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Cultural Differences as a Moderator of Perceptions of Injustice and Workplace Deviance

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CULTURAL DIFFERENCES AS A MODERATOR OF PERCEPTIONS OF
INJUSTICE AND WORKPLACE DEVIANCE

A Thesis
Presented to
the Graduate School of
Clemson University

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Science
Applied Psychology

by
Amber Nicole Schroeder
May 2009

Accepted by:
Dr. Patrick Rosopa, Committee Chair
Dr. Mary Anne Taylor
Dr. Robin Kowalski

ABSTRACT

Previous research has suggested that organizational justice perceptions are negatively related to workplace deviance, but the impact of individual cultural orientations has rarely been considered. Thus, the current paper examined individualism and collectivism as moderators of the justice-deviance relationship. Results suggested that injustice was more likely to lead to deviant workplace behavior in individuals high on individualism or low on collectivism than in individuals on the opposite ends of these spectrums. Practical implications and study limitations are discussed.

DEDICATION

This manuscript would be incomplete without a mention of the individuals whose continuous support and encouragement have allowed me to be where I am today, and to whom I am forever indebted.

To my wonderful husband, who has been both patient and understanding during this process. I love you more than words can say.

And to my parents, for it was from their example that I learned the meaning of hard work. You are my biggest role models, and I am so grateful for all of your love and support.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Perceptions of workplace fairness have been found to influence both employee actions and attitudes (Lawler, 1977). In fact, some researchers have stated that justice is vital to the effective functioning of organizations (Moore, 1978; Okun, 1975). Rawls (1971) even went so far as to label justice as “the first virtue of social institutions” (p. 3). As a result of the many attempts to better understand the function of fairness in the workplace, the topic of organizational justice has become a popular area of research. Extant literature has suggested relationships exist between aspects of organizational justice (e.g., perceived fairness of outcomes, the procedures used to make decisions, and social treatment by management) and various work outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance, counterproductive work behaviors, and withdrawal) (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001). However, the effect of individual culture in these relationships has rarely been considered. Therefore, the purpose of the current paper is to further evaluate the impact of individual culture on the relationship between injustice perceptions and workplace deviance (see Figure 1).

Organizational Justice

Organizational justice is often categorized into three dimensions: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice. Early justice research primarily focused on distributive justice, which involves perceptions of outcome fairness (Adams, 1965). A decade later, Thibaut and Walker (1975) introduced the topic of procedural

justice with their book on individual responses to the workings of the legal system. The most recent addition to the justice literature was presented by Bies and Moag (1986) as a result of their research on the significance of the quality of the interpersonal treatment employees encounter in the workplace. Each of these dimensions will be further examined below.

Distributive Justice

Distributive justice research emerged as a result of Adams's (1965) equity theory, which stated that fairness can be subjectively determined by examining the ratio of an employee's contributions to the amount of outcomes he or she receives as compared to a referent other. Reactions to unfair outcomes can come in the form of emotions (e.g., anger, pride, or guilt) (Weiss, Suckow, & Cropanzano, 1999), cognitive appraisals (e.g., the distortion of outcomes of the individual or of a referent other) (Adams, 1965), and behavioral responses (e.g., performance) (Lind & Tyler, 1988). Research showing support for Adams's (1965) equity theory has found that, when employees believe themselves to be underpaid, they have an incentive to alter their inequity (Greenberg, 1990; Lord & Hohenfeld, 1979).

Although Adams's (1965) theory is concerned primarily with perceptions of equity in the determination of distributive justice, other researchers have expanded on his research with the introduction of theories involving equality and need (e.g., Leventhal, 1976). Equality theories contend that everyone should have the same probability of receiving an outcome or reward, despite variation among individual skill or experience, whereas theories taking a needs approach contend that outcomes should be allocated

according to the needs of each person (Muchinsky, 2006). Studies have shown that whether an individual uses standards of equity, equality, or need to evaluate outcome fairness is due in part to context (e.g., business vs. personal issues), organizational objectives (e.g., positive group rapport vs. productivity), and individual drives (e.g., egocentric motives vs. altruistic intentions) (Deutsch, 1975). More recently, research by Leung (1997) has suggested that an individual's culture affects which method of outcome distribution is preferred, with individualistic cultures favoring equity theories and collectivistic cultures favoring equality theories. Nevertheless, despite the differences among equity, equality, and need-based theories, each is based on reward distribution, which gives all three a common goal of attaining distributive justice.

Procedural Justice

Moving away from outcome-focused views of justice, the next major dimension of organizational justice to surface was that of procedural justice, or the perceived fairness of the way in which rewards are decided upon (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). One of the factors that influences perceptions of procedural justice is that of individual "voice", or the opportunity for an individual to offer his or her opinions and take part in the decision process (Folger & Greenberg, 1985; Schminke, Ambrose, & Cropanzano, 2000; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). For instance, having the opportunity to give input has been shown to be perceived as more fair in contexts involving employees' reactions to performance appraisals (Gilliland & Chan, 2001), participants' reactions to the distribution of monetary rewards (Folger, 1977), citizens' interactions with police

officers (Tyler & Folger, 1980), students' reactions to their teachers (Tyler & Caine, 1984), and voters' appraisals of political officials (Tyler, Rasinski, & McGraw, 1985).

Leventhal (1980) went beyond the notion that individual voice was the only determinant of perceived procedural justice by developing six criteria against which to evaluate process fairness. The criteria asserted that procedures should be (a) unchanging across time, (b) without bias, (c) accurate, (d) fixable in case of mistakes, (e) encompassing of all individuals affected by the decision, and (f) based on current morality. Subsequent research has shown support for Leventhal's criteria (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998).

In a study investigating the differences between types of justice and attitudes, Tyler (1984) found that procedural justice was highly correlated with defendants' attitudes toward the legal system, whereas distributive justice was strongly related to trial outcomes. Building off of these findings, Lind and Tyler (1988) inferred that the same results would be seen in organizational settings. Several researchers have found support for this notion, demonstrating that procedural justice in pay raises is related to organizational commitment and trust, whereas distributive justice is related to satisfaction with an individual's pay (Folger & Konovsky, 1989). Similar results were found in Fryxell and Gordon's (1989) study of employees' responses to organizational grievance systems, where procedural justice perceptions predicted attitudes toward the grievance system, and distributive justice perceptions predicted attitudes toward management.

Interactional Justice

Interactional justice, which is often viewed as an extension of procedural justice because of its focus on organizational procedures, corresponds to the quality of the communication process as organizational policies are carried out (Bies & Moag, 1986).¹ Due to the interpersonal nature of interactional justice, an individual's cognitive, affective, and behavioral responses to interactional justice have been found to typically be directed toward management or the justice source rather than the organization as a whole (Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000). However, if interactional injustice is viewed to be due to the organization's procedures rather than the injustice source's method of executing organizational procedures, the perceiver will infer procedural injustice and direct negative attitudes toward the organization as a whole (Bies & Moag, 1986).

Interactional justice's effect on organizational outcomes has been demonstrated in studies evaluating employee acceptance of a smoking ban (Greenberg, 1994), theft rates after a pay cut (Greenberg, 1990), and the effects of supervisor consideration on grievance procedures (Bemmel, 1994). Findings from each of these studies suggest that providing information about the motives for making changes to organizational policies resulted in more positive outcomes (e.g., higher rates of acceptance and less theft). In addition, research has also linked interactional justice to constructs such as organizational citizenship behaviors (Moorman, 1991) and social exchange satisfaction (Hui, Au, & Zhao, 2007).

Self-Serving Bias in Justice Perceptions

It is important to note that individuals may bias their perceptions of fairness in a manner that is most beneficial to themselves (Törnblom, 1977). More specifically, research has shown that individuals may view outcomes that are biased in their favor as fair and outcomes that are more beneficial to others as unfair in what is known as self-serving or egocentric bias (Diekmann, Samuels, Ross, & Bazerman, 1997; Greenberg, 1983). These findings have been demonstrated in various contexts, including attitudes toward organizational parental leave policies (Grover, 1991), the acceptance of a workplace smoking ban (Greenberg, 1994), compensation for research participation (Greenberg, 1987), and court verdicts (Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Although it is outside the scope of the traditional dimensions of organizational justice, self-serving bias is a factor that should be addressed when individual perceptions of fairness are involved.

Although each dimension of organizational justice contributes a different perspective, they have the common goal of attaining fairness in the workplace. Therefore, the focus of the current paper is not to further examine the facets of organizational justice, but rather to investigate cultural variables as moderators of the relationship between employee perceptions of justice and workplace deviance.

