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Perceived fairness of organizational drug testing policies: An examination of voice and consistency

Cheryl L. Hendrickson
University of Nebraska at Omaha

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PERCEIVED FAIRNESS OF
ORGANIZATIONAL DRUG TESTING POLICIES:
AN EXAMINATION OF VOICE AND CONSISTENCY

A Thesis
Presented to the
Department of Psychology
and the
Faculty of the Graduate College
University of Nebraska

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts
University of Nebraska at Omaha

by
Cheryl L. Hendrickson
May 1994

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THESIS ACCEPTANCE

Accepted for the faculty of the Graduate College,
University of Nebraska, in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree Master of Arts, University of
Nebraska at Omaha.

Thesis Committee

Name	Department
<u>Lynn Hayland</u>	<u>Management</u>
<u>Lisa Scherer</u>	<u>Psychology</u>
<u>James M. Thomas</u>	<u>Psychology</u>
<u>Wayne Harris</u>	<u>Psychology</u>
Chairman	

4/8/94
Date

Abstract

Increasingly, organizations are implementing drug testing programs as a means of reducing the high costs of drug use. Although employees' attitudes towards various policies have been examined, two issues have not been addressed. First, justice research indicates that individuals react favorably to procedures that allow them an opportunity to express their views and arguments (i.e., voice). However, this policy has not been examined within the drug testing context. Additionally, research has not examined reactions to policies that allow managers discretion in applying procedures in order to take extenuating circumstances into account. Reactions to these drug testing policies were assessed using data from 128 undergraduate psychology students. A main effect of voice on perceptions of procedural and distributive justice was hypothesized. Voice effects were expected to be magnified in the situationally guided conditions in comparison with the rule-guided conditions. A voice by policy type interaction was predicted for trust, bias, and perceptions of relevant information. Specifically, the supervisor was expected to be perceived as more trustworthy, less biased, and as using more relevant information in arriving at his decision of what consequence the employee was to receive when a situationally guided policy was used and voice was permitted than in the other three conditions. Partial support for the

hypotheses was found. In general, subjects indicated a preference for rule-guided policies, particularly when voice is not permitted. In addition, a trend of negative reactions to the situationally guided no voice condition emerged. Specifically, in this condition, the supervisor was perceived as more biased and as using irrelevant information in the decision of what consequence the employee would receive. Implications for drug testing policy implementation is discussed.

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Chapter I

Drug Testing

Substance abuse has greatly influenced today's society. In a survey of high school students, 31% of the sample admitted to being drunk, stoned, or high on at least one psychoactive substance while at work or school during the past six months (Newcomb, 1988). Furthermore, personnel managers estimate that, on average, 14% of their employees are drug users (Rosse, Crown, & Feldman, 1990). Not only has it affected families and other interpersonal relationships, but, as described below, its effect on the organization's bottom line has been well documented.

Organizational Costs of Substance Abuse

Substance abuse affects productivity (American Management Association, 1987; DeCresce, Lifshitz, Mazura, & Tilson, 1989; Muczyk & Heshizer, 1988; Rosen, 1987; Scanlon, 1986; Segal, 1992), leads to employee turnover (Harstein, 1987; Rothstein, 1985-1986; Taggert, 1989; Walsh & Yohay, 1987), and damages the corporate image and employee morale (Carroll, 1992; Coombs & West, 1991; Rothman, 1988; Walsh & Yohay, 1987). In comparison to their nondrug user counterparts, drug users are two to three times more likely to be absent (Cowan, 1987; DeCresce et al., 1989; Normand, Salyards, & Mahoney, 1990; Scanlon, 1986) and tardy (Cowan, 1987), are three to four times more likely to be involved in

on-the-job accidents (Cowan, 1987; DeCresce et al., 1989; Everson, 1987; Muczyk & Heshizer, 1988; Quayle, 1983), are more likely to steal company and co-worker property to support drug habits (Everson, 1987; Good, 1986; Muczyk & Heshizer, 1988; Quayle, 1983; Smith, 1991; Taggert, 1989), use medical benefits excessively (Denenberg, Schneider, & Denenberg, 1983; Finney, 1988), and experience strained relations with other employees and those around them (Everson, 1987; Leman & Simpson, 1991; Segal, 1992).

Increasingly, organizations are implementing drug testing programs as a means of controlling the high costs of substance abuse in the workplace (American Management Association, 1987; Crant & Bateman, 1989; DeCresce et al., 1989; Finney, 1988; Linn, Yager, & Leake, 1990; Masters, Ferris, & Ratcliff, 1988; Muczyk & Heshizer, 1988; Urich, 1992). In the following sections, the benefits and potential drawbacks of such testing is discussed.

Benefits of Drug Testing

Drug testing of employees or applicants can reduce the costs associated with drug abuse in a variety of ways (DeCresce et al., 1989). For example, Normand, Salyards, and Mahoney (1990) provided evidence that preemployment drug tests predict absenteeism and turnover. Job applicants applying for permanent positions with the U.S. Postal service were tested for the use of illicit drugs. After an

average of 1.3 years of employment, employees who had tested positive for illicit drugs had a 59.3% higher absenteeism rate and a 47% higher rate of involuntary turnover than employees who had tested negative. Thus, one way organizations can reduce costs associated with drug abuse is by screening job applicants for drug use and not selecting those with positive drug test results.

Drug testing also increases workplace and overall public safety by reducing accidents and injuries. After the implementation of a drug testing program at Southern Pacific Railroads, the percentage of positive tests steadily declined. Furthermore, personal injuries and train accidents attributed to human failure dropped (Taggart, 1989). The Utah Power and Light Company has gained similar benefits after establishing a drug testing program at that organization (Crouch, Webb, Buller, & Rollins, 1989):

In summary, organizations may derive several benefits from the implementation of a drug testing policy. First, drug testing of job applicants predicts absenteeism and turnover rates of those individuals (Normand et al., 1990). Thus, organizations could avoid hiring those individuals who are more likely to be absent frequently and quit. As a result, selection and training cost would be reduced. Additionally, drug testing increases workplace and overall public safety by reducing accidents and injuries (Crouch et

al., 1989; Taggert, 1989). Again, organizations could realize substantial savings. Unfortunately, drug testing is also associated with several potential drawbacks.

Potential Drawbacks of Drug Testing

When individuals submit to a drug test, they may experience anxiety, feelings of being mistrusted, or believe that their personal privacy has been violated. Thus, drug testing may create higher costs of joining an organization that tests for drug use compared with an otherwise similar organization that does not (Crant & Bateman, 1990, 1989). As a result, it is not surprising that several studies indicate that job applicants appear less likely to apply for or accept a job with a firm that requires drug testing (Crant & Bateman, 1990; Rosse, Ringer, & Miller, 1992). From a utility perspective, it is beneficial for organizations when applicants who use drugs do not apply to their organizations. Thus, drug testing may benefit organizations by deterring drug users from applying for positions at their companies (Evans, 1987; Gerstein & Grossman, 1989; Murphy, Barlow, & Hatch, 1986). However, research also indicates that applicants of all abilities tend to respond negatively to drug testing (Rosse et al., 1992). Clearly, it is not beneficial for organizations when high-ability applicants are deterred from applying (Crant &

Bateman, 1989; Rothman, 1988), particularly when a majority of the applicants are of high abilities.

