distributive and procedural justice are important determinants of non-traditional or OCBs. According to Williams, Pitre, and Zainuba (2002), employees who perceive their relationship with the organization as a social exchange (i.e., diffuse obligations based on reciprocal trust), than as an economic exchange (i.e., contractual obligations and precise terms of exchange), may be more likely to exhibit OCB because a social contract is more ambiguous than an economic contract and because extra-role behaviors may be less likely to be perceived as exploitation and submission.

Williams et al. (2002) found that though distributive, formal procedural, and interactional justice were all related to OCB, only perceptions of interactional fairness influenced an employee's intention to perform organizational citizenship behaviors. Thus, the employees who believed that they personally were treated fairly by their supervisors were significantly more likely to perform citizenship activities. A significant factor in Williams et al.'s (2002) study was a wide variety of employees from a number of industries and companies that thereby increased the generalizability of the results. Also, the authors found that interactional fairness perceptions influenced OCB intentions across a number of industries and companies. When the earlier researchers have consistently failed to show a correlation between job satisfaction and job performance, maybe we can supplement job performance with organizational citizenship behavior and

indicate employees' loyalty toward her/his supervisor and the organization in general as one of the measures of job performance.

Out of the four predictors- procedural and distributive justice, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment used by Alotaibi (2001) in investigating their effect on OCB, only procedural and distributive justice could account for unique variances in Kuwaiti workers' OCB. The findings of this study also suggest that procedural and distributive justice, both contribute toward explaining variance in OCB, with the strongest correlation associated with procedural justice ($r = 0.22, p < .001$). According to Alotaibi (2001) a possible explanation for this finding may be that with respect to procedural justice: "Fair procedures are important beyond the extent to which they explain a fair distribution" (p. 5).

Lastly, Farh, Podsakoff, and Organ (1990) showed that job satisfaction does not in any sense directly relate to organizational citizenship behaviors, however, leader fairness and task characteristics are the relevant causal variables, with satisfaction and OCB correlated because they are common effects of the causal factors. In this study it was worth noting that along with leader's or supervisor's fair treatment (interactional justice) toward the subordinates, it was the task attributes that contributed to a sense of responsibility and personal efficacy that becomes more, rather than less, sensitive to opportunities for discretionary contributions. Hence, along the lines of Herzberg's motivational theory, it is the motivators (in this case – responsibility and job enrichment) that will drive a person to take that extra step out of his/her job description.

Conclusions and the Present Study

Despite the vast pool of research on organizational justice, job satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behavior, there are still contradicting views on the components of justice (distributive, procedural, and interactional) that explain job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior. Viswesvaran and Ones (2002), truly hailed the importance of procedural justice above and beyond distributive justice. The authors in their separate nine meta-analyses found that procedural justice was associated to a greater extent than distributive justice with organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviors, and productivity. However, distributive and procedural justice correlated similarly with job satisfaction.

On the other hand, in McFarlin and Sweeney's (1992) study, distributive justice correlated highly with job satisfaction than the procedural justice. Bohlander and Blancero (1999) found that in academics, only procedural and interactional justice are better correlated with member satisfaction than distributive justice.

Further, cross-cultural differences in organizational justice have been studied widely by various authors (Alotaibi, 2001; Aryee et al., 2002; Farh et al., 1990; Greenberg, 2001; Jackson, 1998; Kuehn & Al-Busaidi, 2002; Pillai et al., 2001; Viswesvaran, Deshpande, & Joseph, 1998). From these studies, definitions of organizational justice constructs and OCBs are context and culture specific. For example, Pillai et al. (2001) show that procedural justice measures strongly predict satisfaction, commitment, and trust in a U.S. sample, whereas distributive justice plays an important role in predicting these same outcomes in the Indian sample.

The amount of unethical practices in corporate America appears to be increasing. Despite this reality, literature addressing the relationship between organizational justice and job satisfaction (i.e., both supervisor and organization specific satisfaction) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) needs to be updated. Past research has identified a positive relationship between distributive justice and job satisfaction, and procedural and interactional justice to OCB. It has also been noticed in the previous research that if training in organizational justice is given to important employees like the union leaders, organizational justice tends to increase among organizational employees than otherwise. Furthermore, a limited amount of studies have looked into organizational justice in hierarchical and non-hierarchical organizations. Hence, the main goal of this study is to explore the relationship between organizational justice and the different constructs under job satisfaction and OCB, and in the very process investigate other possible antecedents. The researcher intends to examine how job satisfaction and OCB are linked to organizational technology used, diversity, culture, and the organizational goal(s) (e.g. profitability, growth, market share, social responsibility, employee welfare).

Also, the researcher intends to investigate the type of industry that will influence the employee job satisfaction and OCB intentions. However, these investigations will be a part of exploratory research goals. The organizational structure may be comprised of formalization, specialization, hierarchy of authority, centralization, professionalism, and personnel ratios. These structural factors may exist in varying degrees in the organizations under study. The purpose of this study will also be to explore the possible relations of the organizational dimensions to job satisfaction and OCB.

Hypothesis 1a: Employees who score high on perceptions of organizational justice will have significantly higher job satisfaction, than employees who score moderate or low on perceptions of organizational justice.

Hypothesis 1b: Employees who score high on perceptions of organizational justice will have significantly higher organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs), than employees who score moderate or low on perceptions of organizational justice.

The amount of fair treatment (interactional justice), fair rules and procedures (procedural justice), and equity in rewards (distributive justice) that the employers exhibit toward their subordinates will have a lasting impression on these employees which will result in high job satisfaction and the subordinates in turn will be obliged to perform extra-role behaviors as a part of their psychological contract with their employers and the organization in general. Previous meta-analytic research has hailed the importance of organizational justice in predicting varied organizational outcomes (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001; Viswesvaran & Ones, 2001) and more recent research is being conducted on the effects of communication medium and feedback directions on fairness perceptions (Byrne & Masterson, 2003). Since the sample of employees studied was from varied organizations, specially service industries in the mid-west, the researcher hypothesized that employees with an overall higher organizational justice scores would differ from employees with moderate or low organizational justice scores with regards to their job satisfaction and exhibition of organizational citizenship behaviors.

Hypothesis 2a: Employees who score high on perceptions of distributive justice will have higher job satisfaction, than employees who score low on perceptions of distributive justice.