Workplace Deviance

Injustice perceptions can often lead to various forms of workplace deviance (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Greenberg, 1990; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). Workplace deviance, which has also been referred to as counterproductive work behavior (Brock-Lee & Spector, 2006), organizational retaliatory behavior (Skarlicki & Folger,

1997), and antisocial behavior (Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997), was defined by Robinson and Bennett (1995) as “voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of an organization, its members, or both” (p. 556). Workplace deviance can take many forms, such as theft (Greenberg, 1990), withholding of effort (Kidwell & Bennett, 1993), aggression (Fox & Spector, 1999), absenteeism (Kohler & Mathieu, 1993), and turnover (Mobley, 1977). Regardless of which term is used or how it is demonstrated, workplace deviance can be detrimental to organizations in ways such as losses in productivity or negative effects on organizational functionality.

Workplace deviance has been conceptualized in various ways. For instance, Robinson and Bennett (1995) have suggested that workplace deviance consists of two dimensions: (a) seriousness of the offense, and (b) whether the offense is directed toward organizational or interpersonal forces. Other researchers argue that workplace deviance consists of two categories: (a) covert aggression, where the individual engages in subtle, indirect negative behaviors (e.g., using organizational resources for personal use), and (b) overt aggression, where the individual performs behaviors that directly reveal negative intentions (e.g., physical assault or the destruction of property) (Björkqvist, Österman, & Hjelt-Bäck, 1994). Baron, Neuman, and Geddes (1999) further classified covert aggression into two dimensions: (a) expressions of hostility, which consist primarily of verbal or symbolic behaviors (e.g., gossiping or criticizing others’ opinions) and (b) obstructionism, which involves passive attempts to impede performance (e.g., withholding effort or a lack of communication). Although researchers have argued over

how to further classify workplace deviance, this issue is tangential to the current paper. Therefore, a unidimensional conceptualization of workplace deviance will be used in order to gain a better understanding of how the general construct is related to other variables.

Previous research has not only considered how workplace deviance is uniquely affected by each dimension of organizational justice (e.g., Skarlicki, Folger, & Tesluk, 1999), but the specific targets to which the various types of workplace deviance are directed have also been examined. As a result of a multidimensional scaling study by Robinson and Bennett (1995), a distinction is often made between organizational workplace deviance, or workplace deviance that is directly harmful to an organization (e.g., intentionally withholding effort, sharing company secrets, or damaging company property), and interpersonal workplace deviance, or behavior directly harmful to individuals within an organization (e.g., gossiping, violence, or stealing from coworkers). A recent meta-analysis provided support for the usefulness of dichotomizing workplace deviance (Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007). As a result, organizational and interpersonal workplace deviance will be examined in this study to gain a better understanding of how employees direct their deviant actions. However, it is important to note that employee engagement in any form of workplace deviance is harmful to organizations, regardless of the target. Therefore, the variable of principal interest in this study will be workplace deviance in its general sense. For this reason, an examination of the factors leading to workplace deviance is necessary.

Organizational Justice and Workplace Deviance

Adams's (1965) equity theory states that inequity motivates individuals to react either by adjusting their cognitions or behavioral responses. More recently, organizational justice research has found support for equity theory by demonstrating a relationship between perceptions of injustice and workplace deviance (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Greenberg, 1990). Because distributive, procedural, and interactional justice may each uniquely affect workplace deviance, the relationship between each dimension of organizational justice and workplace deviance will be further examined below.

Distributive Justice and Workplace Deviance

Many studies have supported the argument that distributive justice is related to workplace deviance (Colquitt et al., 2001; Fox et al., 2001; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). More specifically, researchers have found perceptions of distributive justice to be related to employee outcome satisfaction (e.g., pay satisfaction and job satisfaction) (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992). This finding has also been demonstrated in a legal setting, where distributive justice was found to be related to defendants' satisfaction with verdicts (Tyler, 1984). In addition, Erdogan and Liden (2006) found support for a relationship between distributive justice and the quality of employee-leader interactions. This is consistent with research findings which demonstrated that employee outcome dissatisfaction is positively related to negative affective responses toward authorities within an organization (DeMore, Fisher, & Baron (1988). Thus, based on previous research, I would expect employees' perceptions of distributive injustice to lead

to workplace deviance targeting aspects of employees' personal relationships, particularly those involving organizational authorities.

Procedural Justice and Workplace Deviance

In contrast to the interpersonal nature of deviant behaviors as a response to distributive injustice, research has suggested that perceptions of procedural justice are related to outcomes targeting organizations (Masterson et al., 2000; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992). For instance, Folger and Konovsky (1989) found perceived procedural justice during pay raises to be related to organizational commitment and trust in management. Analogous results were found in Fryxell and Gordon's (1989) study where procedural justice was shown to be related to employee satisfaction with organizational grievance systems. Further support for this argument has been demonstrated in a legal setting, where procedural justice was found to be related to defendants' attitudes toward the court system (Tyler, 1984). Therefore, I would expect employees' perceptions of procedural injustice to lead to organization-directed dissatisfaction.

Interactional Justice and Workplace Deviance

Like distributive justice, perceptions of interactional justice have been shown to be related to outcomes targeted toward organizational authority (Masterson, et al., 2000). Researchers have suggested that because interactional justice is often an evaluation of supervisor-employee interactions, individuals may respond to justice perceptions by exhibiting behaviors directed specifically toward their supervisors (Moorman, 1991). This is consistent with Folger and Cropanzano's (1998) notion of accountability, where individuals seek to identify the source of injustice and direct their reactions toward that

source. Recent research has supported this notion by demonstrating a relationship between interactional justice and the quality of employee-supervisor interactions (Erdogan & Liden, 2006). In addition, Venkataramani and Dalal (2007) found that as relationship quality between two individuals decreased, each individual was more likely to engage in deviant behaviors directed toward the other. Thus, based on extant research, I would expect perceptions of interactional injustice to lead to workplace deviance targeting aspects of employees' personal work relationships.

Despite the links between organizational justice and workplace deviance that have been demonstrated in the extant literature, little is known regarding the degree to which individually held cultural values might moderate the justice-workplace deviance relationship. As a result, this paper will examine individually held cultural values as a moderator of the relationship between organizational justice and workplace deviance.

Individual Culture

As defined by Hofstede (1991), culture is “the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another” (p. 5). Cultural studies have previously focused on various facets of organizational behavior, including work motivation (Erez, 1997), leadership (House, Wright, & Aditya, 1997), reactions to human resource management practices (Ramamoorthy & Carroll, 1998), and leader-member exchange (Erdogan & Liden, 2006). Although as many as five dimensions of cultural variation have been demonstrated (Hofstede, 2001), the focus of this paper will be to examine individualism-collectivism.

Individualism-Collectivism

Triandis (1995) demonstrated that the perceptions and behaviors of people with individualistic values differ from people with collectivistic values. Collectivists emphasize context, whereas individualists more often stress content (Triandis, 2006). Others have posited that the individualism-collectivism distinction refers to the amount of social interactions among individuals (Earley & Gibson, 1998). Triandis (1995) defines individualists as people who perceive the self as separate from others, emphasize personal goals, direct behavior to reflect individual opinions and values, and focus on outcomes, whereas collectivists view the self as part of a group, focus on group goals, behave according to social norms, and emphasize quality interpersonal relationships.

Some researchers, such as Hofstede (1980), have assessed individualism-collectivism at the cross-national level. Although some countries exhibit predominately collectivistic or individualistic characteristics, it has been demonstrated that substantial variation exists in the cultural values of a country's individuals (Oyserman, Coon, & Kimmelmeier, 2002). Thus, in this paper, I will consider individualism-collectivism at the individual level rather than the country level (cf., Erdogan & Liden, 2006; Ng & Van Dyne, 2001; Triandis, McCusker, & Hui, 1990). In addition, despite Hofstede's (1980) conceptualization of individualism-collectivism as existing on opposite poles, a recent meta-analysis suggests that they may be orthogonal (Oyserman et al., 2002). As a result, I will consider each dimension separately.

Organizational Justice and Individualism-Collectivism

Studies have shown that collectivists focus on work relationships that emphasize teamwork and group achievements rather than individual incentives (e.g., Gomez-Mejia & Welbourne, 1991), whereas Triandis (1995) defines individualistic people to be highly outcome focused. Collectivists have also been found to favor equality or tenure-based reward systems, whereas individualists prefer equity or merit-based rewards (Ramamoorthy & Carroll, 1998). However, because many organizations in the United States employ the use of merit-based systems that focus on an achievement-orientation, competition, independence, and individual recognition (Stone & Stone-Romero, 2004), I would expect employees high on individualism to perceive a greater degree of distributive justice in these settings.

Previous research has also demonstrated a relationship between fairness of procedures and organizational workplace deviance (Masterson et al., 2000). In addition, Folger and Konovsky (1989) demonstrated that procedural unfairness was associated with a reduction in organizational commitment by individuals. However, because collectivists often trust their employers, believe management will care for their well-being, and perceive employment relationships to be long-term (Gomez-Mejia & Welbourne, 1991), decreases in organizational commitment or disagreement with organizational policy would be inconsistent with collectivists' trust in authority. As a result, I would expect procedural injustice perceptions to be more likely to occur in individuals low on collectivism.