Unfortunately, drug testing is also associated with other potential drawbacks. For example, if a drug testing policy is handled improperly, it can lead to disgruntled workers who believe management does not trust them (Brookler, 1992; Vodanovich & Reyna, 1988). In this case, many negative outcomes may result: morale problems (Newcomb, 1988; Vodanovich & Reyna, 1988), suspicion and distrust between employees and supervisors, and a lack of commitment to the job (Newcomb, 1988).

In order to operate effectively, organizations must confront and manage negative reactions to their drug testing policies. As a result, it is important for management to understand the origin of job applicant and employee attitudes (Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991). The purpose of the current investigation is to examine these attitudes. Organizational justice literature offers a conceptual framework for the following investigation. As such, it will be reviewed to indicate the variables which may be important in affecting attitudes toward drug testing programs.

Chapter II

Review of the Organizational Justice Research

Distributive Justice

Distributive justice is concerned with the fairness of outcomes received and draws heavily upon equity theory. In general, an individual determines whether he or she has been treated fairly by examining his or her own payoff ratio of outcomes to inputs and then comparing that ratio with the corresponding outcome-input ratio obtained by a comparison other (Adams, 1965). Inputs refer to those things that an individual contributes to an exchange (i.e., previous work experience, education, or effort on the job), while outcomes are those things a person receives from that exchange (i.e., pay or fringe benefits) (Brown, 1986; Mowday, 1991). Equity exists whenever the ratio of a person's outcomes to inputs is perceived to be equal to the ratio of another's outcomes and inputs. Further, inequity exists whenever the two ratios are perceived to be unequal. In the latter case, the person is motivated to reduce the perceived inequity and may do so by any of the following methods: (a) altering inputs or outcomes; (b) cognitively distorting inputs or outcomes; (c) quitting; (d) attempting to change the inputs or outcomes of the comparison other; or (e) changing the comparison other (Mowday, 1991). Traditionally, organizational justice researchers have focused their

efforts on examining employees' reactions to perceived inequity. Recently, however, the importance of examining employees' perceptions of procedural justice has been recognized.

Procedural Justice

Procedural justice focuses on the fairness of the procedures that are utilized in arriving at a decision (Cropanzano & Folger, 1991; Greenberg, 1987; Moorman, 1991; Tyler & Lind, 1992). If procedures are perceived to be fair, it becomes more difficult to question the outcomes that have resulted (Cropanzano & Folger, 1991; Joy & Witt, 1992; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992) because employees will find it difficult to imagine that more positive alternatives could have resulted (Cropanzano & Folger, 1989; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992).

Procedural justice has found to enhance a number of perceptions, including; satisfaction with negative outcomes (Crant & Bateman, 1989; Greenberg, 1987; Lind & Tyler, 1988; Sheppard, Lewicki, & Minton, 1992; Tyler, 1986), evaluations of leaders and institutions (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Greenberg, 1987; Lind & Tyler, 1988; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Tyler, 1986; Tyler, Raisinski, & Spodick, 1985), loyalty and commitment to the organization (Crant & Bateman, 1989; Cropanzano & Folger, 1991; Daly & Geyer, 1993; Konovsky & Folger, 1989; Konovsky, Folger, & Cropanzano,

1987; Lind & Tyler, 1988; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Sheppard et al., 1992; Tyler, 1991), and work group cohesiveness (Lind & Tyler, 1988). Further, it leads to higher morale, lower absenteeism and turnover (Crant & Bateman, 1989) and compliance with rules and procedures (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler & Lind, 1992). Conversely, if an organization ignores procedural justice issues, the following negative reactions may occur: dissatisfaction with organizational outcomes and decisions, noncompliance with rules and procedures, and lower performance (Lind & Tyler, 1988). Additionally, employees will desire to change the procedures (Lind & Tyler, 1988) and may react to the negative outcome by acting destructively (e.g., working less, quitting, going on strike, etc.) rather than constructively (Cropanzano & Folger, 1991; Sheppard et al., 1992).

Although perceived procedural fairness increases satisfaction with negative outcomes (Crant & Bateman, 1989; Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler, 1986), this enhancement may not occur in situations in which positive outcomes result. Lind and Tyler (1988) believe it is possible that the procedural justice effect, in this case, is overridden by a generalized positive affect. However, justice issues are most important for organizations in situations in which negative outcomes result (Lind & Tyler, 1988).

Determinants of Procedural Justice

Voice. One of the most important factors in determining whether procedures are viewed as fair is voice (Bies, 1987a; Cohen, 1991; Folger, 1977; Folger, Rosenfield, Grove, & Cockran, 1979; Leung & Wai-Kwan, 1990; Lind & Tyler, 1988; Musante, Gilbert, & Thibaut, 1983; Sheppard, 1985; Sheppard et al., 1992; Tyler, 1987; Tyler & Lind, 1992). Voice refers to the opportunity to express one's views. In other words, individuals react more favorably to procedures that allow them to communicate their views and arguments.

Explanations for the positive effects of voice are twofold. First, individuals may believe voice will affect the outcome of a decision, thus serving an instrumental end. In other words, voice procedures may be perceived as fair because they may permit some control (or perceived control) over the outcomes of the procedure (Cohen, 1991; Lind & Tyler, 1988; Musante et al., 1983; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Alternatively, the opportunity to express one's views may have value in and of itself (Cohen, 1991; Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler & Lind, 1992; Tyler, Raisinski, & Spodick, 1985). Individuals value group participation and being allowed to speak may indicate to the individual that he or she has status within the group (Cohen, 1991; Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler & Lind, 1992).

Until recently, organizational justice researchers were divided. Some contended that voice has instrumental effects while others believed it has noninstrumental effects. However, Lind, Kanfer, and Earley (1990) indicated that voice has both instrumental and noninstrumental effects. In a goal-setting procedure, subjects were allowed voice before the goal was set, after the goal was set, or not at all. Both pre- and postdecision voice led to higher fairness judgments than no voice, although predecision voice led to higher fairness judgments than postdecision voice. However, research on voice indicates that it is difficult to study these varying perspectives, because subjects often feel they have control over the decision when, in fact, they do not (Lind & Tyler, 1988). Regardless of its origin, it is clear that voice affects procedural justice judgments. However, as one shall see, voice is not the only factor that affects perceptions of procedural fairness.