Hypothesis 2b: Employees who score high on perceptions of distributive justice will exhibit higher organizational citizenship behaviors, than employees who score low on perceptions of distributive justice.

Although the researcher was not separately investigating the effects of organizational justice on group-based and individual-based outcomes, the researcher, as also indicated by Welbourne (1998), hypothesized that distributive justice is important towards individual based outcomes as opposed to the group-based. Since the data represented one individual rather than the group and was collected from employees in U.S. mid-western organizations, the researcher expected to find a strong variance between distributive justice and job satisfaction.

Colquitt et al. (2001) also found that distributive justice was stronger in predicting two organizational outcomes, outcome satisfaction ($\beta = .54$) and withdrawal (i.e., behaviors such as absenteeism, turnover, and neglect) ($\beta = -.51$), whereas no strong variations were noticed for either job satisfaction or organizational citizenship behaviors. However, Viswesvaran and Ones (2001), found that distributive justice significantly correlated with job satisfaction ($r = .35$), but had no correlation with OCB. Thus, these two recent meta-analytic studies report mixed findings for the effects of distributive justice on organizational outcomes.

Hypothesis 3a: Employees who score high on perceptions of procedural justice will have higher job satisfaction, than employees who score low on perceptions of procedural justice.

Hypothesis 3b: Employees who score high on perceptions of procedural justice will exhibit higher organizational citizenship behaviors, than employees who score low on perceptions of procedural justice.

Colquitt et al.'s (2001) meta-analytic review of organizational justice indicated higher unique effects of procedural justice at $p < .05$ for system-referenced outcomes like outcome satisfaction ($\beta = .17$), job satisfaction ($\beta = .48$), organizational commitment ($\beta = .42$), system-referenced evaluation of authority ($\beta = .30$), and performance ($\beta = .53$). The relationship between procedural justice and more general organizational outcomes was also found in some other cross-cultural studies (Alotaibi, 2001; Viswesvaran & Ones, 2001; Pillai et al., 2001). For example, Viswesvaran and Ones (2001) found that procedural justice was significantly correlated with organizational commitment ($r = .54$), OCB ($r = .28$) and job satisfaction ($r = .36$). Unfortunately, Colquitt et al.'s (2001) meta-analytic study did not provide support for a relationship between procedural justice dimensions and OCBs directed toward the organization (OCBOs). Hence, the researcher of this study challenged the previous research findings and hypothesized a stronger relationship between employees' perceptions of procedural justice and OCBs.

Hypothesis 4a: Employees who score high on perceptions of interactional justice will have higher job satisfaction, than employees who score low on perceptions of interactional justice.

Hypothesis 4b: Employees who score high on perceptions of interactional justice will exhibit higher organizational citizenship behaviors, than employees who score low on perceptions of interactional justice.

Once again, Colquitt et al.'s (2001) meta-analytic study predicted high unique effects of interactional (both interpersonal and informational dimensions) justice for job satisfaction, organizational commitment, agent-referenced evaluation of authority, OCBI, and performance. Also, the researcher of the present study used a single construct of interactional justice rather than sub-divide it into two dimensions, interpersonal and informational.

Hypothesis 5: There will be a significant positive correlation between job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviors.

Previous research has failed to suggest a strong relationship between job satisfaction and performance; a seminal meta-analytic work by Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985) demonstrates that the best estimate of the true population correlation between satisfaction and performance is relatively low at .17. Instead, some researchers have suggested that there may exist a positive correlation between job satisfaction and OCBI. Thus, the author of the present study hypothesized that a strong correlation existed between job satisfaction and OCB measures among the sample of service industry employees.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Participants

The sample for this study was comprised of 235 incumbents employed across various job positions in two or more medium size Midwestern organizations. These organizations were primarily a part of the service industry. Out of the total sample, service industry comprised of 64%, education (14%), information technology (5%), and the remaining 17% belonged to other types of industries mentioned by the participants in the data.

Regarding the two types of Midwestern organizations from where majority of the data were collected, one belonged to the hospital industry and other was an educational institution. Thus, data were collected from different age groups ranging from 19 to 65 years.

The basic premise of this research effort was to identify employees' perceptions of organizational justice on job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) and in the process identify the different antecedents to job satisfaction and OCB.

Demographic information concerning the employees' ethnicity and gender, work shifts, and full-time or part-time positions was evaluated. Also, the number of years the employees have been employed with the organization was recorded. Finally, specifics pertinent to the employees' current position, as well as number of years employed in that position was collected (see Appendix A).

Analyses

Hypotheses 1a and 1b was analyzed using a one-way ANOVA. Specifically, the researcher investigated the variance between the three groups with high, moderate, and low scores in organizational justice and its effects on job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs).

Hypotheses 2a and 2b was analyzed using an independent sample t-test in which the relationship between employees with high and low scores in distributive justice and its effect on employees' job satisfaction and OCBs was assessed.

Hypotheses 3a and 3b was analyzed using an independent sample t-test in which the relationship between employees with high and low scores in procedural justice and its effect on employees' job satisfaction and OCBs was assessed.

Hypotheses 4a and 4b was analyzed using an independent sample t-test in which the relationship between employees with high and low scores in interactional justice and its effect on employees' job satisfaction and OCBs was assessed.

Hypothesis 5 was analyzed using a bivariate correlational statistic. The two dependent variables to be analyzed were job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior.

To determine high, moderate, and low level groups of organizational justice scores, the researcher considered half standard deviation (*SD*) within the sample mean score on organizational justice as moderate and the scores exceeding half *SD* on either sides were considered high and low in organizational justice.

Measures

Organizational justice. The author utilized Tang and Sarsfield-Baldwin's (1996) measures for perceptions of distributive justice (5 items, $\alpha = .95$), Colquitt's (2001) procedural justice (3 items, $\alpha = .86$), and interactional justice (6 items, $\alpha = .91$) (see Appendix B). An overall factor analysis has found support for these three types of justice. Although Colquitt (2001) has found evidence that interactional justice can be divided into two components: informational (fairness of communication) and interpersonal (fairness of treatment), a factor analyses on the justice items in Byrne and Masterson's (2003) study has shown that these two sub-forms of interactional justice can be combined into a single factor. So the researcher of the present study used a single interactional justice construct, a three-factor model (i.e., distributive, procedural, and interactional justice) as defined by Colquitt (2001). According to Colquitt (2001), the three-factor model is the second-most commonly used conceptualization only after the four-factor model (with distributive, procedural, informational, and interpersonal justice).

