

Investigating Organizational Justice Perceptions in Promotional Exams

by

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Abstract

The present study investigated perceptions of organizational justice and workplace (in)civility in a promotional exam context. Specifically, it was proposed that perceptions of distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice and perceptions of workplace civility and incivility would be related to performance in a promotional assessment center, self-reported organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs), and self-reported burnout. The model indicated that procedural justice was related to exam scores and OCBs. Interpersonal justice was related to OCBs towards the organization. Informational justice was related to OCBs. Workplace civility was related to OCBs and burnout. Lastly, workplace incivility was related to exam scores, OCBs, and burnout. These findings suggest the importance of organizational perceptions for both direct and indirect outcomes for the employee and employer.

Keywords: organizational justice, incivility, civility, organizational citizenship behavior, burnout, personnel selection

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Introduction

Derived from the social psychological literature (i.e., fairness theory), organizational justice has serious implications in a wide range of work contexts (e.g., performance evaluation, staffing, strategic planning, pay systems, downsizing, etc.) (Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001; Folger & Cropanzano, 2001). Initially conceptualized as being comprised of at least two dimensions (i.e., distributive and procedural), organizational justice remains a topic of interest for organizational researchers. A search of the term “organizational justice” in *PsycINFO*, *PsycARTICLES*, *Academic Search Premier*, and *Business Source Premier* yielded over 1,400 articles in the past decade alone and has been considered one of the most frequently researched topics in industrial/organizational psychology in recent history (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001). This trend has continued as research on organizational justice in the HR literature remains a popular topic of interest resulting in over 900 peer reviewed articles in the past five years.

Greenberg (2001b) proposed that the future research of organizational justice by practitioners and academics be based on 7 points: (1) justice matters in **all** settings, (2) organizational justice research promotes justice in organizations, (3) favorable outcomes for an individual are likely to be deemed fair, (4) the reactions to injustice are predictable, (5) fair procedures enhance the acceptance of **organizational outcomes**, (6) measuring organizational justice is straightforward, and (7) concerns about organizational justice are universal.

There are specific landmark cases demonstrating how perceptions of organizational justice have direct implications for the organizations themselves (and could possibly reflect on an industry if the issues of injustice in that industry are systemic). Although the following cases

demonstrate organizational wrongdoing that is typically enforced by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, Department of Justice and similar entities, it also suggests how quickly an injustice (i.e., perceived and/or legitimate) that goes otherwise unchecked by an organization can result in costly consequences for employers. Chan (2000) provided an overview of class-action employment discrimination lawsuits against Texaco, State Farm, and Lucky Stores. These lawsuits not only damaged these companies' images, but also resulted in large monetary settlements and court-mandated initiatives to ensure workplace justice (e.g., linkage of managerial compensation to the achievement of diversity goals, awarding of more contracts to female- and minority-owned firms, and diversity training) (Chan, 2000). There are direct financial consequences of the organizational injustices by these companies, Texaco was forced to settle their race-discrimination lawsuit for \$176 million dollars in 1996; State Farm agreed to pay \$157 million dollars to end a sex-discrimination case that was in litigation for 13 years; and Lucky Stores agreed to pay nearly \$108 million dollars in response to a class-action sex-discrimination suit that was in litigation for nearly a decade (Chan, 2000). Consequently, it is in an organization's (and industry's) best interests to take proactive stances on organizational justice to prevent unfair practices from escalating to direct financial losses and additional indirect losses that may stem from the resulting image of the company to the public (e.g., recruitment and retention of employees). Furthermore, it is important to note that legally defensible practices and practices that are perceived as just and fair are not always the same. Therefore, having legally defensible organizational practices that are also perceived to be fair is likely to minimize litigation. Unfortunately, an organization having fair practices that are legally defensible will not prevent an overly litigious individual from filing suit.

However, there is a caveat to consider. Weisenfeld and colleagues (2007) found that in one of their studies examining procedural justice on organizational commitment, the impact of procedural justice was only important to those individuals that expected their relationships with the organization to be enduring. Therefore, perceptions of organizational justice are subject to effects of moderation. Even in organizations and/or industries with high turnover, the importance of being perceived as a just organization plays a role on the attraction, selection, and attrition (ASA) of employees (e.g., Bell, Weischmann, & Ryan, 2006; Truxillo, Bauer, & Sanchez, 2001; Schneider, 1987).

Additionally, it has been acknowledged that addressing agency problems from an organizational justice perspective may be beneficial (Welbourne, Balkin, & Gomez-Mejia, 1995). For example, a principal (i.e., supervisor) may delegate responsibilities to an agent (i.e., employee), but if the agent's and principal's interests and goals are not in alignment, then micromanagement may occur on the part of the principal to minimize any deviant behavior on the part of the agent. Moreover, agency problems may arise even in situations in which there is no clearly defined principal-agent relationship (Eisenhardt, 1989; Jensen & Meckling, 1976).

Consequently, supervisors might need to micromanage subordinates when their goals are not in alignment. Although research pertaining to exact costs is not definitive, it is agreed upon by both researchers and organizations that counterproductive work behaviors are a prevalent issue in the business world (Mount, Ilies, & Johnson, 2006). Conservative estimates claim that these harmful behaviors, including actions such as workplace violence, hazing, and theft, cost American business more than 30 billion dollars annually (Mullins, 2006). Other estimates including both "hard" (e.g., stealing) and "soft" (e.g., absenteeism and turnover) costs for

organizations suggest that these behaviors may cost U.S. companies as much as 400 billion dollars annually (Mullins, 2006).

Another type of “soft” negative workplace behavior tangentially related to organizational justice is workplace incivility. Incivility is defined as “a low intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect. Uncivil behaviors are characteristically rude and discourteous, displaying a lack of regard for others” (Andersson & Pearson, 1999, p. 457) and have been negatively related to distributive justice perceptions, job satisfaction, job withdrawal, and career salience and positively related to work exhaustion, counterproductive work behaviors, and sexual harassment (Blau & Andersson, 2005; Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001; Lim & Cortina, 2005; Penney & Spector, 2005). Additionally, Cortina (2008) introduced *selective incivility* in which uncivil behaviors may simply be covert expressions of gender and racial discrimination. Although perhaps ambiguous in intent, incivility may be unambiguous toward its target audience. This may become especially problematic in situations where a boss (i.e., principal) is perceived as behaving uncivilly towards their subordinate(s) (i.e., agent).

On the other hand, Pearson, Andersson, and Porath (2000) describe civility as “demonstrating sensibility of concern and regard, treating others with respect. Workplace civility is behavior that helps to preserve the norms for mutual respect at work; it comprises behaviors that are fundamental to positively connecting with another, building relationships and empathizing” (p.125). Increased civility has been related to the use of decreased sick time (Mohr et al., 2007; Moore, Osatuke, & Howe, 2008), EEO complaints (Nagy, Warren, Osatuke, & Dyrenforth, 2007) costs and performance indicators (Osatuke & Dyrenforth, 2006), and specifically, patient perceptions of healthcare (Osatuke, DeLuca, & Dyrenforth, 2008).

Additionally, turnover rates were related to low civility and may be a means of investigating burnout and/or turnover intentions (Moore et al., 2008; Nagy et al., 2007). Moreover, Nagy et al. (2007) demonstrated that business units with high civility scores would save about \$61,000 a year on fewer EEO complaints and as much as \$240 per employee in sick leave compared to units with low civility scores.

Subsequently, this study will attempt to bridge the current gap in the HR literature by elucidating the relationship between organizational justice perceptions, workplace (in)civility perceptions, organizational citizenship behaviors, self-reported burnout, and performance in a promotion selection context.

Organizational Justice

Although some may contend that the roots of organizational justice begin with research on relative deprivation (i.e., negative feelings when one compares oneself to a more advantageous party and how these comparisons take place) (Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001), distributive justice was the first factor of interest into what would evolve into the modern conceptualization of organizational justice and can be directly traced back to the work of Adams (1965) and Leventhal (1980). Each used a social exchange theory framework to evaluate fairness (i.e., also known as equity theory) (Colquitt et al., 2001). Soon thereafter, procedural justice emerged as a viable factor of interest in the 1980s (Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001). However, early research on organizational justice was rife with methodological and psychometric concerns with research being conducted that utilized one-item scales and/or collapsed the distributive and procedural justice factors into a single factor without clear rationale (Colquitt, 2001). As a result, the implications of findings from early research on organizational justice became difficult to disentangle for academics and practitioners alike.

However, there was the considerable belief by most researchers that organizational justice did in fact consist of at least two dimensions: distributive justice and procedural justice (Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001).

Distributive justice evaluates the fairness of outcome distributions (Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001; Colquitt, 2001). This may also be considered a tit-for-tat comparison of inputs to one's outcome and is often subject to influences of one's desired outcome in a range of contexts (e.g., promotional opportunities, compensation, disciplinary actions) (Colquitt et al., 2001; Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001; Greenberg & Cropanzano, 2001). Basically, distributive justice implies that people are happy with what they get so long as it is consistent with referent others. Meanwhile, procedural justice may best be conceptualized as the "voice" that one has with regards to process control and decision control and is often required to meet six criteria as established by Leventhal (1980). First, procedures should be applied consistently across people and time. Second, procedures should be free from bias. Third, procedures should ensure accurate information is collected and used for decisions. Fourth, procedures should have safeguards to allow for correction of flaws. Fifth, procedures should conform to the norms of ethics and morality. Lastly, the procedure should ensure that all parties affected by the outcome of the process be considered (Colquitt et al., 2001; Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001; Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel, & Rupp, 2001; Greenberg & Cropanzano, 2001). Ultimately, procedural justice implies that everyone is considered in the process and their input into a particular process that impacts them either directly or indirectly is genuinely and thoughtfully considered.

With the introduction of interactional justice by Bies and Moag (1986), the nature of organizational justice came into question (Bies, 2001; Cropanzano et al., 2001). Unfortunately, the original definition for interactional justice proposed by Bies and Moag (1986) was embedded

in the context of a decision-making process and thus became regularly confused with or lumped into procedural justice (Bies, 2001). From a conceptual standpoint, however, interactional justice broke from the initial procedural justice conceptualization and is believed to meet four criteria: justification, truthfulness, respect, and propriety (Colquitt, 2001). Therefore, several researchers have typically operationalized interactional justice as comprising of clear and adequate explanations, or justifications, and the treatment of recipients with dignity and respect (i.e., people are concerned about the interpersonal treatment they receive from another person) (Bies, 2001; Cropanzano et al., 2001).

On the other hand, rude and insulting behavior may be more commonly conceptualized as workplace incivility (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). In response to such concerns that interactional justice was becoming too broad, Greenberg (2001a) notes that it is the violation of norms for acceptable social behavior that may result in feelings of injustice rather than the acts themselves. Consequently, interactional justice has become an important variable to understand such topics of interest as organizational citizenship behaviors, supervisor legitimacy, revenge, and workplace privacy concerns (Bies, 2001).