Leventhal's justice rules. Leventhal (1980) suggested six aspects of procedures that affect perceptions of procedural justice: consistency, bias suppression, accuracy, correctability, representation, and ethicality. Research has supported Leventhal's contention in that procedures appear to be perceived as more fair when:

(a) they are consistent across persons and over time (Barrett-Howard & Tyler, 1986; Greenberg, 1987; Singer,

1990); (b) bias in decision-making is eliminated or suppressed (Barrett-Howard & Tyler, 1986; Leung & Wai-Kwan, 1990; Singer, 1990; Tyler, 1991; Tyler, 1988); (c) decisions are accurate (Barrett-Howard & Tyler, 1986; Tyler, 1988); (d) there is an appeal mechanism that individuals can utilize to correct inaccurate decisions without fear of punishment or retaliation (Sheppard, 1985; Tyler, 1988); (e) all parties involved in the decision are adequately represented (Barrett-Howard & Tyler, 1986; Tyler, 1988; Tyler, 1987; Tyler, Raisinski, & Spodick, 1985); and finally, (f) decisions meet the prevailing ethical norms (Barrett-Howard & Tyler, 1986; Singer, 1990; Tyler, 1988).

Interactional justice. Another determinant of procedural fairness is interactional justice, which involves authorities' treatment of individuals (Bies, 1987a; Bies & Moag, 1986; Brett, 1986; Cohen, 1991; Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler & Bies, 1990). Procedures are viewed to be more fair under the following circumstances: (a) when authorities show respect for the rights of the parties to a decision (Bies & Moag, 1986; Tyler, 1989); (b) when authorities are truthful (Bies & Moag, 1986); and (c) when they provide justifications for their decisions (Bies & Moag, 1986; Cohen, 1991).

Eisenberger, Fasolo, and Davis-LaMastro (1990), in two studies, found a positive relationship between employees'

perceptions of being valued and cared about by the organization and a variety of outcomes including job attendance, performance, conscientiousness in carrying out conventional job responsibilities, affective attachment to the organization, and innovation on behalf of the organization (e.g., anonymous suggestions for helping the organization). Similarly, Moorman (1991) found a relationship between interactional justice and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) (i.e., employee performance above and beyond what is expected in terms of one's job description). Specifically, employees who believed their supervisor had treated them fairly were more likely to exhibit citizenship behaviors. Konovsky and Pugh (1992) replicated and extended Moorman's (1991) results by finding that the procedural justice-OCB relationship is mediated by trust. The above studies, taken together, indicate that procedural justice is an important determinant of employee job-related performance. OCB is important because when employees perform extra-role behavior and are flexible in performing their jobs, it allows organizations to respond effectively to unforeseen demands.

Causal accounts. In general, when decision makers offer clear explanations (or accounts) of the reasons underlying their decisions, perceptions of procedural justice increase (Bies, 1987b; Bies, Shapiro, & Cummings,

1988; Brockner, DeWitt, Grover, & Reed, 1990; Lind & Tyler, 1988). However, the impact of these accounts depends on several factors. For example, when Brockner et al. (1990) examined survivor's reactions to layoffs, their results indicated that survivors reacted most favorably to managers' explanations under conditions of high uncertainty and high importance. In other words, a clear managerial account is most important when subordinates are uncertain about why the resources were allocated in a particular way and when those allocations are important to them. Further, Bies, Shapiro, and Cummings (1988) found that the influence of a causal account depends on the adequacy of its reasoning as well as the sincerity with which it is communicated. Their results indicated that accounts describing mitigating circumstances that focus on objective and impersonal criteria (e.g., budget constraints, company norms, formal company policies, etc.) appear more adequate than accounts describing subjective and more personal criteria (e.g., blaming the subordinate's own behavior, upper management, or the political environment).

Because fair procedures are associated with favorable perceptions of procedures, there is always a potential for abuse. For example, management may construct policies that are perceived to be fair when, in reality, they are not. However, research indicates that when individuals perceive

that the decision maker is manipulating the process for his or her own self-interest, a frustration effect can bring about negative reactions to apparently fair procedures (Cohen, 1985; Folger et al., 1979; Lind & Tyler, 1988).

In summary, the organizational justice literature suggests that individuals will react favorably toward drug testing policies possessing the following characteristics: (a) testing is conducted in a consistent and unbiased manner; (b) accurate techniques are used; (c) a mechanism exists that allows erroneous results to be corrected; (d) employees are allowed an opportunity to explain positive test results; (e) employees are treated respectfully; and (f) the reason for testing is adequately explained. In the following section, research examining employees' attitudes towards various drug testing policies is reviewed (see Table 1).

Table 1 ..

Drug Testing Procedures Suggested and/or Legislated

Procedures	Studies
testing context	Ambrose (1992) Bennett, Blum, & Roman
organizational reputation	Ambrose (1992)
advance notice	Stone and Kotch (1989)
written job offer before drug test	Kulik and Clark (1992)
confirmation of positives	Kulik and Clark (1992)
consequences	Gomez-Mejia & Balkin (1987) Stone & Kotch (1989) Ambrose (1992) LeRoy (1991) Bennett, Blum, & Roman (1991)
accuracy components	LeRoy (1991, 1990)
offer clear explanations or accounts of the reasons underlying decisions and/or implementation of drug testing	Rosse, Ringer, & Miller (1992) Konovsky and Cropanzano (1991) Crant and Bateman (1990)

Table 1 (Cont.)

Procedures	Studies
need for testing	Crant and Bateman (1990)
interpersonal treatment	Ambrose (1992)
alternatives to urinalysis	Rosse, Ringer, & Miller (1992)
employee voice: seek employee and union input and allow employees to explain positive test results	NOT EXAMINED
amount/length of advance notice	NOT EXAMINED
observe the collection of the sample	NOT EXAMINED
consequences should reflect the seriousness of drug usage but consider extenuating circumstances	NOT EXAMINED

Chapter III

Perceived Fairness of Drug Testing Policies

Konovsky and Cropanzano (1991) demonstrated the importance of procedural justice perceptions for predicting employee reactions to drug testing. Results indicated that the perceived fairness of the drug testing program was positively related to management trust, organizational commitment, and performance. In order to successfully manage a drug testing program, one must understand the origins of employees' reactions to policies (Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991).

Preliminary research on the issue suggests that the following factors are important predictors of employees' reactions to policies: testing context, organizational reputation, advance notice, job offers, confirmation of positive drug tests, consequences of positive test, accuracy safeguards, and causal accounts. Each factor will be discussed below.

Testing Context

Bennett, Blum, and Roman (1991), in a random telephone survey of Georgia residents, found that there is stronger approval of preemployment drug screening than of testing current employees. Similarly, Ambrose (1992) conducted a scenario study in which 55 MBA students read vignettes describing drug testing situations. Results indicated that

preemployment drug testing was perceived as more fair than the testing of current employees following an accident or injury perceived to be due to drug use.

Organizational Reputation

Ambrose (1992) also examined the effect of the organization's reputation on perceived fairness of the drug testing program. Results indicated, not surprisingly, that the policy is perceived as being more fair when the organization has a reputation for treating its employees fairly.