However, Colquitt (2001) conducted a confirmatory factor analysis that supported a four-factor structure of organizational justice model, suggesting distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice as distinct dimensions. Further, Colquitt's (2001) study supported the construct validity of the justice measure and the good fit of the four-factor structural model suggested adequate predictive and discriminant validity. Also, the four organizational justice factors (distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational) predicted four different outcomes: outcome satisfaction, rule compliance, leader evaluation, and collective esteem.

Some examples of the organizational justice items under Tang and Sarsfield-Baldwin's (1996) and Colquitt's (2001) three-factor model used by the researcher in the present study are "How fair has the organization been in rewarding you when you consider the amount of effort that you have put forth?" "How fair has the organization been in rewarding you when you take into account the amount of education and training that you have?" (distributive justice items); "How fair has the organization been in developing procedures that are free from bias?" "How fair has the organization been in developing procedures that are based on accurate information?" (procedural justice items); and "To what extent has your supervisor and/or colleague refrained from improper remarks or comments?" "To what extent has your supervisor and/or colleague seemed to tailor his/her communications to individuals' specific needs?" (interactional justice items).

Job satisfaction. An 8-item job satisfaction scale developed by Mark Nagy (1995) was used to measure employees' level of job satisfaction (see Appendix C). In order to use this for the present study, both verbal and written permission were sought and acquired from the author. This scale, developed by Mark Nagy (1995), provides valuable information about the incumbent's current amount of satisfaction. Eight items in Nagy Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (NJSQ) focus on job satisfaction and eight on job importance. The author of the current study modified the NJSQ by reducing it to 8 job satisfaction items. The overall reliability for the questionnaire items was computed, and a reliability coefficient of .92 was found. Some example items are "How does the type of work that you currently do compare to what you think it should be?", "How does the quality of colleagues and people you currently work with compare to what you think it

should be?” and “How does the amount of autonomy or personal freedom that you have compare to what you think it should be?”

Organizational citizenship behavior. An 8-item scale developed by Bettencourt and Brown (1997) and slightly modified by the author will be used to measure employees' organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) (see Appendix D). Some example items of this scale are “I voluntarily assist customers even if it means going beyond job requirements,” “I often go above and beyond the call of duty when helping customers,” and “I help orient new employees even though it is not required.”

Bettencourt and Brown's (1997) original study demonstrates support for a positive relationship between contact employee fairness perceptions and their prosocial service behaviors (customer service behaviors and cooperation with fellow employees) and job satisfaction. For the prosocial service behaviors measure, Bettencourt and Brown (1997) generated items for extra-role and role-prescribed customer service. Items were created based upon conceptual distinctions between role-prescribed and extra-role behavior provided by Organ (1988), while making specific reference to the customer in each item generated.

The author for the current study selected three items from extra-role customer service section, no items from role-prescribed customer service section, and four items from cooperation scale used by Bettencourt and Brown (1997). The last item, “I willingly participate in my organization's community activities and/or other social gatherings” was designed by the author and added to the scale. The scale reliabilities of the prosocial behavior dimensions used by Bettencourt and Brown ranged from 0.94 to 0.97.

Procedure

After obtaining the approval from both the thesis committee and the Institutional Review Board to conduct the proposed research, the researcher notified primary employers in the organizations with whom the field study was to be scheduled. The researcher then sought permission from Director of Human Resources at Newman Regional Health, Director of Business Administration at School of Business, Emporia State University (ESU), and Dean of Teacher's College at Emporia State University to administer the present study. The participants were primarily employees working as either full-time or part-time in any of the above organizations. In case of the School of Business and Teacher's College, the employees were faculty, staff, and students. The questionnaires were distributed to only those students who were currently working either full-time or part-time. The researcher also collected data from employees outside the three primary organizations. Therefore, the author initially targeted a sample size that primarily belonged to the service industries.

The questionnaire surveys were handed by the main researcher to the employees over a period of two weeks. The surveys were then collected by keeping a drop box at a particular location in the organization and by personally scheduling a meeting with the participants (e.g., students or department faculty) by administering the survey under strict testing conditions (see also *Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing*). Confidentiality of all the participants was protected by all means and at all times.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

The primary purpose of this study was to examine the effects of employees' perceptions of organizational justice and its effects on job satisfaction (JS) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) or extra-role behaviors. The data were primarily collected from two major organizations in a small mid-western town in Kansas. As mentioned earlier in the methods section, 64% of the total sample size belonged to the service industry, 15% to education, 5% to information technology, and the remaining 17% belonged to other types of industries.

Out of the 223 employees who responded to the gender item, there were 173 females and 50 males. Out of the total participants in the study 205 were White, 16 were Hispanics, one was American Indian, and one was African American. Four subjects did not specify their race. Thus, the majority of the sample was comprised of Whites. A high number of participants in this study belonged to a young workforce. The age group 19-25 years had the highest number of respondents (30%). Also, regarding the job status of the subjects, 150 were in full time positions, 71 in part time and the remaining 11 belonged either to "on call" or a combination of "on call," full time, and part time status. Descriptive statistics for type of industry and position are mentioned in Table 1.

Table 2 shows descriptive statistics in absolute mean values for organizational justice, job satisfaction, OCB, and the three types of organizational justice (distributive, procedural, and interactional). These descriptive statistics indicated that employees are satisfied ($M = 29.94$ out of a possible score of 40), they are likely to perform high OCBs ($M = 34.73$ out of a possible score of 40), and tend to have moderate perceptions of

organizational justice ($M = 50.97$ out of a possible score of 70). Thus, overall employees scored better on the two dependent variables (job satisfaction and OCB) as compared to the independent variable, organizational justice.

Four sets of hypotheses were analyzed. The author had posited that employees who score high on perceptions of organizational justice would have significantly higher JS and OCB scores than employees who score moderate or low on perceptions of organizational justice (Hypotheses 1a and 1b). In the second, third, and the fourth set of hypotheses, organizational justice was classified into three types: (a) distributive justice, (b) procedural justice, and (c) interactional justice. Each of these three sets of hypotheses were further divided into two, each set examining the effects of each type of justice on job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). In the fifth hypothesis, the author posited that a positive significant correlation exists between JS scores and OCBs.