Eventually, further questions into the nature of organizational justice emerged with Greenberg's introduction of a four-factor structure of organizational justice (1993). This four factor structure of organizational justice resulted from a 2 x 2 framework by which the category of justice (i.e., distributive or procedural) was crossed with the focal determinant of justice (i.e., social or structural) (Cropanzano et al., 2001). This meant that in the four-factor model of organizational justice, the interactional justice factor was further separated into two new factors. The first factor dealt with sensitivity and was labeled *interpersonal justice* (i.e., the degree to which people are treated with politeness, dignity, and respect by an authority) with the second

factor dealing with explanations and labeled *informational justice* (i.e., the explanations provided to people that convey information about why the procedure(s) or distribution of outcomes occurred in a certain manner) (Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001; Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Colquitt & Shaw, 2005; Cropanzano, et al., 2001; Greenberg & Cropanzano, 2001). However, despite the debate regarding whether the interpersonal justice factor may be confounded with future research on workplace incivility, Bies (1986) noted that incivility likely differs from interpersonal justice because incivility can stem from a wide range of parties and was not relegated to perceptions of an authority figure.

After the operationalization of organizational justice and its dimensions were refined, the need for indirect measures in assessing organizational issues was a desirable step to aid future researchers (e.g., Johnson & Steinman, 2009; Johnson & Lord, 2010). The efforts to create a direct measure of organizational justice resulted in a four-factor structure and suggested that collapsing procedural justice and interactional justice would mask important differences (Colquitt, 2001). Later, Colquitt et al. (2001) acknowledged that the incremental variance provided by interpersonal justice and informational justice in fairness perceptions were significant, but small relative to the procedural justice and distributive justice factors. Nonetheless, it is important to note (i.e., for both practitioners and academics) that the measurement and resulting dimensionality of organizational justice proposed by Colquitt (2001) was supported by Greenberg (2001b) and Colquitt et al. (2001).

Although the literature demonstrates the importance of distributive and procedural justice perceptions, there are benefits to continue measuring perceptions of interpersonal and informational justice. The growing body of research on organizational justice in the HR literature does not negate that opportunities remain for researchers adopting both deductive and inductive

approaches (e.g., Burney, Henle, & Widener, 2009; Karriker, 2007; Welbourne, Balkin, & Gomez-Mejia, 1995). The explanation of even small incremental amounts of variance explained by organizational justice perceptions in attitudes and behaviors could eventually translate to savings of millions (or billions) of dollars annually for organizations whether measured in “hard” or “soft” costs (Mullins, 2006).

Organizational Justice and Attitudes

Ambrose and Cropanzano (2003) found the relationship between procedural justice, distributive justice, and attitudes to be dynamic because employees within an organization continue to gain information about the procedures and outcomes over time. Using a sample of untenured management professors, Ambrose and Cropanzano (2003) found perceptions of procedural justice affect organizational attitudes prior to an allocation decision (i.e., tenure) and soon after the allocation decision, but with no additional impact over time. Meanwhile, distributive justice continued to affect organizational attitudes even after the allocation decision was made. Consequently, practitioners should stress the need of organizations to periodically evaluate the attitudes of employees to determine whether injustice is perceived and attempt to rectify any perceptions of injustice through procedural, distributive, or interactional mechanisms.

In selection contexts, Truxillo, Bauer, and Sanchez (2001) found that fairness perceptions measured at the time of testing were related to the perceived fairness of the selection system measured months later regardless of whether applicants ‘passed’ or ‘failed’ the selection process. This suggests that organizations may benefit from selection systems that are perceived as procedurally just to avoid costly litigation by those applicants that may have failed the selection process and might have otherwise perceived a legal selection system as unjust. In another examination of organizational justice in the context of selection, Bell, Weischmann, and Ryan

(2006) found that justice expectations had a moderating influence, such that justice perceptions have a greater influence on applicants' affective and cognitive states when expectations of justice are high. Therefore, organizations should consider the possibility that they may unintentionally influence individuals' perceptions of future events (e.g., via the selection system) and may also impact the self-efficacy and motivation of the applicant (Bell et al., 2006). Moreover, the cost of recruitment and testing of applicants may significantly increase if those applicants that pass the selection system decide not to accept the position due to perceived unfairness. Fortunately, the applicants in the study not only indicated a greater likelihood of accepting the job, but they also would recommend the organization to others (i.e., possibly saving an organization recruitment expenses) (Bell et al., 2006).

Ultimately, the research investigating the direct relationship between organizational attitudes has been mixed, with distributive justice affecting attitudes about specific events (e.g., satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with performance appraisal) whereas procedural justice and interactional justice affecting attitudes about the system (e.g., organizational commitment, trust in authorities) (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001). Meanwhile, Ambrose et al. (2007) found that only informational justice predicted individuals' overall attitude toward the organization, challenging the notion that procedural justice was the only significant predictor. Therefore, informational justice should be examined more closely in future research efforts. Furthermore, it is important that both academics and practitioners consider organizational justice as being comprised of four factors (i.e., as proposed by Greenberg, 1997; Colquitt, 2001, Colquitt et al., 2001).

Organizational Justice and Behavior

Regarding employee behavior, organizations will likely reap what they sow with regards to the organizational justice perceptions of employees and bottom-line returns on investment because the effects of perceptions of organizational justice have serious implications for both positive behaviors (e.g., organizational citizenship behavior, reconciliation, customer purchasing behavior) and negative behaviors (e.g., withdrawal, theft, retaliation) (Aquino, Tripp, & Bies, 2006; Barclay, Scarlicki, & Pugh, 2005; Brebels, De Cremer, & Sedikides, 2008; Gilliland & Steiner, 2001; Greenberg, 1990; Skarlicki, Folger, & Tesluk, 1999; Gundlach, Douglas, & Martinko, 2003; Tepper, 2000). Therefore, it may be beneficial for practitioners and academics to further examine the consequences of perceptions of organizational justice on behavior with the inclusion of additional theorized mediators (e.g., workplace incivility). The following paragraphs will more closely examine the possible relationship between organizational justice on both organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) (i.e., behaviors that go above and beyond the call of duty) and retaliation.

Skarlicki and Latham (1997) examined how training on the principles of organizational justice might be related to OCB. Interestingly, it was important to note that the training program consisted of four sessions using a wide array of methods (e.g., case-studies, role-play scenarios, direct interaction with union members who had past grievances) with the final session stressing the management of justice perceptions. That is, although it is important for an organization to actually be fair, it may be even more important to be seen as fair (i.e., an organization may have just procedures, but may also be perceived as unfair). Skarlicki and Latham (1997) found that union leader training increased members' perceptions of their leaders' fairness as well as union members' citizenship behavior directed both toward the union as an organization and fellow union members. Tepper and Taylor (2003) also examined OCB, but by isolating the

measurement of organizational justice to the procedural justice factor. They found that supervisor's procedural justice perceptions led to supervisors' subsequent OCB. This in turn, led to subordinates' procedural justice perceptions and subsequent subordinate OCB. This finding is of interest because it demonstrates the possibility of modeling behaviors as a means to improve organizational perceptions. However, this also implies the need to have the appropriate model(s) in place to avoid the possible converse effect (i.e., a supervisor exhibiting counterproductive behaviors may then lead to negative subordinate justice perceptions that, in turn, result in subordinate counterproductive behaviors).

However, an important caveat to the relationship between organizational justice perceptions and OCB must also be made. That is, Chiaburu (2007) concluded that the relationship between interactional justice and OCB is moderated by the employees' role definitions. It is important to keep in mind that what may be deemed as an extra-role behavior by some employees may be deemed as part of the role by another employee. Moreover, an employee's supervisor may be the mechanism by which an employee classifies a behavior as in-role or extra-role behavior.

Although positive organizational justice perceptions have been linked to positive behaviors, negative organizational justice perceptions have also been linked to negative behavior. In an examination of organizational justice perceptions on retaliatory behaviors, Skarlicki and Folger (1997) found that the perceptions of organizational justice (i.e., distributive, procedural, and interactional) were best explained in terms of an interactive process. More specifically, a relation between distributive justice and retaliation was found only when there was low interactional and procedural justice. The 2-way interaction of distributive and procedural justice was observed only at a low level of interactional justice, and the 2-way interaction of

distributive and interactional justice was observed only at a low level of procedural justice. However, one of the more interesting implications from this study was that when interactional justice perceptions were high, the 2-way interaction of distributive and procedural justice was non-significant. Consequently, this led Skarlicki and Folger (1997) to the conclusion that when supervisors show adequate sensitivity and concern toward employees, those employees seem somewhat willing to tolerate the combination of an unfair pay distribution and unfair procedures that would otherwise lead to retaliatory behaviors. This is a conclusion that definitely warrants follow-up because the implication is that the manager is the first line of defense against an employee retaliating against their organization. Fortunately, Skarlicki, Folger, and Tesluk (1999) did conduct a follow-up and extension on these findings resulting in similar conclusions (i.e., interactional justice is of paramount importance, but personality as measured by negative affect and agreeableness moderates the relationship).

The impact of organizational justice and workplace (in)civility perceptions can lead to both positive (e.g., reduced absenteeism, organizational commitment, increased referrals to that organization as an employer) and negative (e.g., lawsuits, withdrawal, theft, retaliation) results for an organization, its employees, and/or prospective employees (Aquino, Tripp, & Bies, 2006; Barclay, Scarlicki, & Pugh, 2005; Bell et al., 2006; Brebels, De Cremer, & Sedikides, 2008; Chan, 2000; Gilliland & Steiner, 2001; Grennberg, 1990; Nagy et al., 2007; Skarlicki, Folger, & Tesluk, 1999; Gundlach, Douglas, & Martinko, 2003; Tepper, 2000). Additionally, Bies (1986) noted that incivility likely differs from interactional justice because incivility can stem from a wide range of parties and was not relegated to perceptions of an authority figure. Nonetheless, there still appears to be considerable overlap of perceptions of workplace (in)civility with the justice construct. Consequently, the following propositions will be examined.

Proposition H1a: Perceptions of distributive justice will be positively related to perceptions of workplace civility.

Proposition H1b: Perceptions of procedural justice will be positively related to perceptions of workplace civility.

Proposition H1c: Perceptions of interpersonal justice will be positively related to perceptions of workplace civility.

Proposition H1d: Perceptions of informational justice will be positively related to perceptions of workplace civility.

Proposition H2a: Perceptions of distributive justice will be negatively related to perceptions of workplace incivility.

Proposition H2b: Perceptions of procedural justice will be negatively related to perceptions of workplace incivility.

Proposition H2c: Perceptions of interpersonal justice will be negatively related to perceptions of workplace incivility.

Proposition H2d: Perceptions of informational justice will be negatively related to perceptions of workplace incivility.

Proposition H3a: Perceptions of distributive justice will be positively related with self-reported organizational citizenship behaviors.

Proposition H3b: Perceptions of procedural justice will be positively related with self-reported organizational citizenship behaviors.

Proposition H3c: Perceptions of interpersonal justice will be positively related with self-reported organizational citizenship behaviors.

Proposition H3d: Perceptions of informational justice will be positively related with self-reported organizational citizenship behaviors.

Proposition H4a: Perceptions of workplace civility will be positively related with self-reported organizational citizenship behaviors.