Advance Notice

Stone and Kotch (1989) examined the reactions of current employees of a manufacturing firm to various drug testing components. The authors found that negative reactions to drug testing may be reduced by giving employees advance notice of the scheduled drug test. The length of advance notice needed to minimize negative affect was not assessed in this study and Stone and Kotch (1989) suggested that future research focus on this issue. However, the length of advance notice must be short enough to identify drug abusers.

Written Job Offer Before Drug Test

Various states and cities have passed legislation that regulates drug testing of employees (Arvey & Faley, 1988; Stevens, Surlles, & Stevens, 1989). In Maine and Minnesota,

applicants must receive a written job offer before being tested (Kulik & Clark, 1992). Kulik and Clark (1992) examined undergraduates' reactions to this procedure using a 2 (No Offer versus Written Offer) X 2 (No Confirmatory Test versus Confirmatory Test) X 2 (No Mistake versus Definite Mistake) experimental design. Subjects read a scenario in which they were asked to place themselves in the role of job applicant. The scenario described the organization and, in some conditions, indicated that the job applicant had received a written job offer from the firm. Next, the scenario described the firm's drug testing policy. Lastly, the scenario indicated that the job applicant was no longer being considered for the position (or the job offer had been rescinded). Subjects who, based on their personal knowledge of drug use, were willing to entertain the possibility that the drug test was not a mistake displayed the fair process effect. In other words, they perceived their negative outcomes more positively under fair procedures than unfair procedures. However, subjects who thought the decision was definitely a mistake were more dissatisfied with negative outcomes resulting from fair procedures (i.e., the legally mandated written job offer). In other words, these subjects reported that they would feel the most angry, upset, and resentful if they had received a written job offer before

the drug test and subsequently had the offer rescinded. Kulik and Clark (1992) labelled this a frustration effect.

Folger (1977) coined the term "frustration effect" to refer to results obtained opposite from a fair process effect (recall that the fair process effect occurs when individuals respond to negative outcomes more positively under fair procedures than under unfair procedures). In other words, a frustration effect occurs when individuals react more negatively to negative outcomes derived from fair procedures. Kulik and Clark (1992) did obtain what would ostensibly appear to be a frustration effect. However, the current author questions whether they found a true frustration effect. Prior researchers (Cohen, 1985; Folger, 1977; Folger et al., 1979; Lind & Tyler, 1988) have used this term to describe a situation in which an individual receiving a negative outcome suspects that the "fair" procedure used to derive the outcome was a "sham." In other words, the individual believes that the decision maker is trying to appear fair in order to pacify his or her subordinates, yet is really using the procedure to pursue his or her own self-interests. Within the drug testing context, this scenario is far-fetched. While false positives do occur (and the scenario indicated this rate to be 4%), it is unlikely that this is a result of a conflict of interest between the job applicant and the decision

maker. Further, Kulik and Clark (1992) did not provide any evidence that the subjects were engaging in these thought processes. Clearly, these results need to be replicated and explained adequately.

Confirmation of Positive Drug Tests

As of 1989, nine states (e.g., Connecticut, Iowa, Louisiana, Minnesota, Montana, Rhode Island, Utah, and Vermont) have enacted laws mandating the confirmation of positive drug tests (Angarola & Rodrigues, 1989). A distinction needs to be made between verification and confirmation of drug tests. The former refers to the procedure of repeating the same methodology used in the screen. Confirmation of a drug test, on the other hand, refers to the use of a different methodology that is at least equal to or, usually, superior to the first test (Fay, 1989).

Kulik and Clark (1992) examined subjects' reactions to the confirmation of positive drug tests before a selection decision was made. Subjects were questioned, based on personal knowledge of their own drug use, about their beliefs regarding the accuracy of the drug test. Results indicated that subjects who believed the drug test was definitely a mistake reacted negatively to the negative outcomes they received (i.e., not being selected for the position) despite the fact that a fair procedure was used

(i.e., all positive drug tests were confirmed). Kulik and Clark (1992) labelled this a frustration effect. As indicated previously, the current author questions whether this is a true frustration effect as it is unlikely that the subjects suspected that the procedure was a "sham."

Consequences of a Positive Drug Test

Due to the costs of hiring and retraining replacements, it is not cost-effective for organizations to immediately terminate employees (Bensinger, 1982; Carroll, 1992; Dubowski & Tuggle, 1990; Fay, 1989; Jacobs & Zimmer, 1991; Roman, 1990; Scanlon, 1986; Weiss, 1985). Rehabilitating employees with substance abuse improves employee relations (Scanlon, 1986) and demonstrates the organization's corporate social responsibility (Weiss, 1985). Further, organizations may not have a choice in this matter. Laws in Iowa, Minnesota, Rhode Island, and Vermont now require employee assistance programs (EAPs) (Angarola & Rodriguez, 1989), and, as a result, the majority of firms are utilizing rehabilitation programs (Normand et al., 1990). For example, in a 1988 survey of personnel managers, Rosse, Crown, and Feldman (1990) found that 61% of the companies had EAPs and 11% were considering one.

Several studies have examined individuals' reactions to drug testing policies that either rehabilitate or terminate employees following positive drug tests. Ambrose (1992)

found the most favorable reactions when the organization's policy is to rehabilitate rather than terminate employees. However, as previously stated, the sample consisted of MBA students, and thus there is some question as to the generalizability of the findings to field settings. However, Murphy, Thornton, and Prue (1991) provided evidence that the use of college students in this domain is highly generalizable. In their study examining the relationship between job characteristics and attitudes toward drug testing, they found that responses from college students closely paralleled those obtained from adults with extensive work experience.

Stone and Kotch (1989), in a study involving current employees of a manufacturing firm, found that negative reactions to drug testing may be reduced by responding to detected drug use with employee assistance programs rather than the discharge of employees. Similarly, union members also favor the policy of rehabilitation over termination (LeRoy, 1991). On the other hand, Bennett, Blum, and Roman (1991) found that the presence of an ancillary program (EAP) that provided assistance to individuals who test positive for drugs was not an important influence on employee attitudes towards drug testing. However, respondents were not asked about the rehabilitation/termination dichotomy specifically. It is possible that given a forced choice

between the two, respondents would have selected rehabilitation.

In summary, employees seem to favor policies incorporating rehabilitation rather than termination of individuals testing positive for drugs. Interestingly, the procedure most favored by employees (i.e., rehabilitation) is also the procedure that human resource executives believe is important in an effective drug-testing program (Gomez-Mejia & Balkin, 1987).

Although it is helpful to know that rehabilitation is favored over termination, it is important to note that organizations also utilize a number of other types of consequences; for example, temporary layoffs, written reprimands, and demotions. For example, a nuclear power company utilized several consequences in addition to rehabilitation and termination including suspensions (e.g., 5-day or 30-day suspension) and a letter in the employee's file encouraging rehabilitation (Osborn & Sokolov, 1989). The effects of these actions on attitudes toward drug testing has yet to be examined.