The independent variables in this study were classifications of organizational justice (i.e., distributive, procedural, and interactional) and also the organizational justice variable as a whole. The dependent variables of this study were job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB).

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Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for Type of Industry and Type of Position

Type of Industry	Frequency	Percent
Manufacturing	2	0.9
Service	151	64.3
Education	35	14.9
Information	12	5.1
Technology		
Other	26	11.1
Manuf/Serv	1	0.4
Serv/Educ	5	2.1
Manuf/Serv/Educ/	1	0.4
InfoTech		
Did Not Reply	2	0.9
Total	233	99.1

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Table 1 (continued)

Type of position	Frequency	Percent
Supervisor	12	5.1
Professional	57	24.3
Owner	1	0.4
Senior management	4	1.7
Middle management	12	5.1
Secretarial/Front desk	28	11.9
Technical	25	10.6
Service-oriented	48	20.4
Laborer	12	5.1
Faculty	10	4.3
Staff	8	3.4
Graduate Assistant	3	1.3
Other	12	5.1
Did Not Reply	3	1.3
Total	232	98.7

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics in Absolute Mean Values for Organizational Justice, Job Satisfaction, Organizational Citizenship Behavior, Distributive, Procedural, and Interactional Justice.

	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Variance</i>
Organizational Justice Total	233	50.97	12.22	.80	149.55
Job Satisfaction Total	232	29.94	6.02	.39	36.27
OCB Total ¹	232	34.73	4.69	.31	22.09
Distributive Justice Total	233	17.14	5.46	.36	29.85
Procedural Justice Total	233	10.86	3.18	.21	10.09
Interactional Justice Total	232	23.06	5.38	.35	28.98
Valid N	231				

Hypotheses 1a and 1b

The effects of employees' perceptions of organizational justice on job satisfaction and OCB discussed in Hypothesis 1a and 1b revealed significantly large F values when computed using a one-way ANOVA. The large F value for the relationship between employees' perceptions of organizational justice and job satisfaction, $F(2, 229) = 92.26, p < .001$ is indicative of a significant relationship between these variables thus suggesting support for Hypothesis 1a. Hypothesis 1b also posited that a significant relationship will exist between employees' perceptions of organizational justice and OCB. Results from this relationship also produced significant findings, $F(2, 229) = 7.83, p < .001$. One-way ANOVA for this set of hypotheses can be seen in Table 3. Thus, the results from the first set of hypotheses suggest that there exists a significantly strong difference between employees' perceptions of high, moderate, and low organizational justice with both, job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior. Differences in the means and standard deviations for these organizational justice groups are reported in Table 4.

This hypothesis implies that those employees who are treated in a just or a fair manner may be more likely to experience high job satisfaction and maybe likely to perform more extra-role behaviors (OCBs) than those with moderate and low perceptions of organizational justice.

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Table 3

Analysis of Variance on the Effect of Employees' Perceptions of Organizational Justice and Their Effect on Job Satisfaction and Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

Source		<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>
Job Satisfaction	Between	2	3738.39	1869.19	92.25*
	Within	229	4639.64	20.26	
	Total	231	8378.03		
OCB	Between	2	326.45	163.22	7.82*
	Within	229	4775.43	20.85	
	Total	231	5101.89		

* $p < .001$

Table 4

Means and Standard Deviations for Organizational Justice (OJ) Comparison Groups

Source	Comparison Groups		
	High OJ	Moderate OJ	Low OJ
Job Satisfaction			
<i>M</i>	34.74	30.06	24.65
<i>SD</i>	3.66	4.40	5.36
OCB			
<i>M</i>	36.17	34.70	33.19
<i>SD</i>	3.60	4.88	5.10

Note: All groups were significantly different from one another.

Hypotheses 2a and 2b

The second set of hypotheses suggested that those employees with high perceptions of distributive justice would score high on job satisfaction and OCB, and those with low perceptions of distributive justice would score low on job satisfaction and OCB scores. Independent sample t tests were used and the effect of distributive justice on job satisfaction revealed significance at $t(228) = 10.08, p < .001$. The effect of distributive justice on organizational citizenship behavior also suggested significance at $t(228) = 3.71, p < .001$ (see Table 5). Hence, hypotheses 2a and 2b were strongly supported.

This suggests that the management should give fair attention to the distribution of rewards, benefits, and other compensations since employees' job satisfaction and their OCBs are determined by the principles of equity.

Hypotheses 3a and 3b

The third set of hypotheses posited that employees with high perceptions of procedural justice would score high on job satisfaction and OCB, and those with low perceptions of procedural justice would score low on job satisfaction and OCB scores. Independent sample t -tests were used to measure the effect of employees' perceptions of procedural justice on job satisfaction and it was significant at $t(228) = 9.12, p < .001$. Also, the effect of employees' perceptions of procedural justice on OCB was significant at $t(228) = 2.02, p < .05$ (see Table 6). Thus, the author found support for both hypotheses 3a and 3b.

This set of hypotheses advocate that organization's rules, regulations, and policies should be regularly updated to reduce or eradicate any unfair company statements that might affect the well-being of all employees.

Hypotheses 4a and 4b

The next set of hypotheses suggested that employees with high perceptions of interactional justice would score significantly higher on job satisfaction and OCB, whereas employees with low perceptions of interactional justice would score significantly lower on job satisfaction and OCB. In this set of hypotheses too, independent sample t tests were used and employees' perceptions of interactional justice on job satisfaction were significant at $t(227) = 7.83, p < .001$; employees' perceptions of interactional justice on OCB were also significant at $t(228) = 3.02, p < .001$ level (see Table 7).

From this set of hypotheses, employee participation in decision making and their fair interpersonal treatment may result in high job satisfaction and OCBs, which in turn might lead to increased organizational performance. Such kind of interactional justice also help us understand Thibaut and Walker's (1975) early concepts of process control (i.e., opportunity to express one's opinions and concerns) and decision control (i.e., ability to influence the actual outcomes of the decisions).