Proposition H4b: Perceptions of workplace incivility will be negatively related with self-reported organizational citizenship behaviors.

Additionally, employees' perception of organizational justice has also been found to have an impact on employees' occupational health and well-being (e.g., Elovainio, Kivimäki, & Helkama, 2001; Greenberg, 2004; Greenberg, 2006; Head, Kivimäki, Siegrist, Ferrie, Vahtera, Shipley, & Marmot, 2007; Judge & Colquitt, 2004; Schmitt & Dörfel, 1999). More specifically, perceptions of injustice are likely to act as a stressor for employees. Although injustice as a stressor is relatively new to the empirical literature, it has been linked to all four dimensions of organizational justice (Judge & Colquitt, 2004). Moreover, the perceptions of injustice have been linked to depression, coronary heart disease, sedentary lifestyles, smoking, and excessive drinking (Greenberg, 2010). Therefore, it is beneficial for organizations to further consider not only the direct impact, but also the indirect impact that perceived organizational injustice may have on their employees. Moreover, the novelty of the injustice as a stressor perspective would suggest that this is a burgeoning area of research for academics.

Although much of the aforementioned literature has focused on how organizations and supervisors influence perceptions of organizational justice, these perceptions can also affect the emotional labor and subsequent emotional display rules that are often of importance in service settings (Rupp & Spencer, 2006). In a call center simulation in which some of the confederates were undeservingly impolite, disrespectful, inarticulate, and informationally unclear, participants

were found to have more difficulty displaying the desired emotions (Rupp & Spencer, 2006). This would suggest that organizational injustice is not only the result of those in authority, but may also be the result of those who are to be served by an organization. Moreover, the difficulty that these participants had in maintaining the desired emotional displays (e.g., acting calm in response to customers unfairly lashing out) may lead to decreases in customer retention and organizational profitability/success. Lastly, these findings would suggest that organizations should not only implement effective training interventions to address issues regarding emotional displays in response to abusive customers or patients, but also that supervisors may be a means of ameliorating the effects of customer or patient injustice (i.e., if one adopts a trickle-down model of justice) (Masterson; 2001; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2006). Consequently, the following propositions will be tested.

Proposition H5a: Perceptions of distributive justice will be negatively related with self-reported burnout.

Proposition H5b: Perceptions of procedural justice will be negatively related with self-reported burnout.

Proposition H5c: Perceptions of interpersonal justice will be negatively related with self-reported burnout.

Proposition H5d: Perceptions of informational justice will be negatively related with self-reported burnout.

Proposition H6a: Perceptions of workplace civility will be negatively related with self-reported burnout.

Proposition H6b: Perceptions of workplace incivility will be positively related with self-reported burnout.

Organizational Justice and Performance

Although organizational citizenship behavior may be considered a type of performance (e.g., contextual performance), organizational justice has also been found to be significantly related to performance in a range of contexts including task performance and test performance (e.g., Carless, 2006; Devonish & Greenidge, 2010; Hausenknech, Day, & Thomas, 2004; Smither et al., 1993). More specifically, a meta-analysis by Hausenknech, Day, and Thomas (2004) found that procedural justice was related to actual procedure performance, self-efficacy, and attitudes towards the tests. Additionally, Bell, Weischmann, and Ryan (2006) found that justice expectations and perceptions may influence applicants' affective and cognitive states especially when expectations of justice are high. Therefore, organizations should consider the possibility that they may unintentionally influence individuals' perceptions of future events (e.g., via the selection system) and may also impact the self-efficacy and motivation of the applicant (Bell et al., 2006). On the other hand, Truxillo, Steiner, and Gilliland (2004) acknowledge that there is limited research pertaining to organizational justice in promotional context on "hard" outcomes such as test performance, but also readily acknowledge such contexts as a fruitful area and that effects of organizational justice perceptions may be greater in promotional contexts where employees are invested in the situation and know more about the process.

Nonetheless, Nurse (2005) found that workers who believed that performers were not treated fairly as a result of performance appraisal would also agree that their expectations regarding development and advancement were not being met. This could potentially translate to performance on selection tests, especially in a promotional context, because poor performance on a selection test(s) could stem from an individual's development on the job perceived to be unfair. Furthermore, Robertson and colleagues (Iles & Robertson, 1989; Robertson & Smith, 1989) have

presented a conceptual model by which candidates' cognitive and affective reactions should influence outcomes such as work commitment, performance, turnover, psychological well-being, and personal agency. Lastly, Devonish and Greenidge (2010) found that perceptions of procedural justice and distributive justice had significant effects on task performance, contextual performance, and counterproductive work behaviors. More specifically, Devonish and Greenidge (2010) found that organizational justice perceptions were related to task performance as rated by supervisors. In promotional assessments, a battery of components will typically capture performance on job-related tasks and simulations. Subsequently, these components are often rated by subject matter experts (e.g., direct supervisors) acting as assessors. Therefore, the following is hypothesized.

Proposition 7a: Perceptions of distributive justice will be positively related with the promotional exam score.

Proposition 7b: Perceptions of procedural justice will be positively related with the promotional exam score.

Proposition 7c: Perceptions of interpersonal justice will be positively related with the promotional exam score.

Proposition 7d: Perceptions of informational justice will be positively related with the promotional exam score.

Due to the relative lack of literature on the relationship between workplace (in)civility and test performance specifically, a more inductive approach is necessitated. Despite Bies (1986) noting that incivility likely differs from interactional justice because incivility can stem from a wide range of parties and was not relegated to perceptions of an authority figure, there still appears to be considerable overlap of perceptions of workplace (in)civility with the justice

construct. If there is a significant relationship between organizational justice and test performance, then it is also possible that a similar relationship may exist between workplace (in)civility perceptions and test performance. In conjunction with aforementioned propositions, the following are also presented as exploratory research objectives for investigation.

Ia: Perceptions of workplace civility will be positively related with the promotional exam score.

Ib: Perceptions of workplace incivility will be negatively related with the promotional exam score.

Method

Participants

The sample consisted of 394 participants at a southeastern United States public sector organization. Of the participants, 170 were black, 2 were Hispanic, 2 were Indian, 216 were White, and 4 reported “Other” for their race/ethnicity. There were 40 females and 354 males representing 17 jurisdictions. There were 260 participants in the Sergeant promotional exam and 134 participants in the Lieutenant promotional exam.

Procedure

The candidates for the 2013 promotional exams for sergeant and lieutenant law enforcement classes were asked to participate in a research study that included the Law Enforcement Opinion Scale (LEOS). The LEOS was completed at the end of the testing. The LEOS is comprised of the scales included below to measure workplace incivility, workplace civility, organizational justice, burnout, and organizational citizenship behaviors.

Measures

Workplace incivility scale. The incivility scale being utilized in this study is the 7-item Workplace Incivility Scale (WIS; Cortina, L.M., et al., 2001; see Appendix A). The WIS asks

respondents to evaluate the prevalence of incivility perpetrated against the respondent over a period of five years. The scale was modified for the purposes of this study to ask respondents to reflect back on a period of one year. This modification was made in response to concerns that not all of the respondents would have five years of experience within one organization. Moreover, reflecting over a period of one year would likely provide more salient information (Johns, 1994). Responses to this survey are on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 0 (*never*) to 4 (*most of the time*) with respondents indicating the prevalence of described behaviors over the duration of one year. The coefficient alpha for this scale was .91.

Veteran Health Administration civility scale. The civility scale used in this study will be from a pre-existing 8-item scale developed and validated by the Veterans Hospital Administration (Meterko et al., 2007; see Appendix A). The scale has respondents rate their level of agreement to statements on topics such as diversity, fairness, and discrimination. Respondents make their rating on a scale of 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) with an additional option of 0 (*don't know*). The coefficient alpha for this scale was .90.

Distributive justice. Perceived distributive justice will be measured using a 4-item scale taken from Colquitt's construct validation of organizational justice (2001, see Appendix A). All items use a 5-point scale with anchors of 1 (*to a small extent*) and 5 (*to a large extent*). The coefficient alpha for this scale was .91.

Procedural justice. Perceived procedural justice will be measured using a 7-item scale taken from Colquitt's construct validation of organizational justice (2001, see Appendix A). All items for the scale use a 5-point scale with anchors of 1 (*to a small extent*) and 5 (*to a large extent*). The coefficient alpha for this scale was .95.

Interpersonal justice. The interpersonal justice measure is a 4-item scale taken from Colquitt's construct validation of organizational justice (2001, see Appendix A). All items use a 5-point scale with anchors of 1 (*to a small extent*) and 5 (*to a large extent*). The coefficient alpha for this scale was .94.

Informational justice. The informational justice measure is a 5-item scale also taken from Colquitt (2001, see Appendix A). All items for use a 5-point scale with anchors of 1 (*to a small extent*) and 5 (*to a large extent*). The coefficient alpha for this scale was .93.

Burnout. Burnout will be measured using a 10-item scale consisting of a selection of items taken from Pines and Aronson's (1988) Burnout Measure (BM) (see Appendix A). Participants are asked to respond on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 7 (*always*). One of the most cited definitions of burnout views burnout as a state of physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998). The Burnout Measure (BM) is based on this conception. The BM is the second most frequently used self-report measure of burnout (Enzmann, Schaufeli, Janssen, & Rozeman, 1998; Glass & McKnight, 1996; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998), and it was developed for use with all occupations as well as non-occupational groups. In addition, the BM is highly correlated with the emotional exhaustion subscale of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (e.g., Schaufeli & Van Dierendonck, 1993). This is important because emotional exhaustion has been shown to be the central, dominant, and most significant component of burnout (e.g., Koeske & Koeske, 1989) and it is not unreasonable to contend that incivility will likely take its largest toll on respondents emotionally. The coefficient alpha for this scale was .91.

Organizational citizenship behaviors. OCBs will be measured with two scales taken from Lee and Allen (2002) consisting of eight items each from previously utilized OCB scales.

Participants are asked to respond on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (always). The first scale is intended to assess those behaviors beneficial for the overall organization (OCBOs; see Appendix A). The coefficient alpha for this scale was .90. The second scale is intended to assess those behaviors directed at benefiting specific individuals (OCBIs; see Appendix A). The coefficient alpha for this scale was .87.

Additional outcome variables. Test scores on a public safety promotional exam for either Sergeants or Lieutenants. Components for the Sergeants exam covered 89.5% of the job domain and included a roll call exercise (11.3%), supervisory structured interview (12.7%), legal knowledge exercise (24.6%), tactical exercise (28.8%), report review (17%), and a written exercise (5.6%). The roll call exercise simulated a meeting and verbal counseling session with subordinate officers. The legal knowledge exercise presented a number of scenarios and verbal responses were to be based upon knowledge of the Code of State. The tactical exercise consisted of multiple parts in which the candidates were presented scenarios and then provided verbal responses pertaining to the appropriate course of action. Components for the Lieutenants exam covered 99% of the job domain and included a presentation (22.7%), supervisory structured interview (11.3%), legal knowledge exercise (31.6%), tactical exercise (28.8%), and a written exercise (5.6%) with components shared between the Sergeant and Lieutenant candidates being similar in nature. The presentation component for Lieutenant candidates simulated a community presentation to a simulated citizen group.