Research on cooperation has demonstrated that collectivists are generally more cooperative than individualists (Cox, Lobel, & McLeod, 1991). Similarly, Wagner (1995) demonstrated that collectivism had a positive relationship with cooperative behaviors displayed by members of a team on a group task. In addition, collectivists have been said to hold an interdependent view of the self that emphasizes social relationships and group settings (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Collectivists are also less likely to develop relationships in order to receive some sort of personal gain (Doney, Cannon, & Mullen, 1998). In further support of this argument, Ohbuchi, Fukushima, and Tedeschi (1999) found that in resolving conflicts, American students focused on receiving fair outcomes, whereas Japanese students were more concerned with maintaining social relationships. Because of collectivists' socially-oriented nature and focus on quality interactions, I would expect collectivists to pay more attention to the nature of their work relationships. As a result, I would expect collectivists to be more likely to perceive interactional injustice.

Culture and Workplace Deviance

Previous research has demonstrated that the degree to which organizational justice is related to outcomes varies across cultures (Brockner, Ackerman, Greenberg, Gelfand, Francesco, Chen et al., 2001; Lam, Schaubroeck, & Aryee, 2002). Because collectivists put a strong emphasis on job security and long-term employment (Ramamoorthy & Carroll, 1998), it can be expected that collectivistic individuals would not engage in behaviors that would put their jobs at risk. Further supporting this argument, Hofstede (1991) noted that because collectivists perceive work relationships as family

relationships, protecting social associations may be more important than engaging in workplace deviance. In addition, collectivists may feel it is necessary to maintain positive relations despite unfair treatment, whereas individualists are less tolerant of unfairness (Erdogan & Liden, 2006). Thus, based on previous research, I would expect individuals high on collectivism to engage in fewer deviant workplace behaviors than individuals low on collectivism.

Culture as a Moderator of Justice Perceptions and Workplace Deviance

Research has not only suggested that individual emphasis on justice varies across cultures (Mueller & Wynn, 2000), but that the degree to which justice is valued by individuals is important in understanding their reactions to justice/injustice (Markovsky, 1985). Because the extent to which a person is individualistic or collectivistic contributes to the development of interpersonal relationships (Sullivan, Mitchel, & Uhl-Bien, 2003), these expectations may affect how individuals respond to justice perceptions. More specifically, because collectivistic people put more value in their social relationships than individualists (Triandis, 1995), in reaction to perceived injustice, collectivists may be less likely than individualists to engage in deviant behavior that could possibly be detrimental to their social ties. A number of studies have supported this argument. For instance, Lam et al. (2002) found individual orientation to authority to be a moderator of the relationship between justice, attitudes, and performance. Others have found that power distance moderates the relationship between voice and individual responses (Brockner et al., 2001). As a result, based on extant literature, I would expect an individual's decision to engage in workplace deviance in response to perceived injustice to vary as a function

of culture. Thus, I expect individuals' degree of individualism or collectivism to moderate the relationship between organizational justice and each dimension of workplace deviance.

The Current Study

As noted above, the purpose of the current study was to examine the impact of individual culture on the relationship between justice perceptions and workplace deviance. As previous research has found perceptions of organizational justice and workplace deviance to be associated (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Greenberg, 1990), the current study extends this line of research by considering individual culture as a moderator. Namely, the following hypotheses were proposed:

Hypothesis 1a: Distributive justice perceptions will be negatively correlated with interpersonal workplace deviance.

Hypothesis 1b: Procedural justice perceptions will be negatively correlated with organizational workplace deviance.

Hypothesis 1c: Interactional justice perceptions will be negatively correlated with interpersonal workplace deviance.

Hypothesis 2a: Distributive justice perceptions will have a positive relationship with an individual's individualistic orientation.

Hypothesis 2b: Procedural justice perceptions will have a positive relationship with an individual's collectivistic orientation.

Hypothesis 2c: Interactional justice perceptions will have a negative relationship with an individual's collectivistic orientation.

Hypothesis 3: Workplace deviance will be negatively related to an individual's collectivistic orientation.

Hypothesis 4a: Collectivism will moderate the relationship between distributive justice and workplace deviance such that there is a weaker negative relationship for individuals high rather than low on collectivism.

Hypothesis 4b: Collectivism will moderate the relationship between procedural justice and workplace deviance such that there is a weaker negative relationship for individuals high rather than low on collectivism.

Hypothesis 4c: Collectivism will moderate the relationship between interactional justice and workplace deviance such that there is a weaker negative relationship for individuals high rather than low on collectivism.

Hypothesis 4d: Individualism will moderate the relationship between distributive justice and workplace deviance such that there is a stronger negative relationship for individuals high rather than low on individualism.

Hypothesis 4e: Individualism will moderate the relationship between procedural justice and workplace deviance such that there is a stronger negative relationship for individuals high rather than low on individualism.

Hypothesis 4f: Individualism will moderate the relationship between interactional justice and workplace deviance such that there is a stronger negative relationship for individuals high rather than low on individualism.

CHAPTER TWO

METHOD

Participants

Current employees at twenty-six independent school districts located in the Southwestern portion of the United States were contacted by email to participate in this study. Of the 2,669 employees contacted, 203 participated in the study (7.6%; 134 females, 41 males, 28 gender unknown, mean age = 44.6 years, 96% White/Caucasian). Volunteers received no form of compensation for their participation, and all participants remained anonymous.

Measures

The survey used in this study was comprised of nine scales, which were placed in the order in which they are described below. Because providing personal information could lead to response bias (e.g., evaluation apprehension), demographic items were placed at the end of the survey, allowing participants to decide how much information to disclose. Scale scores for each of the measures were created by averaging the item scores.

Distributive Justice

The five-item scale developed by Niehoff and Moorman (1993) was used to measure distributive justice. A 7-point Likert scale was used to indicate respondents' degree of agreement with each statement, where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree (see Appendix A).

Procedural Justice

Niehoff and Moorman's (1993) six-item scale of justice in formal procedures was used to measure procedural justice. A minor modification of the scale was employed to increase the relevance of the items to the sample used in this study (i.e., the term 'general manager' was replaced with the word 'supervisor'). Participants were asked to indicate their degree of agreement with each statement using a 7-point Likert scale, where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree (see Appendix B).

Interactional Justice

The nine-item scale developed by Niehoff and Moorman (1993) was used to measure interactional justice. As in the procedural justice scale, the term 'general manager' was replaced with the word 'supervisor' in order to increase item relevance to the sample. A 7-point Likert scale was used to indicate respondents' degree of agreement with each statement, where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree (see Appendix C).

Individualism and Collectivism

Individualism and collectivism were measured with two 16-item scales developed by Singelis, Triandis, Bhawuk, and Gelfand (1995), which included four subscales measuring vertical individualism, horizontal individualism, vertical collectivism, and horizontal collectivism. The vertical individualism and collectivism subscales assessed the degree to which individuals accepted inequality in their in-groups, and the horizontal individualism and collectivism subscales measured the extent to which others were seen as equals. Participants were asked to indicate their degree of agreement with the

statement or the frequency of the event described in the statement using a 7-point Likert scale, where 1 = never or definitely no and 7 = always or definitely yes (see Appendices D and E).

Organizational Workplace Deviance

A 12-item scale developed by Bennett and Robinson (2000) was used to measure organizational workplace deviance. Participants were asked to indicate the frequency of their engagement in the event described in the statement using a 7-point Likert scale, where 1 = never and 7 = daily (see Appendix F).

Interpersonal Workplace Deviance

Bennett and Robinson's (2000) seven-item scale was used to measure interpersonal workplace deviance. Respondents were asked to indicate the frequency of their engagement in the event described in the statement using a 7-point Likert scale, where 1 = never and 7 = daily (see Appendix G).

Control Variables

Two scales were developed for this study to assess perceptions of others' behavior and perceived consequences of deviant behavior. In the three-item perceptions of others' behavior scale, which was divided into three subscales, respondents were asked to indicate the frequency of their coworkers' engagement in mild, moderate, and extreme deviant behaviors using a 7-point Likert scale, where 1 = never and 7 = frequently (see Appendix H). The one-item perceived consequences of deviant behavior scale examined the extent to which respondents believed deviant workplace behavior would be punished.

For this scale, a 7-point Likert format was used, where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree (see Appendix I).

Demographics

Six demographic items were included in the survey. Items assessed participants' age, gender, ethnicity, company, and salary (see Appendix J).

Procedure

Participants were contacted through their company e-mail addresses. All participants received the same e-mail, which included a link that directed them to the study questionnaire. Participants were asked to follow the link and indicate their responses to each of the questions. All participants were assured confidentiality regarding their responses and were informed that results would only be used for research purposes and would not be released to their employer.