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Table 5

Independent Sample t Tests for Employees with High and Low Perceptions of Distributive Justice (DJ) and Their Subsequent Effect on Job Satisfaction and Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

	High DJ		Low DJ		<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
Job Satisfaction	32.96	4.54	26.28	5.55	10.08*	230
OCB	35.73	4.12	33.49	5.07	3.71*	230

* $p < .001$

Table 6

Independent Sample t Tests for Employees with High and Low Perceptions of Procedural Justice (PJ) and Their Subsequent Effect on Job Satisfaction and Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

	High PJ		Low PJ		<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
Job Satisfaction	32.40	4.85	26.04	5.64	9.12**	230
OCB	35.21	4.23	33.94	5.30	2.02*	230

** $p < .001$

* $p < .05$

Table 7

Independent Sample t Tests for Employees with High and Low Perceptions of Interactional Justice (IJ) and Their Subsequent Effect on Job Satisfaction (JS) and Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

	High IJ		Low IJ		<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
JS	32.47	4.90	26.96	5.78	7.84*	229
OCB	35.55	4.23	33.71	5.06	3.02*	230

* $p < .001$

Thus, all four hypotheses were supported with significantly large F value (for Hypotheses 1a and 1b) and significant t values for the remaining three sets of hypotheses. These findings suggest that organizational justice is an important concept that management and supervisors alike must practice in their respective workplaces.

Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis 5 was analyzed using a bivariate correlational statistic. A significant positive correlation was found between job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior ($r = .26, p < .01$, two-tailed), thus also gaining support for Hypothesis 5. Correlation coefficients can also be seen in Table 8. This hypothesis suggests that the higher the job satisfaction among employees, the greater the likelihood that they will perform organizational citizenship behaviors. Such behaviors may be important for the organization when cutting costs and during the downturn in economy. These behaviors may also maintain high employee loyalty and commitment toward the organization and/or supervisors.

Exploratory Analyses

The researcher also performed a one-way ANOVA to search for a significant difference between groups with intent to leave (group one) and stay (group two) with the organization, and those who are undecided (group three). The researcher measured this effect on job satisfaction and OCB and found significant differences. For job satisfaction the effect was significant at $F(2, 227) = 15.93, p < .001$; and for OCB the effect was significant at $F(2, 227) = 5.85, p < .01$ (see Table 9). Means and standard deviations for these groups are shown in Table 10.

This exploratory analysis suggests that those employees who wish to remain with the organization are satisfied with their job and are more likely to perform extra-role behaviors than those who wish to leave or are undecided about their intention to remain with the organization.

Though job dissatisfaction may be one of the reasons for employees leaving the organization or remaining undecided, the other reasons could be when employees are relocating or just moving to another organization which has a better benefits package. However, the exploratory analysis run for this study suggests that people like to be treated fairly, with dignity and with respect; and their intent to remain with the organization will depend on how fairly they are treated by the management, supervisors, and/or colleagues. Thus, the management should emphasize on all aspects of organizational justice (distributive, procedural, and interactional) for better organizational performance, employee satisfaction, loyalty, and organizational commitment.

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Table 8

Correlations Between Organizational Justice, Distributive Justice, Procedural Justice, Interactional Justice, Job Satisfaction (JS), and Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB).

Scale	OJ	DJ	PJ	IJ	JS	OCB
Organizational Justice (OJ)	--	.89**	.83**	.85**	.71**	.22**
Distributive Justice (DJ)		--	.73**	.58**	.65**	.23**
Procedural Justice (PJ)			--	.54**	.59**	.19**
Interactional Justice (IJ)				--	.58**	.14*
JS					--	.26**
OCB						--

** $p < .01$

* $p < .05$

Table 9

Analysis of Variance on the Effect of Employees' Intention to Remain with the Organization and their Effect on Job Satisfaction and Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

Source		<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>
Job Satisfaction	Between	2	1023.17	511.59	15.93*
	Within	227	7289.53	32.11	
	Total	229	8312.70		
OCB	Between	2	242.06	121.03	5.85*
	Within	227	4694.31	20.68	
	Total	229	4936.37		

* $p < .001$

Table 10

Means and Standard Deviations for Intent to Remain with the Organization Comparison Groups

Source	Comparison Groups		
	Intent to Stay	Not sure	Intent to Leave
Job Satisfaction			
<i>M</i>	31.34	26.14	27.67
<i>SD</i>	5.20	5.46	7.40
OCB			
<i>M</i>	35.41	34.08	32.71
<i>SD</i>	4.07	3.85	6.58

Note: All groups were significantly different from one another.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

This research attempted to investigate the effect of employees' perceptions of organizational justice (i.e., distributive, procedural and interactional justice) on job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) or extra-role behaviors. An overview of the literature on organizational justice suggested that organizational justice is important to determine the levels of job satisfaction among employees and also predict employees' organizational citizenship behaviors. The main question of interest to the researcher, however, was to investigate the significant differences (if any exist) between groups of employees with high, moderate, and low perceptions of organizational justice and its effect on job satisfaction and OCB.

Indicating a significantly strong support to all five sets of hypotheses, the results of this study suggest that there exists a significantly strong difference between employees with high, moderate, and low perceptions of organizational justice and its effect on job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). Thus, the results of this study are consistent with conclusions drawn from previous research (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997; Bohlander & Blancero, 1999; Colquitt et al., 2001; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Tang & Sarsfield-Baldwin, 1996; Viswesvaran & Ones, 2002). In Hypotheses 1a and 1b the researcher posited that employees' with high perceptions of organizational justice will differ significantly from those with moderate or low perceptions of organizational justice following their subsequent effect on job satisfaction and OCB. Though previous research indicates that distributive, procedural, and interactional justice have significant effects on employee work attitudes and behaviors, significant differences

between employees' perceptions of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice in this study lead to differences in employees' level of job satisfaction and their involvement with extra-role behaviors.

Employers should then treat all employees fairly in order to maintain high satisfaction among their workers, maintain or increase employee loyalty toward the organization, and in turn increase the employee retention rate. If the management or supervisors fail to implement fair practices, the employees will tend to experience low satisfaction and will be less involved in extra-role behaviors.

One of the reasons for such a significantly large F value (92.2) could be accredited to the fact that the sample was collected primarily from two service-oriented industries. It might be a general assumption that service-oriented organizations have more opportunities for exhibiting OCBs as compared to manufacturing and information technology firms. Some previous studies (Byrne, 2003; Colquitt, 2001) have used undergraduate students as their subjects which may have deterred the external validity of the study. Collecting data from the employees in the field during regular working hours provided an added incentive to this study since employees' current perceptions of organizational justice were measured while the employees were still working at their respective workplaces. Thus, this procedure also increased the external validity of the study.