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Descriptive statistics and bivariate relationships are presented for all variables represented by the LEOS in Table 1. Proposition 1 stated that (a) perceptions of distributive

justice will be positively related to perceptions of workplace civility, (b) perceptions of procedural justice will be positively related to perceptions of workplace civility, (c) perceptions of interpersonal justice will be positively related to perceptions of workplace civility, and (d) perceptions of informational justice will be positively related to perceptions of workplace civility. Workplace civility correlated significantly with distributive justice ($r = .26, p < .01$), procedural justice ($r = .57, p < .01$), interpersonal justice ($r = .46, p < .01$), and informational justice ($r = .50, p < .01$). The relationship between perceptions of workplace civility and organizational justice were significantly related to each other in the hypothesized directions thus providing full support for the first proposition.

Proposition 2 stated that (a) perceptions of distributive justice will be negatively related to perceptions of workplace incivility, (b) perceptions of procedural justice will be negatively related to perceptions of workplace incivility, (c) perceptions of interpersonal justice will be negatively related to perceptions of workplace incivility, and (d) perceptions of informational justice will be negatively related to perceptions of workplace incivility. Workplace incivility correlated significantly with distributive justice ($r = -.19, p < .01$), procedural justice ($r = -.58, p < .01$), interpersonal justice ($r = -.58, p < .01$), and informational justice ($r = -.54, p < .01$). The relationship between perceptions of workplace incivility and organizational justice were significantly related to each other in the hypothesized directions thus providing full support for the second proposition.

Proposition 3 stated that (a) perceptions of distributive justice will be positively related with self-reported organizational citizenship behaviors, (b) perceptions of procedural justice will be positively related with self-reported organizational citizenship behaviors, (c) perceptions of interpersonal justice will be positively related with self-reported organizational citizenship

behaviors, and (d) perceptions of informational justice will be positively related with self-reported organizational citizenship behaviors. Organizational citizenship behavior directed towards the individual (OCBI) and to the organization (OCBO) were significantly correlated to each other ($r = .67, p < .01$). OCBI correlated significantly with distributive justice ($r = .14, p < .01$), procedural justice ($r = .23, p < .01$), interpersonal justice ($r = .14, p < .01$), and informational justice ($r = .13, p < .01$). OCBOs correlated significantly with distributive justice ($r = .17, p < .01$), procedural justice ($r = .30, p < .01$), interpersonal justice ($r = .21, p < .01$), and informational justice ($r = .18, p < .01$). Correlational analyses suggest organizational citizenship behavior directed towards the both the individual (OCBI) and to the organization (OCBO) were significantly positively correlated to each of the organizational justice dimensions providing support for the third proposition, but will be further examined as part of the proposed model.

Proposition 4 stated that (a) perceptions of workplace civility will be positively related with self-reported organizational citizenship behaviors and (b) perceptions of workplace incivility will be negatively related with self-reported organizational citizenship behaviors. OCBI correlated significantly with workplace civility ($r = .18, p < .01$), but not workplace incivility ($r = -.02, n.s.$). Meanwhile, OCBOs correlated significantly with both workplace civility ($r = .31, p < .01$) and workplace incivility ($r = .13, p < .05$). These analyses provide partial support for the fourth proposition, but will be further examined as part of the proposed model.

Proposition 5 stated that (a) perceptions of distributive justice will be negatively related with self-reported burnout, (b) perceptions of procedural justice will be negatively related with self-reported burnout, (c) perceptions of interpersonal justice will be negatively related with self-reported burnout, and (d) perceptions of informational justice will be negatively related with self-

reported burnout. Self-reported burnout correlated significantly with distributive justice ($r = -.22$, $p < .01$), procedural justice ($r = -.44$, $p < .01$), interpersonal justice ($r = -.41$, $p < .01$), and informational justice ($r = -.43$, $p < .01$). Self-reported burnout correlated significantly with each of the justice dimensions in the expected direction providing full support for the fifth proposition, but will be further examined as part of the proposed model.

Proposition 6 stated that (a) perceptions of workplace civility will be negatively related with self-reported burnout and (b) perceptions of workplace incivility will be positively related with self-reported burnout. Self-reported burnout was significantly correlated to both workplace civility ($r = .59$, $p < .01$) and workplace incivility ($r = -.57$, $p < .01$). Self-reported burnout was significantly correlated to both workplace civility and workplace incivility in the expected directions providing full support for the sixth proposition, but will be further examined as part of the proposed model.

Proposition 7 stated that (a) perceptions of distributive justice will be positively related with the promotional exam score, (b) perceptions of procedural justice will be positively related with the promotional exam score, (c) perceptions of interpersonal justice will be positively related with the promotional exam score, and (d) perceptions of informational justice will be positively related with the promotional exam score. The standardized overall promotional exam score was not significantly correlated with any of the organizational justice dimensions. The standardized overall promotional exam score was not significantly correlated with any of the organizational justice dimensions providing no support for the seventh proposition. However, further analysis will investigate the model fit.

Exploratory research objective 1 stated that (a) perceptions of workplace civility will be positively related with the promotional exam score and (b) perceptions of workplace incivility

will be negatively related with the promotional exam score. The standardized overall promotional exam score was not significantly correlated with either perceptions of workplace civility or perceptions of workplace incivility dimensions providing no support for the exploratory research question. However, further analysis will investigate the model fit.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) for Measurement Model and Assessment of Construct Validity of the Model

CFA analysis is performed after drawing the covariance paths to all combinations of pairwise constructs. Factor loadings for all items were more than 0.60 satisfying the requirement. Factor loadings for all the items reflecting all the study constructs in the model were more than 0.60 satisfying the requirement. Using the output of CFA analysis, AVE and Construct Reliability (CR) values were computed. Table 2 summarizes the results from these computations.

All the constructs in the model report AVE more than 50% and construct reliability more than 0.60. Together with these two measures and the fact that all the factor loadings being more than 0.50, gives strong evidence for convergent validity of the measurement model.

To establish the discriminant validity of the constructs, the criteria that all construct average variance extracted (AVE) estimates should be larger than the corresponding squared inter construct correlation estimates (SIC) was used. If they are, this indicates the measured variables have more in common with the construct they are associated with than they do with the other constructs. Table 3 gives the AVE and SIC of each factor with all other factors in the model.

For each construct, AVE is more than the squared inter construct covariances. This establishes strong evidence for discriminant validity of the model. In summary, the CFA performed on all the constructs in the model, confirms that the model has adequate convergent, divergent validity and hence confirming the construct validity of the model. The fit indices

further indicated a satisfactory degree of goodness-of-fit C/\min 2.11, CFI .88, RMSEA .053 (see Table 4).

Hypothesis Testing using Structural Equation Modelling

Additional hypotheses testing were performed by means of structural equation modelling using the likelihood method (MLE). The results indicate the hypothesized model fit the data reasonably well $X^2(2106) = 5012.66, p < 0.001$ with fit indices indicated a satisfactory degree of goodness-of-fit C/\min 2.38, CFI .85, RMSEA .059 (see Table 4) (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008; MacCallum, Browne, and Sugawara, 1996; Marsh & Hoceavar, 1985). While a non-significant chi-square statistic is desirable in positing model fit, inferences based solely on this statistic are ill-founded based on a chi-square value's susceptibility to become inflated when sample size is large (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Table 5 reports the summary of results from path analysis performed as a part of structural equation modelling.¹

Distributive justice factor is not significantly associated with any of the endogenous variables ($p > .05$). Procedural justice is significantly positively related to the standardized overall promotional exam score ($p < .05$) and both organizational citizenship behavior dimensions ($p < .01$). The interpersonal justice factor is negatively significantly related to the OCBO endogenous variable ($p < .01$). Workplace civility was significantly negatively related to burnout ($p < .05$). However, it is significantly positively related to both dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior ($\beta > 0, p < .01$). Meanwhile, workplace incivility was significantly negatively related to the standardized overall promotional exam score ($p < .05$),

¹ Multiple group analysis and analysis of the promotional exam components for comparing the results of path analysis for conceptual model with alternative models involving mediators was not possible due to sample size. The solution did not converge. I tested the models using alternative estimation methods (GLS, Scale free least squares, etc.) but no solution could be obtained. The solution did not converge despite making several changes to the structural model in terms of fixing the regression weights of some of the indicators. The system of equations that represent the conceptual model indicates under identified model and issue of small samples. Consequently, additional exploratory analyses were conducted for job class, race, sex, jurisdiction, and the components of the promotional exam.

burnout ($p < .01$), and both dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior ($p < .01$). Lastly, informational justice reported significant negative association with both organizational justice factors. All other paths in the structural model reported no significant effect of the predictor variable. The final model for self-reported organizational citizenship behavior is shown in Figure 1. The final model for self-reported burnout is shown in Figure 2. The final model for performance on the promotional exam is shown in Figure 3.

Exploratory Analyses

Job Class Candidates

Sergeants ($M = 13.27$, $SD = 5.44$) and Lieutenants ($M = 13.66$, $SD = 5.67$) did not differ significantly on perceptions of workplace incivility, $t(391) = -.68$, $p = \text{n.s.}$ Sergeants ($M = 36.83$, $SD = 6.65$) and Lieutenants ($M = 36.90$, $SD = 6.78$) did not differ significantly on perceptions of workplace civility, $t(379) = -.10$, $p = \text{n.s.}$ Lieutenants ($M = 14.12$, $SD = 4.77$) reported significantly higher perceptions of distributive justice than Sergeants ($M = 9.62$, $SD = 4.89$), $t(379) = -8.70$, $p < .01$. Sergeants ($M = 25.0$, $SD = 8.01$) and Lieutenants ($M = 25.58$, $SD = 8.11$) did not differ significantly on perceptions of procedural justice, $t(370) = -.66$, $p = \text{n.s.}$ Sergeants ($M = 16.67$, $SD = 4.05$) and Lieutenants ($M = 16.92$, $SD = 4.12$) did not differ significantly on perceptions of interpersonal justice, $t(381) = -.58$, $p = \text{n.s.}$ Sergeants ($M = 19.49$, $SD = 5.10$) and Lieutenants ($M = 19.00$, $SD = 5.90$) did not differ significantly on perceptions of informational justice, $t(377) = .85$, $p = \text{n.s.}$ Sergeants ($M = 25.20$, $SD = 10.52$) and Lieutenants ($M = 24.18$, $SD = 9.84$) did not differ significantly on self-reported burnout, $t(379) = -.91$, $p = \text{n.s.}$ Lieutenants ($M = 43.17$, $SD = 6.96$) reported significantly higher self-reported organizational citizenship behaviors directed towards individuals than Sergeants ($M = 41.40$, $SD = 7.63$), $t(374) = -2.20$, $p < .05$. Lieutenants ($M = 45.65$, $SD = 6.90$) reported significantly higher self-reported

organizational citizenship behaviors directed towards the organization than Sergeants ($M = 42.80$, $SD = 8.22$), $t(371) = -3.34$, $p < .01$.