CHAPTER THREE

RESULTS

Prior to analysis, all study variables were standardized, and an examination of univariate outliers was conducted. Extreme cases were identified in the collectivism, deviance, and perceptions of others' behavior as extreme scales. As a result, fourteen univariate outliers were deleted, which comprised less than 3% of the cases in each of the aforementioned scales. In addition, to improve pairwise linearity and reduce scale non-normality, the scales for distributive and interactional justice, organizational and interpersonal workplace deviance, perceptions of others' behavior, and perceived consequences of deviant behavior were transformed. However, when graphing statistically significant interactions, consistent with recommendations by Levine and Dunlap (1983), variables were back-transformed.

Correlational Analyses

Table 1 presents the means, standard deviations, intercorrelations, and reliability estimates for the study variables. As illustrated in the same table, distributive justice perceptions were not correlated with interpersonal workplace deviance, failing to support Hypothesis 1a. However, procedural justice was negatively correlated with organizational workplace deviance, $r = -0.151$ ($p < .05$), and interactional justice was negatively correlated with interpersonal workplace deviance, $r = -0.132$ ($p < .05$, one-tailed). Thus, Hypotheses 1b and 1c were supported. However, after controlling for perceived consequences of deviant behavior, these relationships did not reach significance, semipartial $r = -0.117$, $t(171) = -1.568$ ($p > .05$), and semipartial $r = -0.105$, $t(170) = -$

1.439 ($p > .05$), respectively, thus indicating that perceptions of injustice did not predict employee engagement in deviant behavior beyond that of perceived consequences in these relationships. However, procedural justice was also found to be significantly related to interpersonal workplace deviance, $r = -0.200$ ($p < .01$), and interactional justice was shown to be significantly related to organizational workplace deviance, $r = -0.184$ ($p < .05$), and these effects remained significant after controlling for perceived consequences of deviant behavior. Thus, mixed support was found for the relationships between justice perceptions and workplace deviance.

Hypotheses 2a, 2b, and 2c, which stated that distributive justice perceptions would be positively correlated with an individual's individualistic orientation, perceptions of procedural justice would be positively correlated with an individual's collectivistic orientation, and interactional justice perceptions would be negatively correlated with an individual's collectivistic orientation, respectively, were not supported. However, it is important to note that several significant relationships between justice perceptions and culture did emerge. For instance, distributive justice perceptions were positively correlated with both overall collectivism, $r = 0.166$ ($p < .05$), and horizontal collectivism, $r = 0.180$ ($p < .05$). In addition, procedural justice was positively related to overall individualism, $r = 0.145$ ($p < .05$), and interactional justice was positively correlated with horizontal individualism, $r = 0.153$ ($p < .05$). Thus, these findings suggest that perceptions of justice and individual culture are associated.

Correlational analyses also showed support for a negative relationship between workplace deviance and overall collectivism, $r = -0.185$ ($p < .05$), and horizontal

collectivism, $r = -0.193$ ($p < .01$). Thus, Hypothesis 3 was supported. In addition, interpersonal workplace deviance was correlated with overall collectivism, $r = -0.196$ ($p < .01$), and horizontal collectivism, $r = -0.212$ ($p < .01$), and workplace deviance was found to be positively correlated with overall individualism, $r = 0.323$ ($p < .001$), and vertical individualism, $r = 0.365$ ($p < .001$). Likewise, positive correlations were also demonstrated between interpersonal workplace deviance and both overall individualism, $r = 0.243$ ($p < .001$), and vertical individualism, $r = 0.286$ ($p < .001$), as well as between organizational workplace deviance and both overall individualism, $r = 0.302$ ($p < .001$), and vertical individualism, $r = 0.353$ ($p < .001$). Thus, these findings provide further evidence for the existence of a relationship between deviant workplace behavior and an individual's cultural orientation.

Also noteworthy are the significant correlations between the perceived consequences of deviant behavior scale and the overall collectivism, horizontal collectivism, and vertical collectivism scales, $r = 0.238$ ($p < .001$), $r = 0.197$ ($p < .01$), and $r = 0.208$ ($p < .01$), respectively. However, the relationship between the perceived consequences of deviant behavior scale and the individualism scales was not significant. Thus, this suggests that individuals high in collectivism perceived a greater amount of consequences than those who were highly individualistic. In addition, the perceived consequences of deviant behavior scale was found to be negatively correlated with the overall workplace deviance, organizational workplace deviance, and interpersonal workplace deviance scales, $r = -0.264$ ($p < .001$), $r = -0.162$ ($p < .05$), and $r = -0.277$ ($p < .001$), respectively. Therefore, as collectivists were found to perceive more consequences

than individualists, and perceived consequences were shown to be negatively related to deviant workplace behaviors, these results lend further support to the inverse relationship between collectivism and workplace deviance.

Multiple Regression Analyses²

Table 2 presents the results of multiple regression analyses for Hypotheses 4a-4c, where workplace deviance was regressed on justice perceptions, collectivism, and their product. In regard to Hypothesis 4a, the overall model was not significant, $F(3,175) = 1.965$ ($p < .13$), but the main effect for collectivism was significant, $t(175) = -1.801$ ($p < .05$, one-tailed). In addition, when distributive justice and horizontal collectivism were entered as predictors, the overall model was significant, $F(3,174) = 2.667$ ($p < .05$), $R^2 = .044$, with a main effect for horizontal collectivism, $t(174) = -2.262$ ($p < .05$). However, because the interaction was not significant, Hypothesis 4a was not supported.

During pre-analysis, multivariate regression diagnostics were conducted. Three multivariate outliers were detected in the model testing the relationships posited in Hypothesis 4b, and the extreme cases were deleted. Subsequent analyses indicated that the overall model was significant, $F(3,172) = 4.205$ ($p < .01$), $R^2 = .068$, as were the main effects for procedural justice and collectivism, $t(172) = -2.652$ ($p < .01$), $t(172) = -1.997$ ($p < .05$), respectively. The interaction term, however, was not significant, but when only organizational workplace deviance was used as the criterion, the interaction was significant, $t(170) = 1.665$ ($p < .05$, one-tailed; see Figure 2.1). Thus, Hypothesis 4b was partially supported.

For Hypothesis 4c, analyses indicated that the overall model was significant, $F(3,175) = 3.526$ ($p < .05$), $R^2 = .057$. In addition, the main effects for interactional justice and collectivism were significant, $t(175) = 2.403$ ($p < .05$), and $t(175) = -1.805$ ($p < .05$, one-tailed), respectively, but the interaction term did not reach significance. However, when only organizational workplace deviance was regressed on interactional justice and vertical collectivism, both the main effect for interactional justice and the interaction term were significant, $t(172) = 2.623$ ($p < .01$), and $t(172) = -1.854$ ($p < .05$, one-tailed), respectively (see Figure 2.2). Thus, Hypothesis 4c was partially supported.

Multiple regression results for Hypotheses 4d-4f, where workplace deviance was considered in relation to justice perceptions and individualism, are provided in Table 3. The overall model considering perceptions of distributive justice and individualism in the prediction of workplace deviance was significant, $F(3,175) = 7.782$ ($p < .001$), as well as the main effect for individualism, $t(175) = 4.572$ ($p < .001$). However, the remaining two predictors were not individually significant. Thus, Hypothesis 4d was not supported.

Hypothesis 4e posited that individualism would moderate the relationship between procedural justice and workplace deviance. This relationship was partially supported, with a significant effect for the overall model, $F(3,175) = 12.463$ ($p < .001$), $R^2 = .176$, and significant main effects for both procedural justice, $t(175) = -3.700$ ($p < .001$), and individualism, $t(175) = 5.258$ ($p < .001$). However, the interaction term was not found to be significant. Also noteworthy is that when only organizational workplace deviance was used as the criterion, the interaction term became significant, $t(173) = -$

1.775 ($p < .05$, one-tailed; see Figure 2.3). Thus, results partially supported Hypothesis 4e.

Before examining the results related to Hypothesis 4f, one case was identified as a multivariate outlier and was deleted from the sample. Subsequently, the results of the multiple regression analyses indicated that the overall model was significant, $F(3,174) = 13.357$ ($p < .001$), $R^2 = .187$, with main effects for interactional justice, $t(174) = 3.351$ ($p < .001$), and individualism, $t(174) = 5.133$ ($p < .001$), and a significant interaction term, $t(174) = 1.866$ ($p < .05$, one-tailed; see Figure 2.4). Thus, Hypothesis 4f was supported.