The next three sets of hypotheses were classified under three types of organizational justice. Each type of organizational justice was then divided into two distinct groups of employees (high and low) based on their average scores on organizational justice scales and their effect on job satisfaction and OCB was measured

using independent sample *t* tests. Hypotheses 2a and 2b stated that employees with high perceptions of distributive justice will score high on job satisfaction and OCB, and those with low perceptions will score low on job satisfaction and OCB. This set of hypotheses was also strongly supported, thus validating Adams (1963) equity theory upon which the concept of distributive justice is based. This second set of hypotheses also supported some of the previous research (e.g., Gilliland, 1993; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Tremblay et al., 2000) in the field of distributive justice which suggests that an employee will perceive dissatisfaction when he/she perceives inequity between his/her input to output ratios as compared to his/her colleagues' input to output ratios. Hypotheses 2 through 4 were supported using independent sample *t* tests.

However, distributive justice is still regarded as an important determinant of personal outcomes such as pay satisfaction and job satisfaction (McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992). Though employees are still concerned about their pay checks and ultimate rewards for the job well done they might also indulge into a "self-serving bias" behavior. As noted earlier by Kossek et al., (2001), employees who are more likely to be favorably affected by HR policy changes are consistently more likely to view them as fair both in terms of outcomes and procedures. Thus, previous research also hails the importance of procedural justice that led the author to design the third set of hypothesis.

Hypotheses 3a and 3b posited that employees with high perceptions of procedural justice will score high on job satisfaction and OCB, whereas those with low perceptions of procedural justice will have low job satisfaction and OCB scores. This set of hypothesis was also supported suggesting that procedures are an important factor in organizational justice issues. In a study of organizational justice between coworkers,

Byrne (2003) found that out of the three types of organizational justice, only procedural justice was significantly positively correlated with OCB, and there was a significant correlation between distributive, procedural, and interactional justice and coworker satisfaction. Procedural justice has also been linked meta-analytically to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, citizenship behavior, and job performance (Colquitt et al., 2001; Viswesvaran & Ones, 2002).

In this third set of hypothesis (Hypothesis 3a), employees with high perceptions of procedural justice differed significantly on job satisfaction scores when compared to those with low perceptions of procedural justice. It is rather commonsensical to the managers or supervisors that fair implementation of procedures and equal treatment should make their employees happy. However, it seems that not many employers practice such simple procedural justice principles.

Hypothesis 3b also showed significant differences between employees with high perceptions of procedural justice and those with low perceptions, and their effect on OCB. Although employees might be treated unfairly they do not want to confess about their lack of citizenship behavior. Future research may need to focus on the effect of different personality types on employees' organizational citizenship behavior. It is also time to more broadly consider the effect that emotions, personality, or other constructs may have on the formation of fairness perceptions themselves (Byrne, 2003). Results of a study by Wright, Philo, and Pritchard (2003) on participation, procedural justice, and performance suggest that the two dimensions of procedural justice, Voice (i.e., opportunity to express one's opinions and concerns) and Influence (i.e., ability to influence the actual outcomes of the decision), were both significantly and strongly

associated with performance improvement following the feedback intervention. Thus, from these findings we may also interpret that the management should allow fair Voice to the employees in decision making processes.

The fourth set of hypothesis (Hypotheses 4a and 4b) were also strongly supported and confirmed that a significant difference exists between employees with high perceptions of interactional justice on job satisfaction (Hypothesis 4a) and OCB (Hypothesis 4b) and those employees with low perceptions of interactional justice. This result is also in conjunction with previous research (e.g., Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001) that suggests interactional justice is related to cognitive, affective, and behavioral reactions toward the management representatives, that is, the direct supervisor or the source of justice. Thus, care needs to be taken by the management or supervisors in its interpersonal treatment of employees, especially during interviews needed for selection, performance appraisals, and other feedback interventions.

In this study, 65% of the sample size belonged to the service sector, 15% to education, 5% comprised of information technology, and only 1% to the manufacturing. Since there is regular interpersonal interaction among supervisors, employees, and customers in service industries as compared to information technology and manufacturing; the type of industry may have affected the results for the fourth set of hypotheses. The maxim, “treat thy neighbor as you would like to be treated” is then a golden rule that can be understood through the concept of interactional justice.

The fifth hypothesis measured the correlation between job satisfaction scores and OCBs. Previous researchers (e.g., Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985) have argued in their meta-analysis about the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance and

have found very low correlation of only .17. Although in this thesis study, the correlation between job satisfaction and OCB was not very strong ($r = .26$), it was nonetheless significant at the .01 level. Thus, managers and supervisors may consider measuring employees' OCBs in order to maintain a check on employee retention and turnover rate. However, one loophole in this strategy could be that employees who are extroverted and have amiable personality may still perform citizenship behaviors regardless of the organizational injustice present in the organization.

Organ and Lingl (1995) have found such linkages between personality, job satisfaction, and OCBs among employees in two separate firms. In their study, agreeableness was significantly linked to satisfaction at work, particularly in the context of work relationships, whereas conscientiousness was a reliable predictor of OCB. Barrick and Mount (1991) examined the five main personality dimensions of the Big Five for five occupational groups (professionals, police, managers, sales, and skilled or semi-skilled), the researchers found that conscientiousness was a consistent predictor for job performance criteria for all occupational groups. Thus, from previous research we may conclude that employees with a dominant conscientiousness personality trait may perform more OCBs as compared to those that possess little or no conscientiousness trait.

The researcher of this study also found significant positive correlations between all three types of organizational justice and the two dependent variables (job satisfaction and OCB) (see Table 7). In general, distributive justice correlated the strongest with job satisfaction and OCB as compared to both, procedural and interactional justice. This indicates that employees are still concerned about the final outcomes of their job performance (e.g., salary, promotions, and raise) and how satisfied they are and to what

extent they will perform OCBs may largely be determined by distributive justice principles. This finding supported some previous studies (e.g., Bohlander & Blancero, 1999; Kossek et al., 2001; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992), but contradicted the results of other studies (e.g., Moorman, 1991; Skarlicki & Latham, 1996; Visweswaran & Ones, 2002; Williams et al., 2002).