Sex of Candidates

Males ($M = 13.28$, $SD = 5.44$) and Females ($M = 14.48$, $SD = 6.11$) did not differ significantly on perceptions of workplace incivility, $t(391) = -1.30$, $p = \text{n.s.}$ Males ($M = 37.02$, $SD = 6.55$) and Females ($M = 35.32$, $SD = 7.73$) did not differ significantly on perceptions of workplace civility, $t(379) = 1.50$, $p = \text{n.s.}$ Males ($M = 10.97$, $SD = 5.31$) reported significantly lower perceptions of distributive justice than Females ($M = 12.79$, $SD = 4.88$), $t(379) = -2.05$, $p < .05$. Males ($M = 25.39$, $SD = 7.96$) and Females ($M = 23.50$, $SD = 8.59$) did not differ significantly on perceptions of procedural justice, $t(370) = 1.38$, $p = \text{n.s.}$ Males ($M = 16.77$, $SD = 4.00$) and Females ($M = 16.63$, $SD = 4.68$) did not differ significantly on perceptions of interpersonal justice, $t(381) = .21$, $p = \text{n.s.}$ Males ($M = 19.37$, $SD = 5.31$) and Females ($M = 18.92$, $SD = 5.98$) did not differ significantly on perceptions of informational justice, $t(377) = .50$, $p = \text{n.s.}$ Males ($M = 24.57$, $SD = 10.00$) and Females ($M = 27.39$, $SD = 12.58$) did not differ significantly on self-reported burnout, $t(379) = -1.60$, $p = \text{n.s.}$ Males ($M = 41.95$, $SD = 7.40$) and Females ($M = 42.49$, $SD = 7.98$) did not differ significantly on self-reported organizational citizenship behaviors directed towards individuals, $t(374) = -.42$, $p = \text{n.s.}$ Males ($M = 43.85$, $SD = 7.79$) and Females ($M = 43.05$, $SD = 8.94$) did not differ significantly on self-reported organizational citizenship behaviors directed towards the organization, $t(371) = .59$, $p = \text{n.s.}$

Race of Candidates

Blacks ($M = 13.00$, $SD = 5.47$) and Whites ($M = 13.75$, $SD = 5.60$) did not differ significantly on perceptions of workplace incivility, $t(391) = -1.33$, $p = \text{n.s.}$ Blacks ($M = 36.54$, $SD = 6.75$) and Whites ($M = 37.05$, $SD = 6.74$) did not differ significantly on perceptions of

workplace civility, $t(371) = -.73, p = \text{n.s.}$ Blacks ($M = 11.29, SD = 5.38$) and Whites ($M = 10.99, SD = 5.25$) did not differ significantly on perceptions of distributive justice, $t(381) = .55, p = \text{n.s.}$ Blacks ($M = 24.94, SD = 8.18$) and Whites ($M = 25.41, SD = 7.85$) did not differ significantly on perceptions of procedural justice, $t(364) = -.56, p = \text{n.s.}$ Blacks ($M = 16.47, SD = 4.27$) and Whites ($M = 16.98, SD = 3.94$) did not differ significantly on perceptions of interpersonal justice, $t(374) = -1.20, p = \text{n.s.}$ Blacks ($M = 19.23, SD = 5.48$) and Whites ($M = 19.43, SD = 5.30$) did not differ significantly on perceptions of informational justice, $t(370) = -.35, p = \text{n.s.}$ Blacks ($M = 23.41, SD = 10.65$) reported significantly lower self-reported burnout than Whites ($M = 26.12, SD = 9.91$), $t(379) = -1.60, p < .05$. Blacks ($M = 41.67, SD = 7.78$) and Whites ($M = 42.10, SD = 7.14$) did not differ significantly on self-reported organizational citizenship behaviors directed towards individuals, $t(367) = -.56, p = \text{n.s.}$ Blacks ($M = 43.58, SD = 8.46$) and Whites ($M = 43.68, SD = 7.46$) did not differ significantly on self-reported organizational citizenship behaviors directed towards the organization, $t(364) = -.12, p = \text{n.s.}$

Jurisdiction of Candidates

A one-way ANOVA was performed on the jurisdictional data such that the two largest jurisdictions were evaluated against the remaining combined “other” jurisdictions. A main effect of jurisdiction was found for perceptions of workplace incivility ($F(2,390) = 5.34, p < .01$). A Tukey post-hoc test revealed that perceptions of workplace incivility were significantly lower for the second largest jurisdiction ($N = 91, M = 11.99, SD = 4.01$) when compared to the “other” jurisdictions ($N = 142, M = 14.38, SD = 5.97$), but not significantly different from the largest jurisdiction ($N = 160, M = 13.34, SD = 5.69$). There was no statistically significant difference between the largest jurisdiction and “other” jurisdictions for perceptions of workplace incivility.

A main effect of jurisdiction was also found for perceptions of interpersonal justice ($F(2,380) = 3.20, p < .05$). A Tukey post-hoc test revealed that perceptions of interpersonal justice were significantly lower for the largest jurisdiction ($N = 159, M = 16.35, SD = 4.36$) when compared to the second largest jurisdiction ($N = 87, M = 17.69, SD = 3.50$), but not significantly different from the “other” jurisdictions ($N = 137, M = 16.63, SD = 4.00$). There was no statistically significant difference between the second largest jurisdiction and “other” jurisdictions for perceptions of interpersonal justice.

There were no other significant differences indicated on any of the scale responses based upon jurisdiction.

Results of Multiple Regressions for Components of Promotional Exam

A multiple regression was run to predict the standardized written exercise score from distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice, informational justice, workplace civility, workplace incivility, OCBOs, and OCBIs. These variables statistically significantly predicted performance on the standardized written exercise component, $F(8, 325) = 2.20, p < .05, R^2 = .226$. However, only perceptions of workplace incivility added statistically significantly to the prediction, $p < .05$.

A multiple regression was run to predict the standardized tactical exercise score from distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice, informational justice, workplace civility, workplace incivility, OCBOs, and OCBIs. These variables did not significantly predict performance on the standardized tactical exercise component, $F(8, 325) = .73, p = \text{n.s.}, R^2 = .018$.

A multiple regression was run to predict the standardized legal exercise score from distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice, informational justice, workplace

civility, workplace incivility, OCBOs, and OCBI. These variables did not significantly predict performance on the standardized legal exercise component, $F(8, 325) = .73, p = \text{n.s.}, R^2 = .03$.

A multiple regression was run to predict the standardized supervisory structured interview score from distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice, informational justice, workplace civility, workplace incivility, OCBOs, and OCBI. These variables did not significantly predict performance on the standardized written exercise component, $F(8, 325) = 1.21, p = \text{n.s.}, R^2 = .17$.

A multiple regression was run to predict the standardized roll call score from distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice, informational justice, workplace civility, workplace incivility, OCBOs, and OCBI. These variables did not significantly predict performance on the standardized written exercise component, $F(8, 206) = 1.47, p = \text{n.s.}, R^2 = .05$.

A multiple regression was run to predict the standardized presentation score from distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice, informational justice, workplace civility, workplace incivility, OCBOs, and OCBI. These variables did not significantly predict performance on the standardized written exercise component, $F(8, 110) = .79, p = \text{n.s.}, R^2 = .05$.

Results of EFA for combined Civility and Incivility Construct

An EFA performed on combined set of 15 items reflecting civility and incivility items reported KMO measure of sampling adequacy as .937. Bartlett's test of sphericity rejects the null hypotheses that the correlation matrix is proportional to an identity matrix ($\chi^2(105) = 3577.109, p < .001$).

A principal component analysis with Promax rotation was performed on these 15 items. An oblique Promax rotation was conducted because it does not force correlations among latent

factors to be zero. Communality values for all the items were greater than 0.50 indicating that all the items are working well with the factor analysis.

EFA revealed a two factor structure that explained 62.678% of the total variance. This was consistently reported by Eigen value criteria as well as scree plot (see Figure 4). First factor extracted reports high loadings on 8 items reflecting the civility factor and the second factor extracted reports high loadings on seven items reflecting the incivility factor (see Table 7).

Discussion

Summary

The primary objectives of the present study were as follows: (a) examine the relationship of perceptions of the workplace (i.e., organizational justice, workplace civility and workplace incivility), and (b) examine how perceptions of the workplace potentially impacts performance (i.e., self-reported organizational citizenship behaviors and promotional exam scores) and burnout. The relationship between perceptions of workplace civility and workplace incivility were significantly related to each other in the hypothesized directions thus providing full support for the first two propositions.

Proposition 3 stated perceptions of organizational justice (i.e., distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational) will be positively related with self-reported organizational citizenship behaviors and was partially supported. Correlational analyses suggested organizational citizenship behavior directed towards the both the individual (OCBI) and to the organization (OCBO) were significantly positively correlated to each of the organizational justice dimensions. However, further analysis using structural equation modeling demonstrated that procedural justice and informational justice were significantly related to both dimensions of

OCB, whereas interpersonal justice was significantly related to only OCBOs and distributive justice was not significantly related to either OCB dimensions.

Proposition 4 stated that (a) perceptions of workplace civility will be positively related with self-reported organizational citizenship behaviors and (b) perceptions of workplace incivility will be negatively related with self-reported organizational citizenship behaviors. . Correlational analyses suggested OCBOs correlated significantly with both workplace civility and workplace incivility perceptions. However, workplace incivility perceptions were significant in the direction opposite to what was expected. Meanwhile, OCBIIs correlated significantly with workplace civility, but not workplace incivility. Further analysis using structural equation modeling demonstrated that both perceptions of workplace civility and workplace incivility were significantly related to both dimensions of OCB and in the expected direction thereby providing full support for the proposition.

Proposition 5 stated that perceptions of organizational justice (i.e., distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational) will be negatively related with self-reported burnout. Self-reported burnout correlated significantly with each of the justice dimensions in the expected direction. However, further analysis using structural equation modeling demonstrated that none of the organizational justice dimensions were significantly related to burnout thereby providing no support for the proposition.

Proposition 6 stated that (a) perceptions of workplace civility will be negatively related with self-reported burnout and (b) perceptions of workplace incivility will be positively related with self-reported burnout. Self-reported burnout was significantly correlated to both workplace civility and workplace incivility in the expected directions. Further analysis using structural equation modeling demonstrated that perceptions of both workplace civility and workplace

incivility were significantly related to burnout. However, the relationship between perceptions of workplace incivility and burnout was in the opposite direction than was expected thereby providing partial support for the proposition.

Proposition 7 stated that that perceptions of organizational justice (i.e., distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational) will be positively related with the promotional exam score. The standardized overall promotional exam score was not significantly correlated with any of the organizational justice dimensions. However, further analysis using structural equation modeling demonstrated that perceptions of procedural justice are significantly positively related to the standardized overall promotional exam score thereby providing partial support for the proposition.