Accuracy Safeguards

In a series of surveys, LeRoy (1991, 1990) found that a majority of union members accept drug testing procedures which incorporate limits that ensure both accuracy and the protection of individual privacy. Specifically, their

results indicated that these employees feel protected if (1) they have a representative present during the test; (2) they seal and sign their own sample; (3) they are permitted to send the specimen to a lab of their choice; (4) the testing lab confirms that the seal on their sample is not broken before analysis occurs; and (5) inconclusive results are interpreted as negative.

Causal Accounts

To date, three studies have examined the perceived fairness of authorities offering clear explanations or accounts of the reasons underlying their decisions (i.e., justifications for drug testing). Rosse, Ringer, and Miller (1992) examined the acceptance of an overt integrity test, a personality inventory, and an interest inventory as less invasive alternatives to urinalysis drug testing. Since personality-based inventories have often not been accepted due to their apparent lack of face validity, measures were taken in an attempt to increase their acceptance. Subjects were provided one of several justifications for their use. First, some subjects were told that the measure was designed to help select reliable and productive employees who are suited to the company's climate. Others were told that the test was developed to accurately detect people who are more likely to abuse drugs or engage in on-the-job dishonesty. Finally, some individuals were told that the company had

implemented a drug testing program in response to safety problems in the organization. The manipulation cited statistics indicating that drug use had contributed to on-the-job injuries, thereby jeopardizing safety. Results indicated that these justifications did not increase the acceptability of the inventory. However, it is important to note that these justifications were not provided for drug testing per se; rather, they were utilized to increase the acceptance of an alternative to urinalysis.

Crant and Bateman (1990) examined the effect of the perceived need for a drug testing program on potential job applicants' attitudes toward a company and their intentions to apply to that company. Perceived need for the program was justified according to various safety and productivity concerns (e.g., accident rates, absenteeism, and theft). Results indicated that participants had more positive attitudes and intentions toward companies that did not need a testing program. Although the sources of these attitudes are not known, it is possible that individuals believe that these organizations are partially responsible for the problems that occur within the companies. For example, they may believe that the organizations should have taken action before these problems got out of hand and they had to resort to drug testing. As a result, they may resent having to

submit to drug tests, which is viewed by some individuals as an invasion of privacy.

Although the above two studies found no effect for justifications, their samples consisted of college students. However, in a study of current employees of a pathology laboratory, Konovsky and Cropanzano (1991) examined the impact of justifications on perceived fairness of the testing program and reported that justifications predicted job satisfaction, management trust, and intentions to quit.

Interpersonal Treatment/Interactional Justice

Ambrose (1992) examined reactions to the quality of treatment individuals receive when asked to submit to a drug test. Subjects read vignettes describing a hypothetical drug testing program. For the courteous condition, subjects were told that the supervisor or personnel officer was courteous when he instructed the employee/applicant to submit to a drug test. Conversely, in the rude condition, the supervisor/personnel officer was described as rude during this situation. Results indicated that in the case of courteous treatment, the program and organization was rated as being more fair than in the rude condition. Further, an interaction between interpersonal treatment and organizational reputation was observed. In other words, when the organization's reputation was perceived to be fair, subjects discounted the rude treatment of the organizational

representative. Conversely, when the organization had a reputation of treating employees unfairly, the courteous treatment of the organizational representative increased the perceived fairness of the program. Interestingly, scenarios were presented in third person. The effects demonstrated may have been greater had the vignettes been described in first person, thereby increasing the extent to which the subjects actually imagined themselves in the circumstance presented. Future research could examine other aspects of interpersonal treatment within the drug testing context. For example, one would assume that, following a positive drug test, employees would react more favorably when they are treated as innocent until proven guilty (rather than the reverse).

Alternatives to Urinalysis

One of the controversies surrounding the issue of drug testing is that this procedure is perceived by many to be an invasion of an individual's privacy (American Management Association, 1987; Angarola, 1985; Bacon, 1989; Coombs & West, 1991; Cowan, 1987; Dubowski & Tuggle, 1990; Finney, 1988; Harstein, 1987; Rothstein, 1985-1986; Vodanovich & Reyna, 1988). As a result, Rosse, Ringer, and Miller (1992) examined several alternatives to urinalysis drug testing: an overt integrity test, a personality inventory, as well as a no-testing control condition. Results indicated that the

paper-and-pencil inventories were not perceived as viable alternatives to urinalysis. In other words, the results indicated that applicants reacted negatively to these inventories. As a result, organizations may not realize any benefits from the utilization of these inventories in an attempt to offset negative reactions to urinalysis. Specifically, results indicated that applicants were least satisfied with the personality inventory. In addition, as found in previous research (Crant & Bateman, 1990), applicants were most satisfied when no testing was required.

In summary, individuals prefer that drug testing not occur (Crant & Bateman, 1990; Rosse et al., 1992). However, within a drug testing context, reactions are most favorable when preemployment testing is utilized rather than the testing of current employees (Ambrose, 1992; Bennett et al., 1991), when advance notice is given (Stone & Kotch, 1989), when positive results are confirmed (Kulik & Clark, 1992), when companies rehabilitate rather than terminate employees (Ambrose, 1992; LeRoy, 1991; Stone & Kotch, 1989); when safeguards are used to ensure both accuracy and privacy (LeRoy, 1991; LeRoy, 1990), when employees are treated courteously during drug testing (Ambrose, 1992); and when the organization offers clear explanations of the need for drug testing (Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991). In the

following section, the purpose of the current investigation will be discussed.

Chapter IV

The Current Investigation

Although recent research has related procedural justice issues to the drug testing context, additional issues remain to be tested (Crant & Bateman, 1989, 1990; Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991; Kulik & Clark, 1992; Thombs & Scaffa, 1990). Specifically, two variables have not been addressed: voice and consistency.

Voice

As previously discussed, individuals react favorably to procedures that allow them to express their views and arguments (Bies, 1987a; Cohen, 1991; Leung & Wai-Kwan, 1990; Lind & Tyler, 1988; Musante et al., 1983; Sheppard, 1985; Tyler, 1987). Although voice is one of the major determinants of procedural justice, it has not been examined in the context of drug testing. Furthermore, current legislation makes this issue particularly relevant. As of 1989, laws in several states (e.g., Iowa, Minnesota, Montana, Rhode Island, and Vermont) now dictate that employees must be given the opportunity to rebut or explain positive test results (Angarola & Rodriguez, 1989). As a result, the effect of voice on reactions to drug testing was examined. Since voice has been found to be important in a variety of settings including citizen experiences with the police and courts (Tyler, 1987), satisfaction with leaders

(Tyler, Rasinski, & Spodick, 1988), and in the perceived fairness of autocratic procedures (Sheppard, 1985) and managerial selection decisions (Singer, 1992), it was expected to be upheld in this context as well.