Though the three types of justice correlated significantly with OCB, they did not indicate strong correlations. However, all three justice dimensions correlated fairly strongly with job satisfaction. This finding suggests that organizational justice may strongly predict employee job satisfaction, but might illustrate a weaker link with OCB.

The author of this study also collected some qualitative data from the employees at the hospital and the university. The last question item asked on the questionnaire was “have you ever experienced any injustice in your organization?” and “if you have, please explain below” (see Appendix D). Some interesting comments regarding organizational injustice that the researcher came across were “supervisors favor those they like, too many smoke breaks for smokers, no short-term follow up from grievance process and no support from upper management.” The researcher further intends to categorize these comments into different types of injustice (distributive, procedural, and interactional) that the employees have encountered.

Implications of the Study

Overall, the results of this study suggest that there is a strong relationship between the three factors of organizational justice (distributive, procedural, and interactional) and job satisfaction and OCB as also suggested by some recent meta-analytic studies in organizational justice literature (Colquitt et al., 2001; Visweswaran & Ones, 2002). There

were significant differences found between the three groups with different perception levels (high, moderate, and low) of organizational justice and its effect on job satisfaction and OCB. The researcher also found significant differences between two groups with high and low perceptions in each distributive, procedural, and interactional justice and their effect on job satisfaction and OCB. These findings suggest that the management and supervisors in the workplace should consider the importance of organizational justice and practice it regularly to improve employee job satisfaction and increase their extra-role behaviors or OCBs.

These OCBs may also translate into employee commitment and loyalty toward one's organization that in turn may help management control the turnover rate and maintain employee retention. In order to curb unfair practices in the organization, such organizational justice studies need to be undertaken by the management on a regular basis. One of the biggest merits of this study was that it was conducted primarily in service industries, a sector where majority of the OCB is performed. Hence, this study may be validated in service sector industries outside the mid-west. Though the researcher's goal was not to compare the strengths between different types of organizational justice and measure its effect on job satisfaction and OCB, the researcher nevertheless found significant differences with a sample size of above 200 subjects. Thus, another practical implication of this study is that the researcher can make suggestions to the hospital and education industries (both service oriented) to execute fair organizational justice practices in order to maintain their employees' satisfaction.

Limitations

There are a few things in this study that may have confounded the outcome of this research effort. Some of the questions asked on the questionnaire may have potentially caused some of the participants to skew their responses. Some participants were inclined to rate all or some items on the OCB scale consistently high, thus resulting in a possible rating error. For example, the items on the OCB scale were directed towards an individual's contribution towards the organization or other employees rather than the team's exhibition of extra-role behaviors. Thus, the employee may have felt it important to expose him or her in good light. One of the major limitations of this study is that the responses of the participants are merely their perceptions. In other words, participants' responses do not indicate that they have behaved or will behave in a manner mentioned on the questionnaire.

For this research study, the researcher collected data by being actively present at the field. Since the data were collected by being face-to-face with participants or giving a few hours to complete, the participants may have felt apprehensive about answering the questions specifically related to organizational practices or their feelings about the job itself. The hospital data was collected from the department managers, employees, and other medical doctors and staff during one given period of the day. Hence, the employees might be a little reluctant to give candid responses because of the fear of being monitored by their supervisors.

Out of the sample size of 235 subjects that the researcher collected, 205 participants were White and only 30 belonged to the minority class. Sixteen respondents out of 30 were Hispanic and only one was African American. Thus, care needs to be

taken while interpreting or generalizing the data across populations, because these results may be reflective of only one ethnic group. Also, the sample size is representative largely of mid-western population and hence, might be difficult to generalize across other regions in the U.S.

Future Research

There is very small amount of research being conducted on employees' emotions and personality and its effects on employees' perceptions of organizational justice (Byrne, 2003). This field of research must be expanded to determine if employees' perceptions of organizational justice are governed by employees' emotions or feelings at any particular period of time. Byrne's (2003) study indicated that individuals who rated feeling happy or proud tended to rate the three forms of fairness significantly higher than those who reported feeling angry or resentful. Nevertheless, the researcher found two studies (e.g., Moorman, 1993; Organ & Lingl, 1995) that focused on the linkages between personality, job satisfaction, and OCB. Organ and Lingl (1995) in their study found that agreeableness predicted reasonable variation among employee satisfaction at work, whereas the conscientiousness personality dimension showed a reliable connection to OCB.

Justice also needs to be perceived from sources other than the supervisor or organization, and thus, future research is required to identify organizational justice in team settings and other coworker relationships that may affect employees' perceptions of organizational justice (Johnson, Korsgaard, & Sapienza, 2002; Shapiro & Kirkman, 1999). Individuals' identities may be based at least in part on their membership in groups. Thus, fair organizational practices may indeed help protect and strengthen

individuals' identification with the group or organization. Johnson et al. (2002) found that procedural justice in International Joint Venture (IJV) decision-making was positively related to the IJV management team's organizational commitment. Shapiro and Kirkman (1999) further theorized that employees' self-managing work team-related concerns and resistance-like behavior (e.g. reduced work commitment and OCB) were influenced by the anticipation of distributive injustice, or the receipt of unfair outcomes, such as undesirable job assignments and added responsibilities rather than actual distributive justice by itself.

Finally, the findings from this study will be used for future cross-cultural research effort with a sample size from different racial/ethnic groups. Though the researcher has found significant differences between the groups with high, moderate, and low perceptions of organizational justice; the researcher intends to validate this data across different cultures. Some studies (Alotaibi, 2001; Aryee et al., 2002; Farh et al., 1990; Greenberg, 2001; Jackson, 1998; Kuehn & Al-Busaidi, 2002; Pillai et al., 2001; Viswesvaran et al., 1998) in the past have investigated the importance and meaning of organizational justice across cultures. However, cross-cultural research in organizational justice needs to be updated since employees' perceptions of organizational justice may take a different meaning in an unpredictable global economy and may change over a period of time.

The author's future cross-cultural study will focus on comparisons between two large employee populations and their perceptions of organizational justice in their own respective countries. The researcher also intends to analyze the possible difference between the *F* values for the two population groups and would hypothesize that the

population group high in hierarchical structure or power distance will have greater significant differences among their employees' perceptions of organizational justice than the population group low in power distance.