The exploratory research objective for investigation stated that (a) perceptions of workplace civility will be positively related and (b) perceptions of workplace incivility will be negatively related with the promotional exam score. The standardized overall promotional exam score was not significantly correlated with either perceptions of workplace civility or perceptions of workplace incivility. However, further analysis using structural equation modeling demonstrated that perceptions of workplace incivility were significantly negatively related to the standardized overall promotional exam score thereby providing partial support for the proposition.

Additional analyses were performed as exploratory in nature and yielded some interesting results. When examining the differences between the job class candidates Lieutenants were found to report significantly higher perceptions of distributive justice and both OCBI and OCBO relative to the Sergeant candidate counterparts. Analyses of candidate sex differences in the present study found Males to report significantly lower perceptions of distributive justice

compared to their Female counterparts. An analysis of race differences found that Blacks reported significantly lower burnout compared to their White counterparts. An analysis of jurisdictional differences was also performed on three groups (i.e., candidates from the largest jurisdiction, second largest jurisdiction, and the combined 15 “other” jurisdictions). A main effect was found for perceptions of workplace incivility and post hoc analysis found that the second largest jurisdiction were significantly lower than the combined “other” jurisdictions. A main effect was also found for interpersonal justice perceptions such that the largest jurisdiction reported significantly lower interpersonal justice relative to the second largest jurisdiction.

Multiple regression analyses was also performed on each of the components of the promotional exams using perceptions of each of the justice dimensions, workplace civility, workplace incivility, and self-reported OCBOs and OCBIs. These variables did not statistically predict performance on the separate components of the promotional exam with one exception. Perception of workplace incivility was found to add statistically significantly to the prediction of the standardized written exercise scores.

Lastly, an exploratory factor analysis on the combined workplace civility and workplace incivility scales yielded a two-factor solution. This is a contrary finding to research by Leiter, Day, Oore, and Laschinger (2012) that provides some indication civility and incivility may be part of the same factor. The results of the EFA in the present study more accurately reflect the findings of Clark, Landrum, and Nguyen (2013). However, their research set out to develop a civility scale that more broadly addresses some of the shortcomings of both the Workplace Incivility Scale and the VHA Civility Scale. Consequently, a multi-factor finding in the study was not surprising.

Although not as pronounced as expected, significant impact on the candidate performance in a promotional assessment center exam was observed and workplace perceptions were found to play a role in self-reported organizational citizenship behaviors and burnout. Furthermore, the prominence of interpersonal, informational, and procedural justice in this study also supports the growing body of literature acknowledging the significance of procedural fairness and interactional fairness over distributive fairness in predicting performance (Cohen-Charash and Spector 2001; Colquitt 2001; Judge and Colquitt 2004; Noblet, Maharee-Lawler, & Rodwell, 2012).

Practical Implications for Organizations

The results of this study provide some interesting implications for organizations considering the importance of employee's workplace perceptions on both hard (e.g., performance) and soft (e.g., perceptions) results. First, informational justice was found to be significantly negatively related to OCBOs. In a political organization such as the one in which this sample originated, this finding may suggest that as people become more aware of the political nature of the organization, there is less motivation to perform OCBOs because it may be perceived as fruitless endeavor. Second, workplace incivility perceptions were significant in the direction opposite to what was expected. This may be due to the fact that some perpetrators of incivility in the workplace may not always be directly related to the organization itself. Consequently, an individual that experiences incivility may still be inclined to perform OCBOs rather than OCBI. Third, the relationship between perceptions of workplace incivility and burnout was in the opposite direction than was expected. This unexpected finding may be due to the possibility of perceptions of incivility, and possibly acting in an uncivil manner one's self,

serving as a means to ameliorate the effects of burnout one is likely to report or possible effects of cognitive dissonance that was not available for analysis in the present study.

Additionally, perceptions of procedural justice are positively related to the standardized overall promotional exam score, but perceptions of workplace incivility were negatively related to the standardized overall promotional exam score. Although the latter finding does not mean that organizations should foster an uncivil culture, the benefits to the employee of organizations promoting an especially civil culture may not be as pronounced as organizations and its employees hope. This becomes further evident as perception of workplace incivility was found to only add to the prediction of the standardized written exercise scores. However, an organization that is procedurally just and allows incivility to fester could eventually experience a single extremely uncivil behavior (e.g., quid pro quo harassment) that could also violate legal standards. Consequently, procedurally just organizations should remain more inclined to go beyond simple adherence to legal regulations of workplace and employment standards, but may have difficulty obtaining a clear return on investment from initiatives related to proactively improving culture.

Organizations should also consider the impacts of group differences (e.g., race, sex, job class) because those organizations may experience differences, possibly opposite of what is expected, that could eventually translate to performance at the individual and/or group level. For instance, racial differences in public safety organizations should consider the racial composition of both their work force and the population being served. More specifically, the existing racial composition in the jurisdictions represented in the present study could increase the potential for greater racial conflict between police officers and suspects of opposing races. Furthermore, there has been an established history (i.e., both anecdotal and officially documented) of discriminatory

behavior in both the first and second largest jurisdictions in the present study. These discriminatory actions even led to a federally court-appointed receiver for one of the jurisdictions due to violations of a consent decree stemming from an ongoing employment discrimination case spanning over three decades. The predominantly male law enforcement sample also reported lower distributive justice perceptions and may be due to the protective nature of the public safety environment that leads males to shield females from some of the negative consequences of stereotypical male behavior (e.g., discrimination, pranks, etc.). However, it would be interesting to see if such a finding would hold in other predominantly male work sectors including other divisions of public safety (e.g., fire departments). Lastly, group differences could occur between job classes as was found between the Lieutenant and Sergeant candidates for self-reported organizational citizenship. This may be the result of Lieutenant candidates feeling as though the extra-role behaviors they perform are adequately rewarded via the promotional system in which they work relative to the Sergeant candidates (i.e., especially if the Lieutenant candidate is less tenured than the Sergeant candidate counterpart). Consequently, this could echo the earlier sentiment of organizations promoting beyond procedurally just cultures in an attempt to ameliorate group differences.

Limitations and Future Research

The lack of a large enough sample in the current study did not allow for the evaluation of some possible alternative models that included possible predictors as mediators (e.g., workplace (in)civility, citizenship behavior) or other possible mediators (e.g., jurisdiction) that may have enabled for a clearer picture of the relationship between the constructs of interest. Additionally, the present study was reliant on self-report and did not measure perceptions longitudinally to allow possible changes prior to, during, and after the promotional exam to be considered.

Further research is needed on specific encounters among colleagues' interpersonal dynamics and how that may influence subsequent performance in promotional contexts. An event-based research design using a diary study format may permit a detailed evaluation of these constructs and would be especially helpful for investigation of group differences, but may influence evaluations of relationships and be overly intrusive, especially in settings where sensitive and/or public safety work is being performed. Nonetheless, such strategies could help move the literature forward.

Conclusion

Based on the results of this study, it appears that although only procedural justice was related to overall promotional exam performance, the remaining organizational justice dimensions (i.e., distributive, interpersonal, and informational) warrant further research in the examination of relation to other types of performance (e.g., organizational citizenship). Furthermore, perceptions of the workplace (e.g., workplace incivility) may impact subsequent performance in promotional contexts when utilizing multiple components and should not be discounted by researchers and practitioners when considering the potential impact on such components (i.e., especially if adverse impact is likely to occur). Finally, the results indicate that perceptions of the workplace can have both positive (e.g., organizational citizenship) and negative consequences (e.g., burnout) for organizations and their employees.

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Appendix A

Workplace Incivility Scale (WIS)

“During the PAST YEAR while employed by your organization, have you been in a situation where any of your superiors or coworkers”:

0	1	2	3	4
Never				Most of the time

___ Put you down or was condescending to you?

___ Paid little attention to your statement or showed little interest in your opinion?

___ Made demeaning or derogatory remarks about you?

___ Addressed you in unprofessional terms, either publicly or privately?

___ Ignored or excluded you from professional camaraderie?

___ Doubted your judgment on a matter over which you have responsibility?

___ Made unwanted attempts to draw you into a discussion of personal matters?

VHA Civility Scale

Please respond to the following statements about your organization and coworkers using the scale provided. **If a statement does not apply, respond with a 0.**

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

- _____ People treat each other with respect in my work group.
- _____ Disputes or conflicts are resolved fairly in my work group.
- _____ A spirit of cooperation and teamwork exists in my work group.
- _____ This organization does not tolerate discrimination.
- _____ Differences among individuals are respected and valued in my work group.
- _____ Managers/supervisors/team leaders work well with employees of different backgrounds in my work group.
- _____ The people I work with take a personal interest in me.
- _____ The people I work with can be relied on when I need help.

Distributive Justice Items

The following items refer to your (outcome). To what extent:

1	2	3	4	5
To a Small Extent				To a Large Extent

_____ Does your (outcome) reflect the effort you have put into your work?

_____ Is your (outcome) appropriate for the work you have completed?

_____ Does your (outcome) reflect what you have contributed to the organization?

_____ Is your (outcome) justified, given your performance?

Procedural Justice Items

The following items refer to your supervisor or authority figure to whom you report. To what extent:

1	2	3	4	5
To a Small Extent				To a Large Extent

_____ Have you been able to express your views and feelings during those procedures?

_____ Have you had influence over the (outcome) arrived at by those procedures?

_____ Have those procedures been applied consistently?

_____ Have those procedures been free of bias?

_____ Have those procedures been based on accurate information?

_____ Have you been able to appeal the (outcome) arrived at by those procedures?

_____ Have those procedures upheld ethical and moral standards?

Interpersonal Justice Items

The following items refer to your supervisor or authority figure to whom you report. To what extent:

1	2	3	4	5
To a Small Extent				To a Large Extent

_____ Has (he/she) treated you in a polite manner?

_____ Has (he/she) treated you with dignity?

_____ Has (he/she) treated you with respect?

_____ Has (he/she) refrained from improper remarks or comments?

Informational Justice Items

The following items refer to your supervisor or authority figure to whom you report. To what extent:

1	2	3	4	5
To a Small Extent				To a Large Extent

_____ Has (he/she) been candid in (his/her) communications with you?

_____ Has (he/she) explained the procedures thoroughly?

_____ Were (his/her) explanations regarding the procedures reasonable?

_____ Has (he/she) communicated details in a timely manner?

_____ Has (he/she) seemed to tailor (his/her) communications to individuals' specific needs?

The Burnout Measure

When you think about your work overall, how often do you feel the following?
Please use the following scale to answer the question:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Very Rarely	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often	Always

____ Tired

____ Disappointed with people

____ Hopeless

____ Trapped

____ Helpless

____ Depressed

____ Physically weak/Sickly

____ Worthless/Like a failure

____ Difficulties sleeping

____ "I've had it"

OCBO Measure

The following items may describe your behavior at work. Please write the number that best indicates the extent to which your behavior at work corresponds with the following statements. Please respond as honestly and accurately as possible. Rate each statement using the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Very Rarely	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often	Always

_____ I attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image.

_____ I keep up with developments in the organization.

_____ I defend the organization when other employees criticize it.

_____ I show pride when representing the organization in public.

_____ I offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organization.

_____ I express loyalty toward the organization.

_____ I take action to protect the organization from potential problems.

_____ I demonstrate concern about the image of the organization.

OCBI Measure

The following items may describe your behavior toward others at work. Please write the number that best indicates the extent to which your behavior at work corresponds with the following statements. Please respond as honestly and accurately as possible. Rate each statement using the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Rarely	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often	Always	Never

_____ I help others who have been absent.

_____ I adjust my work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.

_____ I willingly give my time to help others who have work-related problems.

_____ I go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group.

_____ I show genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers, even under the most trying business or personal situations.