Consistency

Research indicates that procedures applied consistently across people and time are perceived as more fair than procedures applied inconsistently (Barrett-Howard & Tyler, 1986; Greenberg, 1987; Leventhal, 1980; Sheppard et al., 1992; Singer, 1990). Interestingly, it appears that consistency across people may be a more important criterion for deciding whether a procedure is fair than consistency across time (Barrett-Howard & Tyler, 1986). Consistency refers to "treating like cases alike and different cases differently (p. 87)" (Bayles, 1990). In other words, if the facts of their cases are the same, individuals should receive the same outcome. Organizations often specify rules in an attempt to ensure consistent treatment of individuals across decision makers. For any particular decision, a policy could mandate that a specified list of factors be considered when arriving at a decision. Although consistency is desirable, rigidity in rule-guided policies can sometimes lead to poor decisions. For example, although policymakers may carefully develop a comprehensive list of decision guidelines, it is very likely that unforeseen

extenuating circumstances will eventually arise which negate the guidelines (Bayles, 1990). For example, when arriving at a decision as to what consequence an employee should receive as a result of a positive drug test, a decision maker could be expected to consider the following factors: attendance, performance, length of service, and willingness to enter a rehabilitation program. However, a positive drug test can occur for a variety of reasons: it could be due to habitual drug use or due to the use of prescription medications. Another possibility is that the employee took drugs in one isolated instance. In this situation, drug use is not characteristic of this person's behavior, and he or she may never partake in this activity again. In this context, the individual may prefer that these extenuating circumstances be taken into account rather than being treated identically to that of the habitual drug user. However, in this circumstance, the manager's "hands are tied" because the policy does not include the amount of drug use as a relevant factor to be considered when making a decision about the consequences an employee should receive.

To date, only one study has indicated that consistency is not important. Tyler (1988) examined procedural justice in the context of citizen experiences with the police and the courts. Although several of Leventhal's justice criteria were found to affect whether citizens believed that

the legal authorities had treated them fairly, consistency was not found to be an important criterion. As Tyler (1991) pointed out: many structural features of procedural fairness strategies can be effective or ineffective, depending on whether they lead workers to believe that the authorities are trying to be fair to them. What matters is not the structure itself, but workers' views about the motives the authorities have in implementing the procedures that structure defines for dealing with problems (p. 275). Thus, in some situations, managers may need to be flexible in implementing fairness strategies (Tyler, 1991). One way to avoid the rigidity of a rule-guided policy is to allow decision makers complete discretion in dealing with their subordinates. However, under this policy, there exists the possibility of favoritism; as a result, it is unlikely that organizations would utilize this policy due to the possibility of potential litigation. Sheppard, Lewicki, and Minton (1992), in their book, Organizational Justice: The Search for Fairness in the Workplace, described this problem:

Individuals want special treatment. When they have a problem or concern, they want a 'personalized' response that directly addresses their concerns and makes them feel better. In contrast, while the organization wants to attend to individual concerns, it does not want to

show undue favoritism or overresponsiveness to a single individual. Moreover, to maintain its own standards of fairness, it wants to provide the same basic response to all individuals who have a comparable concern. As a result, the organization will attempt to categorize or stereotype the problem into one for which some form or standard response can be provided. Thus the organization often appears to be less caring to the individual who raised the concern. (p. 160)

This passage echoes Lind and Tyler's (1988) concern that there is a difference between appearing fair and being fair; and, simply put, organizations may not be able to accomplish both. To complicate matters further, Sheppard and Lewicki (1987) found that managers wanted their bosses to be both consistent and flexible.

How does an organization ensure all relevant information of a case is considered while simultaneously suppressing bias in decision making? One solution is for organizations to develop "situationally guided" policies in which decision makers are presented a list of guidelines to follow, but are also allowed some latitude in deciding what information is relevant to a specific case. For example, within a drug testing context, a decision maker would have to consider certain factors (i.e., attendance, performance, length of service, and willingness to enter a rehabilitation

program) when deciding what consequence an employee should receive as a result of a positive drug test. However, in contrast to the rule-guided policy, organizational representatives could be allowed some discretion in dealing with these employees. Since they would be allowed to take extenuating circumstances into account (such as the amount of drug use), they could differentiate between habitual drug users and one-time users by setting the consequence in proportion to the seriousness of the "crime."

Tyler and Bies (1990) suggested that future research examine the consistency-flexibility paradox. The current study did so by examining individuals' reactions to both "rule-guided" and "situationally guided" policies using the case of the marginal or one-time drug user.

Hypotheses

Experimental design. A 2 (voice: present vs. absent) X 2 (policy type: situationally guided vs. rule-guided) factorial design was utilized.

Procedural justice. As previously discussed, organizational justice research indicates that individuals react favorably to procedures that allow them to express their views and arguments (i.e., voice) (Lind & Tyler, 1988). For example, voice has been found to positively influence citizens' judgments of the fairness of the police and courts (Tyler, 1987, 1988, 1989), the perceived fairness

of managerial selection practices (Singer, 1992), the perceived fairness of managerial resource allocation decisions (Bies, 1987), and the perceived fairness of autocratic dispute procedures (Sheppard, 1985). This pattern is expected to hold true in the drug testing context as well. Thus,

H1A: A main effect for voice is predicted.

The procedure of allowing employees an opportunity to explain the results of the positive drug test (voice) will be perceived as fairer than not allowing employees that opportunity.

As previously discussed, individuals may prefer situationally guided policies over rule-guided policies because the former allows extenuating circumstances to be taken into account while the latter does not. The purpose of allowing organizational representatives latitude in decision making is to uncover relevant evidence of a case not formally specified by the guidelines. However, for a situationally-guided policy to work, an employee must be allowed an opportunity to express his or her side of the case. In short, allowing an employee to do so "...helps to avoid error costs. A person can contribute important relevant information not otherwise available. With less available information, decisions are less likely to be

correct" (Bayles, 1990, p. 136). In contrast, if an employee is not allowed voice, a situationally guided policy will not be as effective. Further, in this case, discretion, in and of itself, may not be perceived as fair because it allows favoritism to arise. As Tyler and Bies (1990) pointed out, "[o]nce a procedure is enacted, people may make inferences about the fairness of the procedure from the actions of the decision makers (p. 89)." In this case, individuals may infer that the decision was arbitrary and, thus, that the decision maker is not impartial.

From the above discussion, one may infer that individuals would react most favorably when a situationally guided policy is used and where the individual is allowed an opportunity to present his or her side of the case. First, this procedure would be perceived as fair because voice has value in and of itself (Cohen, 1991; Lind & Tyler, 1988, Tyler & Lind, 1992; Tyler, Raisinski, & Spodick, 1985). More importantly, the procedure would be perceived as fair because these individuals would have evidence that their views were given due consideration, because the decision maker took into account their special circumstances when arriving at a decision. Thus,

H1B: An interaction between voice and policy type is predicted such that the voice effect will be magnified in the

situationally guided condition in
comparison to the rule-guided condition.