CHAPTER FOUR

DISCUSSION

Contributions of the Current Study

The present paper had four objectives: (a) to provide further support for the relationship between perceptions of organizational justice and employee engagement in workplace deviance, (b) to assess the relationships between justice perceptions and individual cultural orientations, (c) to evaluate the association between individual culture and workplace deviance, and (d) to examine culture as a moderator in the relationship between justice perceptions and employee engagement in workplace deviance. As this study provides a unique contribution to the extant literature, the implications of the findings are discussed, as well as limitations and suggestions for future research.

In regard to the first objective, both procedural and interactional justice perceptions were found to be negatively related to organizational and interpersonal workplace deviance. In other words, as an employee perceived more procedural or interactional injustice, he or she was more likely to engage in workplace deviance. As previous studies have not typically found links between each of these justice dimensions and both forms of workplace deviance (e.g., Masterson et al., 2000; Venkataramani and Dalal, 2007), the results of this study suggest that the impact of injustice perceptions may be more widespread. However, as several of these relationships became non-significant after controlling for the perceived consequences of deviant behavior, more research is needed to investigate which factors lead to deviant behavior. In addition, even though the current study did not find support for an association between perceptions of distributive

justice and culture, because researchers have suggested that the standards of outcome fairness that are used in most distributive justice measures may not represent the judgment standards used by collectivists (Gomez-Mejia & Welbourne, 1991), alternate measures of distributive justice may have allowed researchers to gain more representative results. Thus, future studies should explore this possibility. Overall, the present findings link previous research concerning the relationships between organizational justice perceptions and workplace deviance more closely to the research on the specific targets of workplace deviance, thus adding incrementally to the workplace deviance literature.

Even though support was not found for the hypothesized relationships between justice perceptions and individual cultural orientations, several unexpected relationships did emerge that suggest that justice perceptions and individual culture may be associated. More specifically, distributive justice was shown to be related to collectivism, whereas procedural and interactional justice were found to be associated with individualism. Despite the lack of support for the study's hypotheses, these findings are important because previous research has not examined such relationships. Thus, this study is unique in that several links were found between justice perceptions and individual culture. However, as these findings were not consistent with inferences made from previous research, further testing is needed.

In examining the relationship between individual culture and engagement in workplace deviance, the study's third objective, several relationships emerged. Namely, collectivism was found to have an inverse relationship with workplace deviance, whereas individualism was shown to be positively related to employee engagement in deviant

behavior. In addition, as collectivists were also found to perceive a greater degree of consequences for their engagement in deviant behavior, and such perceptions were shown to be negatively related to workplace deviance, further evidence is offered for the notion that collectivists engage in less deviant behavior than individualists. These findings are consistent with previous research which has demonstrated that the extent to which organizational justice is related to outcomes varies across cultures (Brockner, Ackerman, Greenberg, Gelfand, Francesco, Chen et al., 2001; Lam, Schaubroeck, & Aryee, 2002). Thus, this study adds to this area of research by providing insight into the relationships between workplace deviance and an employee's individualistic or collectivistic orientation.

The final objective of this study was to test for the moderating effect of culture on the justice-deviance relationship. Mixed support was found for the moderating effect of collectivism. Namely, when considered in concert with distributive justice, collectivism was found to be negatively related to deviance, with no evidence of moderation. For the models including procedural and interactional justice, both justice and collectivism were linked to workplace deviance, but the moderating effect of culture was non-significant. However, when only organizational workplace deviance was regressed on procedural justice and collectivism and interactional justice and vertical collectivism, collectivism emerged as a significant moderator. More specifically, in the procedural justice-organizational workplace deviance relationship, as injustice increased, individuals low on collectivism were found to engage in a greater amount of organizational workplace deviance, whereas engagement in deviant behavior did not significantly change for highly

collectivistic individuals. Likewise, as interactional injustice increased, individuals low on vertical collectivism engaged in a greater amount of deviance, whereas highly vertical collectivistic individuals performed less deviant acts. Thus, as expected, increased collectivism was shown to be related to decreased employee engagement in deviant behaviors as a result of procedural or interactional injustice perceptions.

Like the models testing the moderating effect of collectivism, mixed results were also found for individualism as a moderator. Looking at distributive justice and individualism, individualism was found to be positively related to engagement in workplace deviance, but an interactive effect did not emerge. However, individualism was found to be a moderator in both the procedural justice-organizational workplace deviance and interactional justice-workplace deviance relationships. Namely, in regard to the first relationship, as procedural justice decreased, the number of deviant acts performed by employees decreased at a faster rate for individuals low on individualism than highly individualistic employees. As the nature of this relationship was unexpected, it is recommended that these results be interpreted with caution. Because this study was nonexperimental, it may be the case that the exclusion of other variables that affected this relationship may have impacted the results. Thus, future research is needed to gain a better understanding of this relationship. In contrast to the unexpected results that emerged in the procedural justice-deviance relationship, support was shown for the hypothesized moderating effect of individualism in the association between interactional justice and workplace deviance. More specifically, as interactional justice decreased, engagement in workplace deviance increased at a quicker rate for highly individualistic

employees than employees low on individualism. Therefore, highly individualistic employees were shown to be more likely to engage in deviance as a result of interactional injustice.

Even though mixed support was found regarding the moderating effect of cultural orientations on the justice-deviance relationship, this study provides an important first step for research in this area. As better understanding the precursors of workplace deviance is essential to finding ways to reduce such behaviors, the current study adds to the extant literature by finding evidence for the impact of culture on employees' decisions to engage in workplace deviance, which has been primarily overlooked in previous research. Thus, this study not only adds incrementally to the research on workplace deviance, but it also has a number of practical implications which will be discussed below.

Practical Implications

There are a number of ways in which the current study could lead to the development of policies and programs aimed at the reduction and prevention of workplace deviance. For instance, by identifying workplace deviance's relationship with other variables such as culture, researchers may be better equipped to discover the precursors to such behaviors and find effective ways to reduce workplace deviance. More specifically, the examination of the impact of cultural orientations on justice perceptions may provide organizations with a better understanding of the mechanisms through which employees make evaluations regarding fairness in the workplace, thereby leading to the development of organizational policies that are perceived as fair across cultures.

In addition, as organizations become increasingly diverse, such research also has strong implications for the development of organizational policies and training programs aimed at preventing deviant workplace behaviors. As this study has provided support for the differential effect of individual culture on employees' behavioral reactions to injustice, this suggests that one-size-fits-all training programs may not be the most effective in preventing workplace deviance. As a result, more research in this area is needed for both researchers and practitioners to gain a better understanding of the precursors of workplace deviance and the most effective means of preventing such behaviors.

Not only do the findings of this study suggest that individual cultural orientations be considered in the development of organizational policies and training programs, but this study also has different implications for organizations in Eastern and Western cultures. Namely, as Western cultures are characterized as being comprised of highly individualistic employees, based on the results of this study, employees in Western organizations may be more likely than employees in Eastern organizations to engage in workplace deviance in response to injustice perceptions. However, as this study did not measure other types of injustice responses, it may be the case that collectivistic employees react in alternative ways, such as by internalizing their dissatisfaction, which could lead to negative health outcomes. Thus, more research is needed on cross-cultural reactions to injustice perceptions, especially for collectivistic employees.

Limitations and Future Research

A limitation of the current study is its use of cross-sectional, self-report data. This research design not only prevents the researcher from making causal inferences, but this approach may also lead to issues associated with common method variance (see Campbell & Fiske (1959) for a discussion of this concept). However, because of organizational constraints, alternative research designs were not possible in this study. Therefore, the researcher encourages future research using alternative approaches, such as multi-method techniques, in order to ensure the validity of these results.

Another limitation both in this study and workplace deviance research in general is that individual forms of deviant behaviors (e.g., theft or withholding of effort) are low base-rate phenomena. In order to reduce this threat and increase construct validity, participants in the current study were asked to report how frequently they engaged in a number of deviant workplace behaviors. A composite approach was used rather than looking at individual forms of behavior because studying groupings of behaviors has been shown to capture the underlying theoretical constructs better than individual behaviors, as well as yield more reliable and valid measures (Fisher & Locke, 1992).

In addition, individuals are often reluctant to admit to engaging in deviant workplace behaviors for fear of punishment (Murphy, 1993). In order to reduce this threat and increase the honesty of responses, participants were assured that all information would be kept confidential and would not be accessible by their respective organizations. In addition, no identifying information other than basic demographic data was disclosed by participants, thereby reducing the risk that the responses could be linked

back to individual participants. Surveys were also completed online, thereby decreasing the chance that managers within the organization would come into contact with the surveys.

As a number of other forms of cultural variation have been identified (Hofstede, 2001), future research should also consider how these variables affect the justice-deviance relationship. In addition, as narcissism has been linked to aggression (Baumeister, Bushman, & Campbell, 2000), another potentially fruitful avenue of research would be to consider the impact of narcissism in regard to employee engagement in workplace deviance. Future research should also examine how culture affects individuals' decisions to engage in constructive deviance, or norm-discrepant behaviors that are positive in nature (see Warren (2003) for a review of this concept). In addition, in order to increase the external validity of these findings, the current study should be replicated in other samples, employment sectors, and geographic locations.