Conclusion

All five sets of hypotheses were supported with significant differences between the groups. Employees' perceptions of organizational justice are important and surely have a significant effect on their job satisfaction and the amount of organizational citizenship behaviors they perform. Also, job satisfaction is significantly and positively correlated with OCB and may indeed predict the extent to which the employees will perform these extra-role behaviors. This may further aid management to maintain a check on employee retention and turnover rate.

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APPENDIX A

Informed Consent and Demographics Scale

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Dear Participant,

I need your help with my research in order to graduate from ESU. Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary. You can be assured that your responses to the questionnaires will be held in the strictest confidence. If these conditions are acceptable, please answer each question openly and honestly. If you have any questions or concerns about the study, you may contact me, Alok Bhupatkar, at 620-340-0860, or alokbhupakar@yahoo.com.

Thank you for participating in this research study!

Your age (check one)

18 or younger 36-45 66 or above
 19-25 46-55
 26-35 56-65

Your sex (check one)
 Male Female

Your ethnicity (check all that apply)

African American/Black Asian/Pacific Islander Latin American/Hispanic
 American Indian Caucasian/White Other _____ .

Please write the name of your current organization below. (Optional)

_____ .

The type of industry in which you are currently employed (check all that apply)

Manufacturing Service Education Information Technology
 Other (please specify) _____ .

Number of years you have been employed by this organization : _____ years

Number of years you have been in your current position : _____ years

Do you perform shift work? Yes No

If yes, which kind of work-shifts (check all that apply)

Morning Afternoon Night Other _____ .

Your job status (check all that apply)

Full time Part time On call duty Other _____ .

Please check the type of position you are currently in

Supervisor Professional Owner
 Senior management Middle management Secretarial/Front desk
 Technical Service-oriented Laborer
 Other (please specify) _____ .

Your intent to remain with your organization (check one)

Planning to leave Not sure Planning to stay

APPENDIX B

Organizational Justice Scale

•

Please circle the appropriate responses by using the following scale:
Your honest responses are appreciated.

	<i>Item</i>	<i>very unfair</i>	<i>unfair</i>	<i>slightly fair</i>	<i>mostly fair</i>	<i>very fair</i>
1.	How fair has the organization been in rewarding you when you consider the amount of effort that you have put forth?	1	2	3	4	5
2.	How fair has the organization been in rewarding you when you consider the responsibilities that you have?	1	2	3	4	5
3.	How fair has the organization been in rewarding you when you consider the stresses and strains of your job?	1	2	3	4	5
4.	How fair has the organization been in rewarding you when you take into account the amount of education and training that you have?	1	2	3	4	5
5.	How fair has the organization been in rewarding you when you consider the work that you have done well?	1	2	3	4	5
6.	How fair has the organization been in applying the procedures (rules, regulations, policies) consistently?	1	2	3	4	5
7.	How fair has the organization been in • developing procedures that are free of bias?	1	2	3	4	5
8.	How fair has the organization been in developing procedures based on accurate information?	1	2	3	4	5

For the next six items, use the following scale:

<i>Item</i>	<i>very poor extent</i>	<i>poor extent</i>	<i>fair enough</i>	<i>good extent</i>	<i>very good extent</i>
9. To what extent have your supervisor and/or colleague(s) treated you in a polite manner?	1	2	3	4	5
10. To what extent have your supervisor and/or colleague(s) treated you with dignity and respect?	1	2	3	4	5
11. To what extent have your supervisor and/or colleague(s) refrained from improper remarks or comments?	1	2	3	4	5
12. To what extent have your supervisor and/or colleague(s) been candid in his/her communications with you?	1	2	3	4	5
13. To what extent have your supervisor and/or colleague(s) communicated details of your job in a timely manner?	1	2	3	4	5
14. To what extent have your supervisor and/or colleague(s) seemed to tailor his/her communications to individuals' specific needs?	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX C

Nagy Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (NJSQ)

•

Using the scale below as a guide, please *circle* an appropriate number from 1 to 5 to indicate your *current* level of job satisfaction. Your honest responses are appreciated.

<i>Item</i>	<i>not at all satisfying</i>	<i>not very satisfying</i>	<i>neither satisfying nor dissatisfying</i>	<i>somewhat satisfying</i>	<i>very satisfying</i>
1. How does the type of work that you currently do compare to what you think it should be?	1	2	3	4	5
2. How does the amount of pay that you currently receive compare to what you think it should be?	1	2	3	4	5
3. How do the number of opportunities for promotion that you currently have compare to what you think they should be?	1	2	3	4	5
4. How does the quality of supervision that you currently receive compare to what you think it should be?	1	2	3	4	5
5. How does the quality of colleagues and people you currently work with compare to what you think it should be?	1	2	3	4	5
6. How do the working conditions in your job compare to what you think they should be?	1	2	3	4	5
7. How does the amount of autonomy or personal freedom that you have compare to what you think it should be?	1	2	3	4	5
8. How does your overall satisfaction with your current job compare to what you think it should be?	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX D

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) Scale

•

Please *circle* the appropriate responses by indicating the extent to which you agree with the statements. Please use the scale below and your honest responses are appreciated.

	<i>Item</i>	<i>strongly disagree</i>	<i>slightly disagree</i>	<i>not sure / undecided</i>	<i>slightly agree</i>	<i>strongly agree</i>
1.	I voluntarily assist customers even if it means going beyond job requirements.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I help customers with problems beyond what is expected or required.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I often go above and beyond the call of duty when helping customers.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I help other employees who have heavy workloads.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I always lend a helping hand to those employees around me.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I help orient new employees even though it is not required.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I willingly help others who have work related problems.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I willingly participate in my organization's community activities and/or other social gatherings.	1	2	3	4	5

Have you ever experienced any injustice in your organization?

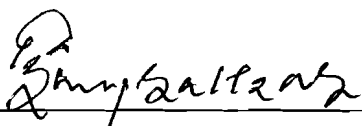
Yes No

If *yes*, please explain below.

•

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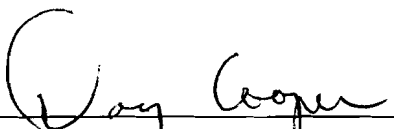
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 Satisfaction and OCB

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