Outcome fairness. Perceived procedural fairness has been found to enhance satisfaction with negative outcomes (Crant & Bateman, 1989; Greenberg, 1987; Lind & Tyler, 1988, Sheppard et al., 1992; Tyler, 1986). One could safely assume that individuals who test positive for drug use would expect a negative consequence to result. Thus, if the procedures are perceived as fair (as currently predicted), one would expect the enhancement of outcome fairness perceptions in the drug testing context as well. Thus,

H2A: A main effect for voice is predicted.

The consequence the employee receives will be rated as being more fair when the employee is allowed an opportunity to explain the results of the positive drug test (voice) than when he is not allowed that opportunity (no voice).

H2B: An interaction between voice and policy type is predicted such that the voice effect will be magnified in the situationally guided condition in comparison to the rule-guided condition.

Bias. Research indicates that procedures are perceived as more fair when bias in decision making is eliminated or

suppressed (Barrett-Howard & Tyler, 1986; Leung & Wai-Kwan, 1990; Singer, 1990; Tyler, 1991; Tyler, 1988).

Theoretically, rules are enacted for this specific purpose (i.e., they constrain decision makers' bias). Thus, one would expect that decisions would be perceived as unbiased when rules are followed. However, a different picture may emerge for the situationally guided policies. By their very nature, situationally guided policies provide decision makers with some discretion in order to allow extenuating circumstances to be taken into account. Thus, these policies also allow the possibility of decision makers considering irrelevant factors (e.g., race or gender) when arriving at a decision. When this policy is used and voice is permitted, individuals may believe the decision was not biased because the decision maker took into account relevant extenuating circumstances. However, when decision makers are allowed discretion but do not uncover additional facts relevant to a particular case (i.e., voice is not permitted) the individual may perceive that the decision was biased.

Thus,

H3: An interaction between policy type and voice is predicted. The supervisor will be perceived as acting in a more biased way when a situationally guided policy is used and voice is not permitted than

when the same policy is used and voice is permitted or when a rule-guided policy is used, regardless of whether voice is permitted or not.

Perceptions of relevant information. This dependent variable is related to bias. Since rule-guided policies both constrain decision makers from taking into consideration irrelevant factors and dictate the specific factors to consider when arriving at a decision, it is expected that such policies will be perceived as leading to decisions that are based on relevant factors. By allowing discretionary decision making, situationally guided policies allow more information to be considered when arriving at a decision. Thus, if an employee provides a supervisor with additional information (voice is permitted) and those extenuating circumstances are taken into account, the employee may perceive that more relevant information was considered in the decision making process. However, if voice is not permitted when a situationally guided policy is used, individuals may perceive or suspect that irrelevant information was considered in addition to relevant information in the decision making process. Thus,

H4: An interaction between voice and policy type is predicted. The supervisor will be perceived as using more relevant

information in determining the consequence the employee will receive when a situationally guided policy is used and voice is permitted than when the same policy is used and voice is absent or when a rule-guided policy is used regardless of whether voice is permitted or not. By the same reasoning, the supervisor will be perceived as using irrelevant information in determining the consequence the employee will receive when a situationally guided policy is used and voice is not permitted but not when the same policy is used and voice is present or when a rule-guided policy is used regardless of whether voice is permitted or not.

Trust. By their very nature, rule-guided policies specify the factors to be considered when arriving at a decision. Thus, rules suppress the possibility of bias occurring in the decision making process. One would expect that individuals would trust decision makers in this circumstance because they are, in essence, constrained. However, when a situationally guided policy is used, the

decision maker is allowed discretion. The purpose of this discretion is to allow important and relevant extenuating circumstances to be taken into account when arriving at a decision. However, these policies do not eliminate the consideration of irrelevant factors. One might expect individuals to trust decision makers more when they are allowed to provide additional information (voice). However, it is unlikely that individuals will trust those decision makers who are afforded discretion but who do not permit individuals to provide additional information (i.e., voice is not permitted). In this case, it is unclear whether discretion was used at all. If discretionary decision making is perceived to have occurred, it may be suspected that the decision maker used irrelevant information to arrive at the decision or that the decision was arbitrary and without basis. Thus,

H5: An interaction between voice and policy type is predicted. The supervisor will be rated as being more trustworthy when a situationally guided policy is used and voice is permitted than when the same policy is used and voice is absent or when a rule-guided policy is used regardless of whether voice is permitted or not.

Chapter V
Method
Pilot Study

Purpose

Research needs to examine and delineate which types of consequences that result from a positive drug test are perceived to be fair. However, this was not an objective for the current investigation. As a result, the consequences for detected drug use were held constant across all conditions. Since research (Greenberg, 1987; Lind & Tyler, 1988) indicates that individuals may only examine procedural justice issues when the consequence is somewhat negative, the goal of the pilot investigation was to select a consequence that met that criterion. The severity scale was included in the investigation for that purpose. In addition, an assessment of appropriateness of the consequence was also made. At first examination, the distinction between the constructs of severity and appropriateness may not be evident. The severity of the consequence only concerns the negativity of the punishment. Appropriateness takes into account both the severity and the nature of the transgression. For example, the death penalty may be severe but may also be considered appropriate in certain circumstances (e.g., first degree murder). The objective of the pilot study was to select a consequence

that individuals felt was both moderately negative and appropriate.

Subjects

Two samples of subjects were utilized in the pilot study (see Table 2). The first sample consisted of 30 introductory psychology students from a midwestern university. Lab studies utilizing college students as subjects are often criticized. Since many researchers question whether these results are in fact generalizable to field studies, 30 employees from a local organization were invited to participate in this stage of the investigation. Sixteen subjects from the latter sample returned completed surveys (53% response rate). As Table 2 indicates, approximately equal numbers of males and females were represented in both samples. In addition, both samples consisted primarily of individuals of White, Non-Hispanic origin. As expected, responses indicated that the field sample was older in age than the lab sample. Due to the issue of generalizability of the results, of particular importance were subjects' knowledge and experiences with drug testing. As Table 2 indicates, several individuals from both the lab and field sample indicated that they had, at one time, worked for a company that utilized drug testing (30% and 47%, respectively). Furthermore, several respondents also indicated that they had submitted to a drug

Table 2

Demographic Characteristics of the Pilot Samples

Characteristic	Sample	
	Lab	Field
N	30	16
Gender		
Male	50%	43%
Female	50%	57%
Ethnic Origin		
White Non-Hispanic	86.7%	87%
Black Non-Hispanic	6.5%	13%
American Indian/ Alaskan Native	6.5%	0%
Age		
17-25	77%	0%
26-30	13%	7%
31-40	10%	61%
41-50	0%	32%
Employed		
	77%	100%

Table 2 (Cont.)

Characteristic	Sample	
	Lab	Field
Company Drug Tested	30%	47%
Submitted to Drug Test	33%	53%

test (33% and 53%, respectively). Thus, subjects appeared to have both knowledge and experience with drug testing. One would expect that these factors would aid the subjects in reporting their perceptions of fairness of consequences of detected drug use.