Conclusions

This study contributes to the extant literature by showing support for the impact of individual cultural orientations on employee engagement in workplace deviance. Namely, as negative behavioral reactions to injustice were shown to be influenced by individuals' cultural beliefs, this study has a number of implications for organizational policies regarding the prevention of deviant workplace behaviors. As workplace deviance can be harmful to the well-being of both organizations and employees (Robinson and Bennett, 1995), further identification of mediating mechanisms may help facilitate the

development of preventative measures that are effective in reducing the occurrence of workplace deviance.

APPENDICES

Appendix A

Distributive Justice Scale

1. My work schedule is fair.
2. I think that my level of pay is fair.
3. I consider my work load to be quite fair.
4. Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair.
5. I feel that my job responsibilities are fair.

Appendix B

Procedural Justice Scale

1. Job decisions are made by the supervisor in an unbiased manner.
2. My supervisor makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made.
3. To make job decisions, my supervisor collects accurate and complete information.
4. My supervisor clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees.
5. All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees.
6. Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by the supervisor.

Appendix C

Interactional Justice Scale

1. When decisions are made about my job, the supervisor treats me with kindness and consideration.
2. When decisions are made about my job, the supervisor treats me with respect and dignity.
3. When decisions are made about my job, the supervisor is sensitive to my personal needs.
4. When decisions are made about my job, the supervisor deals with me in a truthful manner.
5. When decisions are made about my job, the supervisor shows concern for my rights as an employee.
6. Concerning decisions made about my job, the supervisor discusses the implications of the decisions with me.
7. The supervisor offers adequate justification for decisions made about my job.
8. When making decisions about my job, the supervisor offers explanations that make sense to me.
9. My supervisor explains very clearly any decision made about my job.

Appendix D

Individualism Scale

Horizontal Individualism

1. I often do “my own thing”.
2. One should live one’s life independently of others.
3. I like my privacy.
4. I prefer to be direct and forthright when discussing with people.
5. I am a unique individual.
6. What happens to me is my own doing.
7. When I succeed it is usually because of my abilities.
8. I enjoy being unique and different from others in many ways.

Vertical Individualism

1. It annoys me when other people perform better than I do.
2. Competition is the law of nature.
3. When another person does better than I do, I get tense and aroused.
4. Without competition, it is not possible to have a good society.
5. Winning is everything.
6. It is important that I do my job better than others.
7. I enjoy working in situations involving competition with others.
8. Some people emphasize winning; I’m not one of them.

Appendix E

Collectivism Scale

1. The well-being of my co-workers is important to me.
2. If a co-worker gets a prize, I would feel proud.
3. If a relative were in financial difficulty, I would help within my means.
4. It is important to maintain harmony within my group.
5. I like sharing little things with my neighbors.
6. I feel good when I cooperate with others.
7. My happiness depends very much on the happiness of those around me.
8. To me, pleasure is spending time with others.

Vertical Collectivism

1. I would sacrifice an activity that I enjoy very much if my family did not approve of it.
2. I would do what would please my family, even if I detested that activity.
3. Before taking a major trip, I consult with most members of my family and many friends.
4. I usually sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of my group.
5. Children should be taught to place duty before pleasure.
6. I hate to disagree with others in my group.
7. We should keep our aging parents with us at home.
8. Children should feel honored if their parents receive a distinguished award.

Appendix F

Organizational Workplace Deviance Scale

1. Taken property from work without permission.
2. Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working.
3. Falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on business expenses.
4. Taken an additional or a longer break than is acceptable at your workplace.
5. Come in late to work without permission.
6. Littered your work environment.
7. Neglected to follow your boss's instructions.
8. Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked.
9. Discussed confidential company information with an unauthorized person.
10. Used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job.
11. Put little effort into your work.
12. Dragged out work in order to get overtime.

Appendix G

Interpersonal Workplace Deviance Scale

1. Made fun of someone at work.
2. Said something hurtful to someone at work.
3. Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark or joke at work.
4. Cursed at someone at work.
5. Played a mean prank on someone at work.
6. Acted rudely toward someone at work.
7. Publicly embarrassed someone at work.

Appendix H

Perceptions of Others' Behavior Scale

1. Employees in my organization engage in workplace behaviors that have a mild, negative impact on other employees and/or the organization (e.g., littering the work environment, making fun of someone at work).
2. Employees in my organization engage in workplace behaviors that have a moderate, negative impact on other employees and/or the organization (e.g., intentionally working slower than they could have worked, publically embarrassing someone at work).
3. Employees in my organization engage in workplace behaviors that have an extreme, negative impact on other employees and/or the organization (e.g., falsifying a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than was spent on business expenses, consuming drugs or alcohol on the job).

Appendix I

Perceived Consequences of Deviant Behavior Scale

1. My engagement in any negative behavior at work is likely to lead to consequences.

Appendix J
Demographic Items

1. Age
2. Gender (choose one)
 - a. Female
 - b. Male
3. Ethnicity (indicate all that apply)
 - a. African American
 - b. Hispanic Origin
 - c. White/Caucasian
 - d. Other (please specify)
4. Company (e.g., school name)
5. Annual salary (choose one)
 - a. \$0-\$15,000
 - b. \$15,000-\$30,000
 - c. \$30,000-\$45,000
 - d. \$45,000-\$60,000
 - e. \$60,000-\$75,000
 - f. More than \$75,000

Appendix K

Tables and Figures

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, Intercorrelations, and Reliability Estimates Among Study Variables

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 <i>Age</i>	44.61	10.38								
2 <i>Gender</i>	0.77	0.42	-0.080							
3 <i>Salary</i>	3.38	1.02	0.353***	-0.275***						
4 <i>Justice</i>	5.03	1.28	-0.068	-0.051	0.029	(0.968)				
5 <i>DJ</i>	4.92	1.31	-0.067	-0.037	0.133 [†]	0.758***	(0.854)			
6 <i>PJ</i>	4.80	1.59	-0.073	-0.082	-0.049	0.927***	0.532***	(0.951)		
7 <i>IJ</i>	5.37	1.52	-0.039	-0.013	0.005	0.913***	0.498***	0.844***	(0.977)	
8 <i>Individualism</i>	4.45	0.64	-0.289***	-0.240***	0.017	0.069	-0.041	0.145*	0.059	(0.716)
9 <i>HI</i>	5.13	0.71	-0.159*	-0.096	-0.140 [†]	0.108	-0.023	0.133 [†]	0.153*	0.677***
10 <i>VI</i>	3.77	0.95	-0.271***	-0.253***	0.129 [†]	0.012	-0.038	0.094	-0.036	0.834***
11 <i>Collectivism</i>	5.46	0.66	-0.128 [†]	0.094	-0.121	0.123 [†]	0.166*	0.095	0.067	0.001
12 <i>HC</i>	5.96	0.68	-0.111	0.153*	-0.156*	0.150*	0.180*	0.092	0.128 [†]	0.006
13 <i>VC</i>	4.95	0.85	-0.109	0.003	-0.063	0.088	0.119	0.093	0.022	0.017
14 <i>Deviance</i>	1.77	0.56	-0.115	-0.206**	0.026	-0.193**	-0.110	-0.215**	-0.173*	0.323***
15 <i>OD</i>	1.68	0.48	-0.027	-0.154*	0.026	-0.156*	-0.064	-0.151*	-0.184*	0.302***
16 <i>ID</i>	1.84	0.75	-0.142 [†]	-0.168*	0.010	-0.167*	-0.099	-0.200**	-0.132 [†]	0.243***
17 <i>PC</i>	4.97	1.71	-0.002	0.090	-0.023	0.160*	0.147 [†]	0.185*	0.087	-0.096

Note: Table 1 is continued on pp. 49 – 51.

Table 1 (cont.)

	Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
9	<i>HI</i>	5.13	0.71	(0.687)							
10	<i>VI</i>	3.77	0.95	0.159*	(0.703)						
11	<i>Collectivism</i>	5.46	0.66	0.056	-0.041	(0.821)					
12	<i>HC</i>	5.96	0.68	0.142 [†]	-0.098	0.814***	(0.794)				
13	<i>VC</i>	4.95	0.85	-0.020	0.038	0.884***	0.452***	(0.747)			
14	<i>Deviance</i>	1.77	0.56	0.093	0.365***	-0.185*	-0.193**	-0.100	(0.884)		
15	<i>OD</i>	1.68	0.48	0.072	0.353***	-0.096	-0.135 [†]	-0.033	0.783***	(0.805)	
16	<i>ID</i>	1.84	0.75	0.055	0.286***	-0.196**	-0.212**	-0.107	0.913***	0.428***	(0.881)
17	<i>PC</i>	4.97	1.71	-0.051	-0.092	0.238***	0.197**	0.208**	-0.264***	-0.162*	-0.277***
18	<i>PO-Mild</i>	3.49	1.71	0.053	0.072	0.120	0.094	0.127 [†]	0.236**	0.244***	0.145 [†]
19	<i>PO-Moderate</i>	2.60	1.53	0.121	0.056	0.033	0.023	0.033	0.111	0.083	0.082
20	<i>PO-Extreme</i>	1.50	0.87	0.053	0.071	-0.062	0.003	-0.098	0.149 [†]	0.151 [†]	0.118

Table 1 (cont.)

	Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	17	18	19
18	<i>PO-Mild</i>	3.49	1.71	-0.178*		
19	<i>PO-Moderate</i>	2.60	1.53	-0.238*	0.728***	
20	<i>PO-Extreme</i>	1.50	0.87	-0.144 [†]	0.326***	0.526***

Table 1 (cont.)

	Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
18	<i>PO-Mild</i>	3.49	1.71	-0.075	0.066	-0.056	-0.220**	-0.185*	-0.250***	-0.140 [†]	0.083
19	<i>PO-Moderate</i>	2.60	1.53	-0.089	-0.039	-0.050	-0.351***	-0.282***	-0.369***	-0.264***	0.110
20	<i>PO-Extreme</i>	1.50	0.87	-0.084	0.003	-0.060	-0.178*	-0.125	-0.177*	-0.163*	0.083

Note: Internal consistency reliability estimates are plotted on the diagonal.

* $p < .05$ (two-tailed). ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed). *** $p < .001$ (two-tailed). [†] $p < .05$ (one-tailed).

Gender was coded as 0 = male, 1 = female; DJ = distributive justice; PJ = procedural justice; IJ = interactional justice; HI = horizontal individualism; VI = vertical individualism; HC = horizontal collectivism; VC = vertical collectivism; OD = organizational workplace deviance; ID = interpersonal workplace deviance; PC = perceptions of consequences for deviant behaviors; PO-Mild = perceptions of others' engagement in mild deviant behaviors; PO-Moderate = perceptions of others' engagement in moderate deviant behaviors; PO-Extreme = perceptions of others' engagement in extreme deviant behaviors.

Table 2

*Multiple Regression Analyses: Predicting
Workplace Deviance from Justice Perceptions and Collectivism*

Variable	$\hat{\beta}$	<i>t</i>
Distributive Justice	0.046	1.164
Collectivism	-0.017	-1.801 [†]
Distributive Justice × Collectivism	0.029	0.594
$R^2 = .033$; <i>Adjusted R</i> ² = .016		
Procedural Justice	-0.021	-2.652**
Collectivism	-0.019	-1.997*
Procedural Justice × Collectivism	0.002	0.229
$R^2 = .068^{**}$; <i>Adjusted. R</i> ² = .052**		
Interactional Justice	0.273	2.403*
Collectivism	-0.017	-1.805 [†]
Interactional Justice × Collectivism	-0.096	-0.719
$R^2 = .057^{*}$; <i>Adjusted R</i> ² = .041*		

Note. $\hat{\beta}$ = estimated standard partial regression coefficient.

* $p < .05$ (two-tailed). ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed). *** $p < .001$ (two-tailed). † $p < .05$ (one-tailed).

Table 3

*Multiple Regression Analyses: Predicting
Workplace Deviance from Justice Perceptions and Individualism*

Variable	$\hat{\beta}$	<i>t</i>
Distributive Justice	0.048	1.296
Individualism	0.035	4.572***
Distributive Justice \times Individualism	0.007	0.173
$R^2 = .118^{***}$; <i>Adjusted</i> $R^2 = .103^{***}$		
Procedural Justice	-0.028	-3.700***
Individualism	0.039	5.258***
Procedural Justice \times Individualism	-0.005	-0.745
$R^2 = .176^{***}$; <i>Adjusted</i> $R^2 = .162^{***}$		
Interactional Justice	0.357	3.351***
Individualism	0.038	5.133***
Interactional Justice \times Individualism	0.199	1.866 [†]
$R^2 = .187^{***}$; <i>Adjusted</i> $R^2 = .173^{***}$		

Note. $\hat{\beta}$ = estimated standard partial regression coefficient.

* $p < .05$ (two-tailed). ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed). *** $p < .001$ (two-tailed). [†] $p < .05$ (one-tailed).

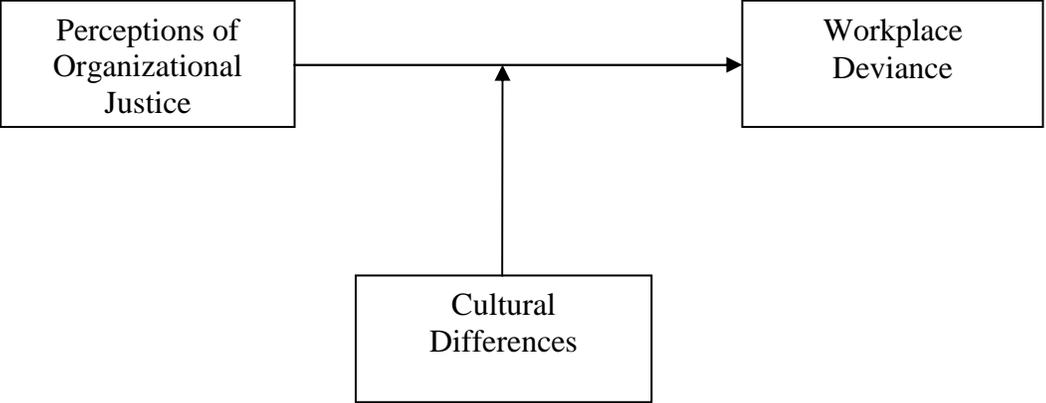


Figure 1. Cultural differences as a hypothesized moderator of perceptions of injustice and workplace deviance.

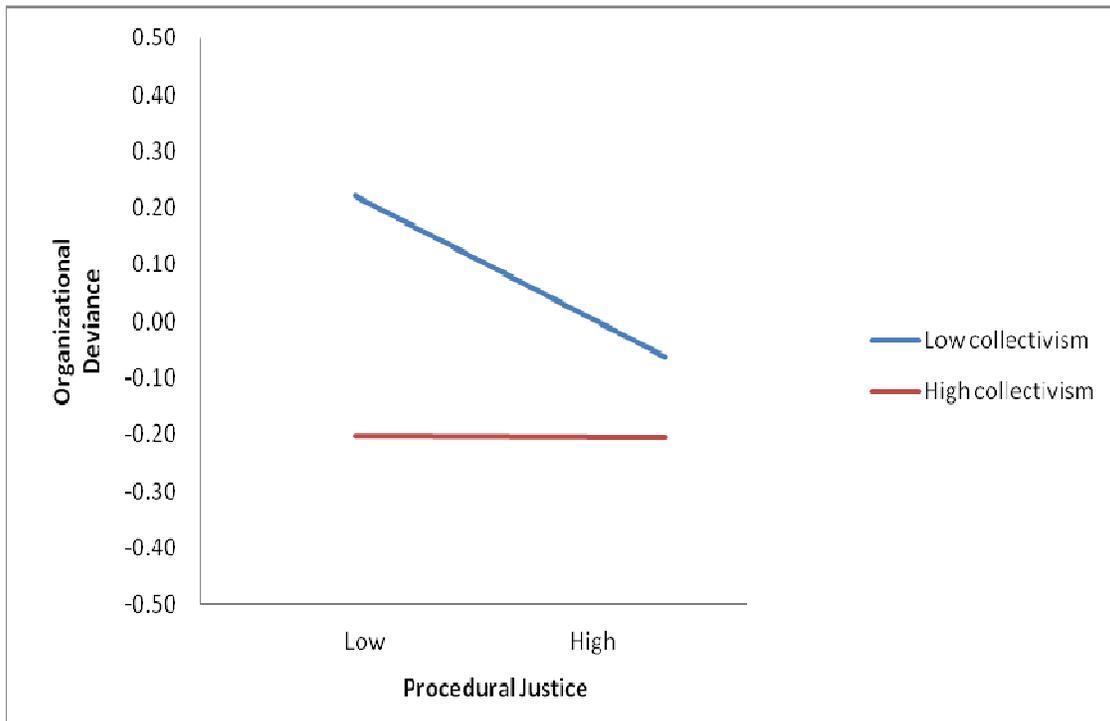


Figure 2.1. Collectivism as a moderator of organizational workplace deviance and procedural justice.