_____ I give up time to help others who have work or nonwork problems.

_____ I assist others with their duties.

_____ I share personal property with others to help their work.

Appendix B

Table 1

Means, standard deviations, alphas, and intercorrelations for all scales.

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
1. WIS	13.40	5.52	.90									
2. Civility	36.85	6.68	-.641**	.90								
3. Burnout	24.87	10.30	.590**	-.565**	.91							
4. OCBI	42.01	7.44	-.024	.175**	-.187**	.87						
5. OCBO	43.77	7.91	-.128*	.308**	-.291**	.673**	.90					
6. Total OCB	85.78	13.95	-.070	.255**	-.260**	.908**	.920**	.91				
7. Distributive Justice	11.15	5.29	-.199**	.259**	-.223**	.137**	.167**	.169**	.91			
8. Procedural Justice	25.20	8.04	-.579**	.570**	-.442**	.227**	.297**	.284**	.221**	.95		
9. Interpersonal Justice	16.75	4.07	-.584**	.462**	-.413**	.144**	.205**	.182**	.193**	.755**	.94	
10. Informational Justice	19.33	5.38	-.540**	.500**	-.427**	.134**	.178**	.164**	.153**	.824**	.814**	.93

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$. Cronbach's α for each measure is reported in bold along the diagonal.

Table 2

Average variance extracted and construct reliability for each construct in the final measurement model.

Scale(s)	# items	AVE (%)	CR (%)
Incivility	7	60.31%	86.32%
Civility	8	65.52%	86.83%
Burnout	10	59.6%	71.32%
Distributive Justice	4	72.22%	84.65%
Interpersonal Justice	4	81.60%	88.93%
Informational Justice	5	72.52%	87.51%
Procedural Justice	7	73.33%	89.57%
OCBI	8	61.6%	86.41%
OCBO	8	60.33%	84.34%

AVE = Average Variance Extracted, CR = Construct Reliability

Table 3

Average variance extracted and inter construct correlation for each construct in the final measurement model.

Scale(s)	AVE (%)	INC	CIV	BURN	DIST	INTP	INF	PRC	OCBI	OCBO
Incivility	67.9%									
Civility	68.3%	0.7%								
Burnout	71.6%	2.2%	0.4%							
Distributive	80.3%	1.0%	0.9%	45.4%						
Inter personal	78.0%	1.8%	1.1%	56.0%	49.3%					
Informational	78.0%	1.8%	1.1%	56.0%	49.3%	73.3%				
Procedural	78.0%	1.8%	1.1%	56.0%	49.3%	73.3%	41.2%			
OCBI	78.0%	1.8%	1.1%	56.0%	49.3%	73.3%	41.2%	53.6%		
OCBO	78.0%	1.8%	1.1%	56.0%	49.3%	73.3%	41.2%	53.6%	81.7%	

Table 4

Model fit statistics of confirmatory factor analysis.

Model Fit Statistic	Computed Statistic	Desirable cut off for acceptance
CMIN / DF	2.111	< 5.0
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.880	> 0.90
Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.053	< 0.08
Confidence interval for RMSEA	(0.051, 0.055)	Upper limit < 0.08

Table 5

Structural equation modeling results with maximum likelihood estimates of standardized path coefficients.

Dependent variable	Path	Independent Variable	Standardized path coefficient	P value
Exam	←	Distributive Justice	-.074	.258
Burnout	←	Distributive Justice	-.046	.317
OCBI	←	Distributive Justice	.076	.124
OCBO	←	Distributive Justice	.064	.172
Exam	←	Procedural Justice	.168*	.032
Burnout	←	Procedural Justice	.007	.882
OCBI	←	Procedural Justice	.312**	<.001
OCBO	←	Procedural Justice	.293**	<.001
Exam	←	Interpersonal Justice	.057	.365
Burn out	←	Interpersonal Justice	-.053	.238
OCBI	←	Interpersonal Justice	.080	.099
OCBO	←	Interpersonal Justice	.139**	.003
Exam	←	Civility	-.022	.728
Burnout	←	Civility	-.439**	<.001
OCBI	←	Civility	.232**	<.001
OCBO	←	Civility	.330**	<.001
Exam	←	Incivility	-.181*	.027
Burnout	←	Incivility	-.376**	<.001
OCBI	←	Incivility	-.257**	<.001
OCBO	←	Incivility	-.193**	<.001
Exam	←	Informational Justice	-.063	.320
Burnout	←	Informational Justice	-.008	.854
OCBI	←	Informational Justice	-.165**	<.001
OCBO	←	Informational Justice	-.236**	<.001

*significant at 0.05 level, **significant at 0.01 level

Table 6

Model fit statistics for the structural model.

Model Fit Statistic	Computed Statistic	Desirable cut off for acceptance
CMIN / DF	2.380	< 5.0
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.850	> 0.90
Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.059	< 0.08
Confidence interval for RMSEA	(0.057, 0.061)	Upper limit < 0.08

Table 7

Rotated factor matrix for factor analysis for combined set of civility and incivility items.

Item	Component	
	1	2
Differences among individuals are respected and valued in my work group	.793	
Disputes or conflicts are resolved fairly in my work group	.824	
People treat each other with respect in my work group	.781	
Managers/supervisors/team leaders work well with employees of different back grounds in my work group.	.742	
A spirit of cooperation and teamwork exists in my work group	.863	
This organization does not tolerate discrimination	.822	
The people I work with can be relied on when I need help	.635	
The people I work with take a personal interest in me	.720	
Put you down or was condescending to you		.864
Made demeaning or derogatory remarks about you?		.786
Addressed you in unprofessional terms, either publicly or privately		.840
Ignored or excluded you from professional camaraderie?		.827
Doubted your judgment on a matter over which you have responsibility?		.813
Paid little attention to your statement or showed little interest in your opinion?		.760
Made unwanted attempts to draw you into a discussion of personal matters?		.697

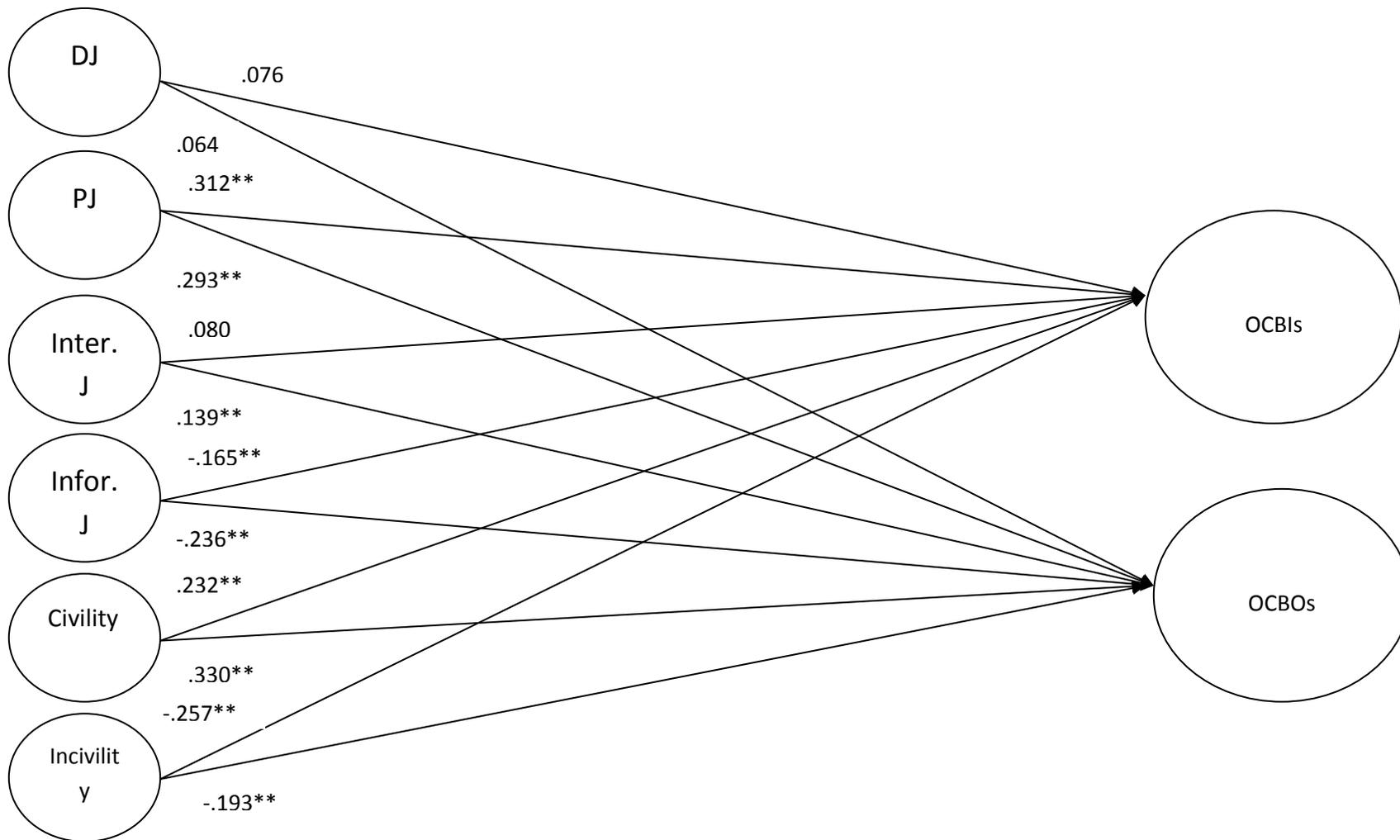


Figure 1. Final model for self-reported organizational citizenship behaviors.