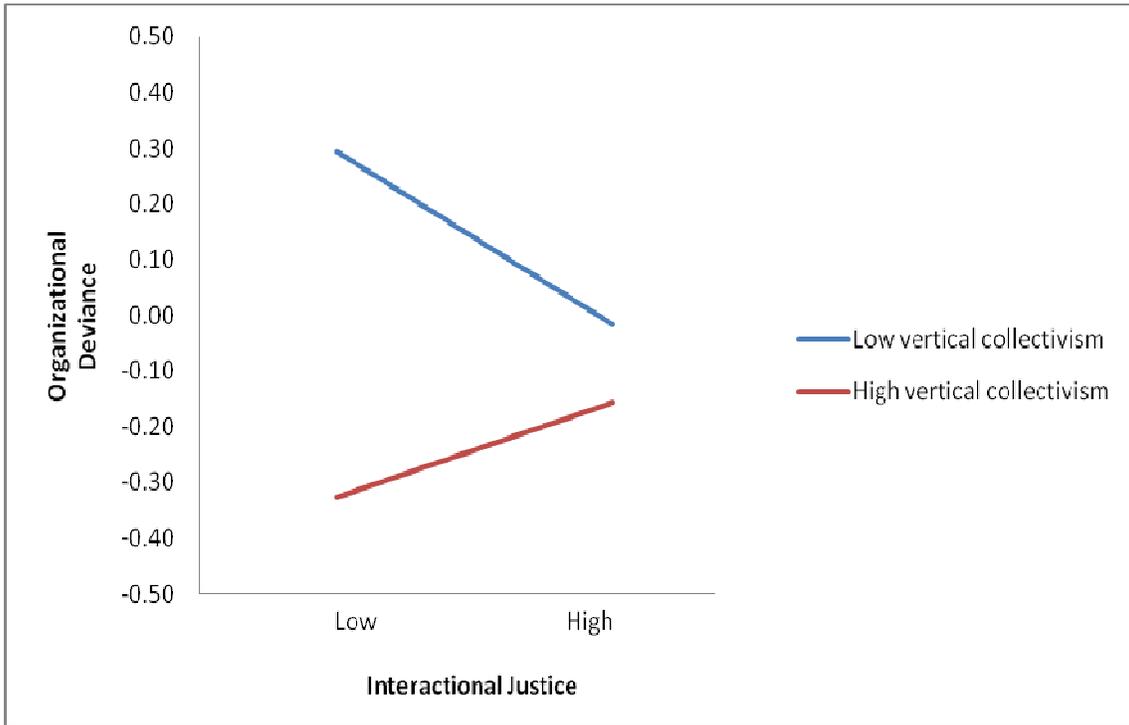


Figure 2.2. Vertical collectivism as a moderator of organizational workplace deviance and interactional justice.

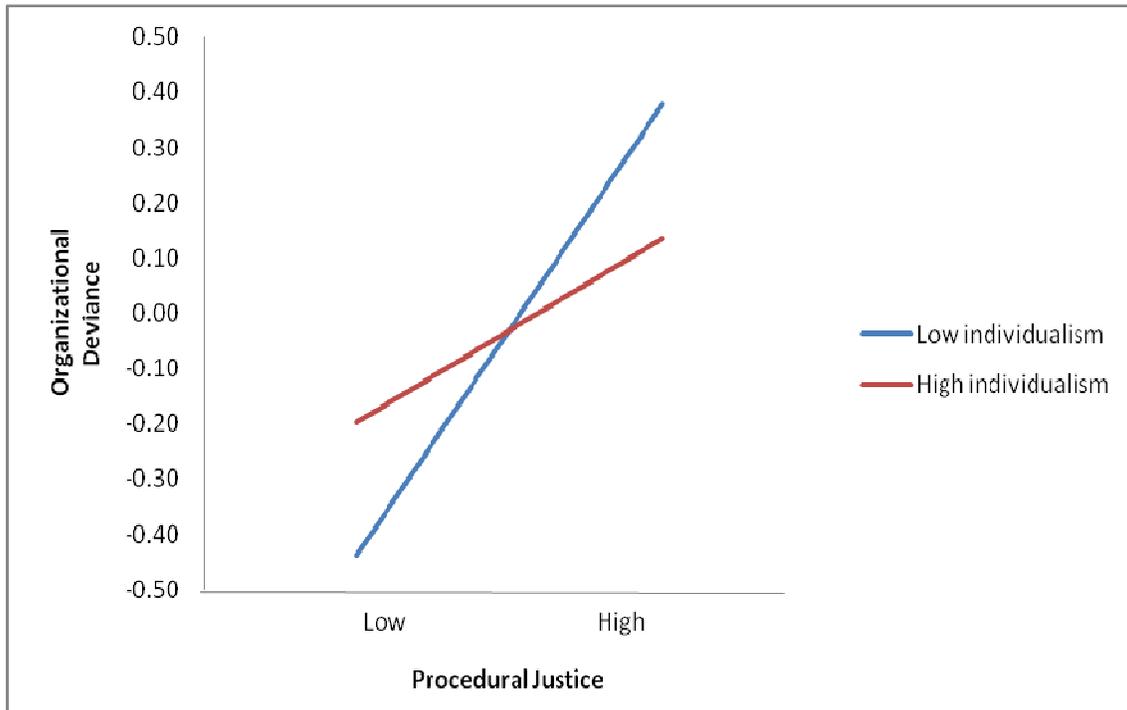


Figure 2.3. Individualism as a moderator of organizational workplace deviance and procedural justice.

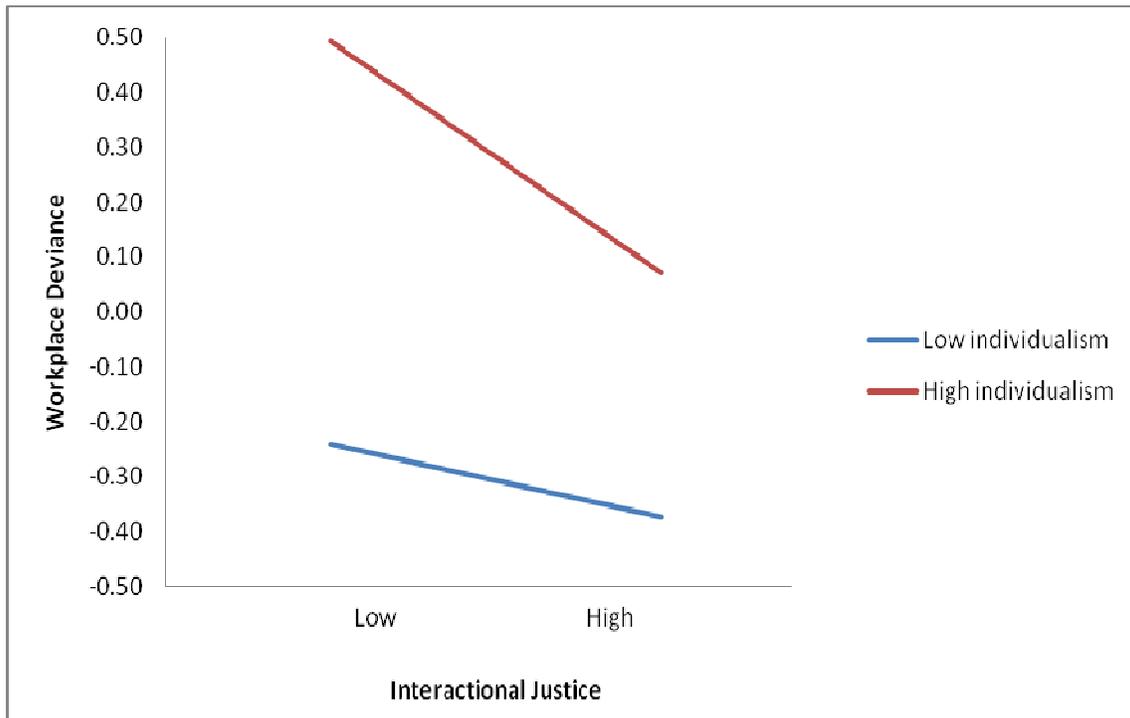


Figure 2.4. Individualism as a moderator of workplace deviance and interactional justice.

FOOTNOTES

¹ Greenberg (1990, 1993) has suggested that interactional justice contains two facets: informational justice and interpersonal justice. Informational justice refers to the distribution of knowledge as a method of explaining the reasons for a certain procedure or outcome, whereas interpersonal justice refers to the demonstration of concern for people through respectful or polite treatment when implementing policies or deciding outcomes. Other researchers have suggested that informational and interpersonal justice are separate dimensions, and organizational justice should be viewed as consisting of four facets (Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001). However, the debate over the classification of organizational justice dimensions is tangential to the current paper. The interested reader is encouraged to further examine this issue.

² All tests for moderation were conducted controlling for demographics, perceived consequences of deviant behavior, and perceptions of others' behavior. Because the inclusion of the control variables did not affect the nature of the hypothesized relationships, the reported results were based on models excluding such variables.

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