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$. DJ = Distributive Justice, PJ = Procedural Justice, Inter. J = Interpersonal Justice, Infor. J = Informational Justice, OCBIs = Organizational Citizenship Behaviors directed towards the Individual, OCBOs= Organizational Citizenship Behaviors directed towards the organization

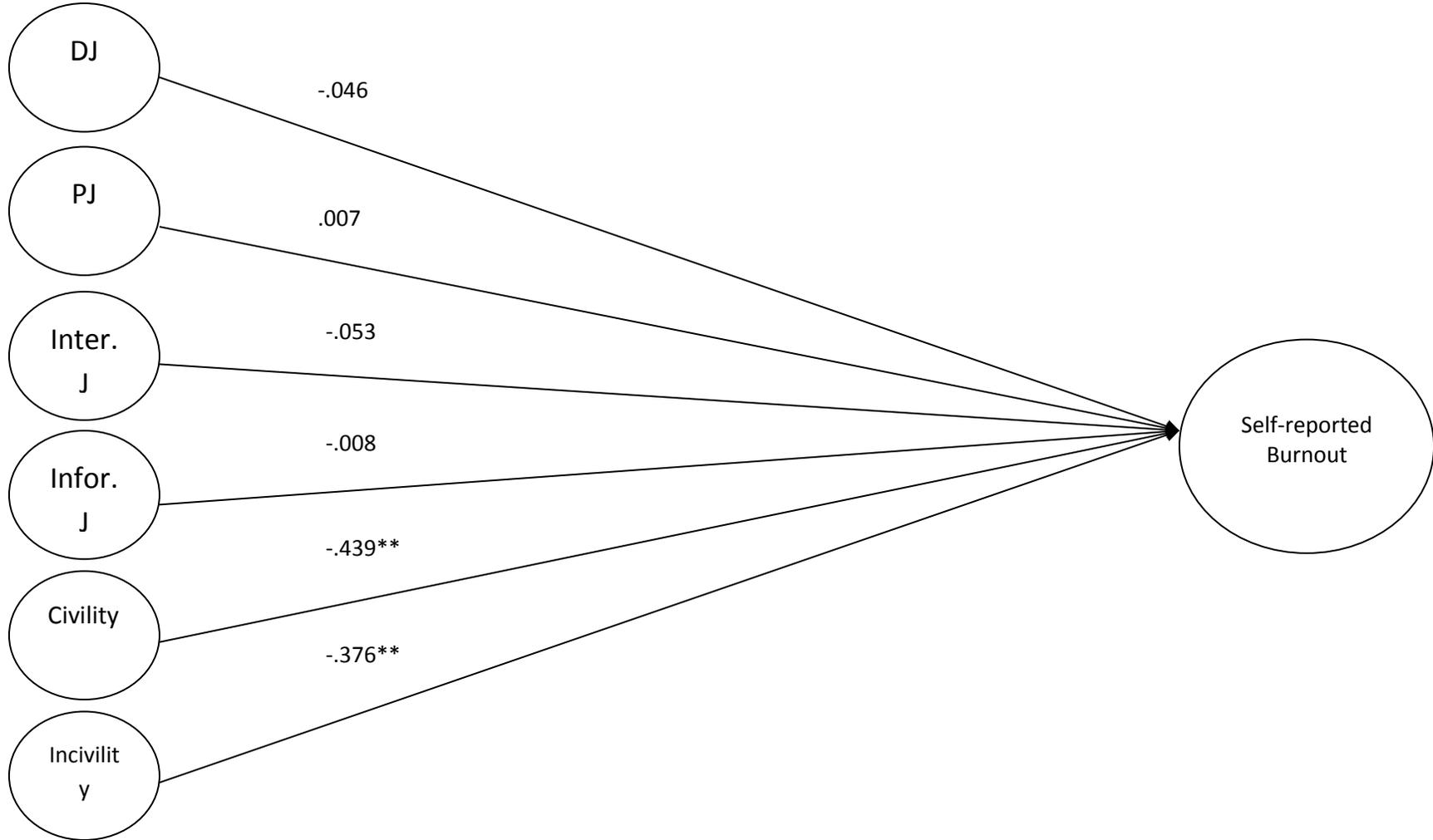


Figure 2. Final model for self-reported burnout.

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$. DJ = Distributive Justice, PJ = Procedural Justice, Inter. J = Interpersonal Justice, Infor. J = Informational Justice, OCBI = Organizational Citizenship Behaviors directed towards the Individual, OCBO = Organizational Citizenship Behaviors directed towards the Organization

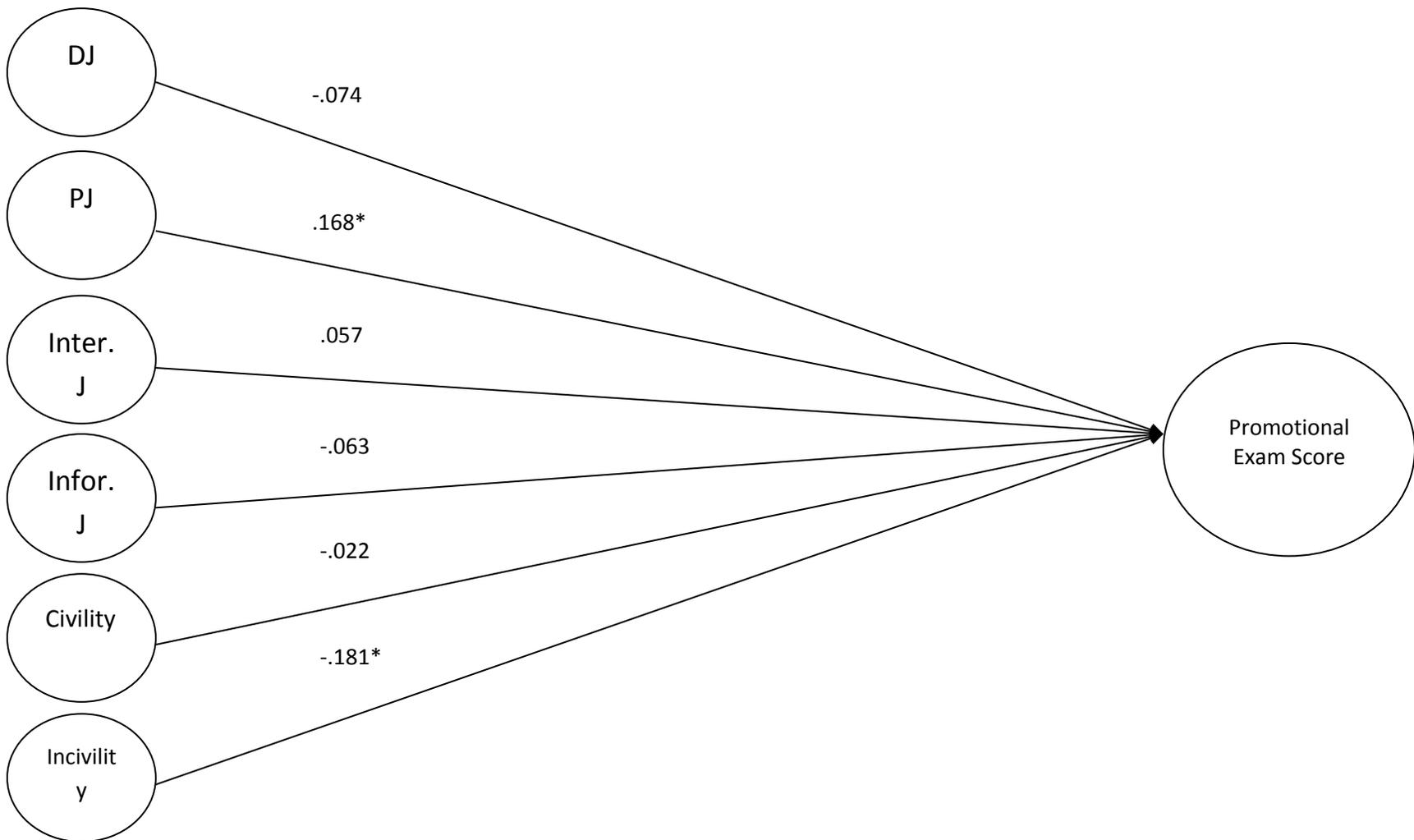


Figure 3. Final model for promotional exam performance.

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$. DJ = Distributive Justice, PJ = Procedural Justice, Inter. J = Interpersonal Justice, Infor. J = Informational Justice, OCBI = Organizational Citizenship Behaviors directed towards the Individual, OCBO = Organizational Citizenship Behaviors directed towards the organization

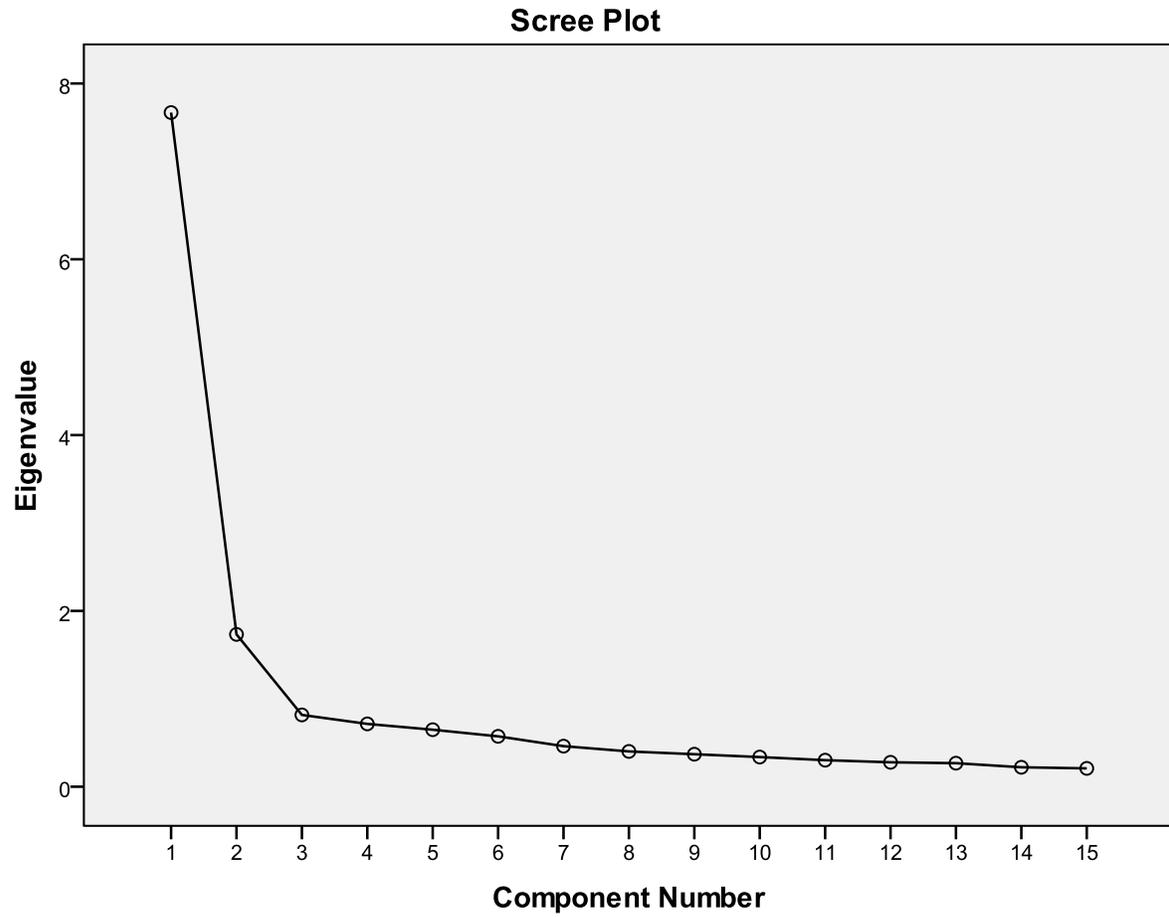


Figure 4. Scree plot for combined set of civility and incivility items.