Procedure

Following the completion of an informed consent form (see Appendix A), subjects read a scenario (see Appendix B) depicting a situation in which an employee had used drugs and, consequently, had tested positively for drug use at the firm for which he worked. Participants were then asked to indicate what action the employer should take in this situation. In addition, subjects rated the appropriateness and severity of various consequences currently utilized by a sample of organizations. In order to control for order effects, the order of the severity and appropriateness scales was counter-balanced. Subjects also provided demographic information about themselves (see Appendix B).

Results

Table 3 presents subjects' mean responses to the severity and appropriateness scales. Originally, data from these two samples were to be compared to determine the degree of congruence of the results. Unfortunately, due to the relatively small size of the field sample, it was determined that tests of congruence were not feasible.

Table 3

Means and Standard Deviations of Severity and
Appropriateness Ratings for Type of Consequence

Consequence	<u>Scales</u>			
	Severity		Appropriateness	
	Lab	Field	Lab	Field
Termination	1.40 (.97)	1.53 (1.43)	3.90 (1.32)	3.86 (1.75)
Rehabilitation	3.03 (1.19)	2.67 (1.50)	2.20 (1.16)	2.50 (1.56)
3-Day Suspension	3.23 (1.19)	3.33 (1.45)	2.60 (1.33)	3.00 (1.36)
5-Day Suspension	2.67 (1.12)	2.73 (1.22)	2.87 (1.41)	3.36 (1.55)
2-Week Suspension	2.13 (1.20)	2.00 (1.25)	2.87 (1.45)	3.36 (1.25)
Further Testing /6 Months	3.93 (1.46)	4.07 (1.49)	1.37 (1.13)	1.64 (1.15)
Further Testing /1 Year	3.73 (1.53)	3.67 (1.29)	1.53 (1.14)	3.67 (1.29)
Written Reprimand	3.77 (1.47)	3.60 (1.50)	2.80 (1.61)	3.60 (1.50)

Note. Both rating scales have values ranging from 1 (very severe/very appropriate) to 5 (not severe/inappropriate). Standard deviations are presented in parentheses.

However, an examination of Table 3 indicates that responses from these two samples are similar. This information provides partial evidence that one can generalize from a college student sample to a real-world sample in the area of drug testing regarding the perception of consequences for detected drug use. This result replicates those of Murphy et al. (1991) who found that college students provide similar responses regarding drug testing issues as those given by adults with work experience.

The results of the lab sample were used to determine the appropriate consequence to utilize in the primary investigation. This decision was made on the basis that these subjects would be from the same population (college students) as those utilized in the primary investigation.

The consequence was selected utilizing the mean and standard deviation results from the two scales given by the lab sample (see Table 3). First, results from the severity scale were examined. As indicated in Table 3, the scale point of 1 represents a very severe consequence. The scale point of 5 indicates that the consequence is not severe. Therefore, the scale point of 2 (halfway between very severe and the midpoint of the scale) was deemed moderately negative for the purpose of this investigation. This criterion eliminated all consequences with the exception of the five day suspension without pay and the two week

suspension without pay (i.e., termination was too severe, rehabilitation and the three-day suspension without pay were neutral, and the remaining consequences were not considered severe). Since the standard deviations were relatively uniform across all consequences, the next step was to examine results from the appropriateness scale to choose between these two consequences. As indicated in Table 2, the scale point of 1 represents a very appropriate consequence, 3 is the midpoint of the scale, and 5 represents a consequence that is not appropriate. Since the five-day suspension was considered slightly more appropriate ($\bar{M}=2.87$) than the two week suspension ($\bar{M}=3.37$), it was chosen (again, the standard deviations were relatively uniform across all consequences).

Main Study

Overview

The study utilized a 2 (voice versus mute) X 2 (rule-guided policy versus situationally guided policy) between-subjects experimental design. The purpose of the investigation was to determine the perceived fairness of two drug testing procedures. One procedure involved allowing an employee an opportunity to express his or her concerns (voice) in a post-drug test interview with a supervisor. The second variable of interest was the perceived fairness of two drug testing policies: a situationally guided policy

and a rule-guided policy. Subjects viewed a videotaped scenario and then rated the perceived fairness of the procedures on several dimensions: procedural and distributive justice, bias, perceptions of relevant information, concern, and thoroughness.

Subjects

One hundred and twenty-eight introductory psychology students from a midwestern university served as subjects and were randomly assigned to one of the four treatment conditions. As indicated in Table 4, 72% of the sample were female. Measures were taken to ensure that the proportion of female and male subjects was approximately the same in all four conditions (between 67% and 77% females in all conditions). Although a majority of the subjects were of White Non-Hispanic origin (88%), members of other ethnic categories also participated in this study. The majority of the subjects were under 25 years of age.

Due to the issue of the generalizability of the results, of particular importance were subjects' experiences external to the university. A majority of the sample was employed, primarily on a part-time basis. Furthermore, 38% of the respondents indicated that they had worked for a company that tested for drug use and 29% indicated that they had submitted to a drug test. Tables 5 and 6 display the

Table 4

Demographic Characteristics of Main Study Sample

Characteristic	Percentage
Gender	
Male	28
Female	72
Ethnic Origin	
White Non-Hispanic	88
Black Non-Hispanic	7
Hispanic	2
Asian/Pacific Islander	3
Age	
17-25	59
26-30	24
31-35	7
36-40	5
41-50	5

Table 4 (Cont.)

Characteristic	Percentage
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Class Standing	
Freshman	10
Sophomore	24
Junior	27
Senior	36
Other	
(Continuing Studies)	3
Employment	
Part-Time	42
Full-Time	25
Unemployed	33
Past Employer Drug Tested	38
Submitted to Drug Test	29

Table 5

Percentage of Respondents Employed by a Company that Tests
for Drug Use by Treatment Condition

	<u>Voice</u>	
<u>Policy Type</u>	Present	Absent
Situation	32%	45%
Rule	32%	50%

Table 6

Percentage of Respondents who have Submitted to a Drug Test
by Treatment Condition

	<u>Voice</u>	
	Present	Absent
<u>Policy Type</u>		
Situation	24%	30%
Rule	35%	33%

percentage of respondents within each condition who have had prior experience with drug testing.

The sample size of 128 has a .80 level of power to determine an effect size (Cohen's d) of .30, analogous to an eta squared (η^2) value of .08 (Cohen, 1988). All subjects received an extra credit point for their participation. Participants were treated according to the ethical guidelines set forth by the American Psychological Association (APA, 1992).

Stimulus Materials

Subjects viewed one of four videotaped scenarios. To enhance realism, the scenarios were shot from the target's perspective. In other words, the subjects saw the interaction from the employee's visual point of view as if the subjects were actually in the situation themselves. All videotaped scenarios began with a narrator who set up the situation by reading the following paragraph, which also appeared on the screen:

As a result of increased accident rates and productivity concerns, Lawrence Manufacturing implemented a random drug testing policy one year ago. John Morrison began employment at this firm right after high school and has continued to work there for over five years. Normally, he is a conscientious worker and his performance record

speaks well of him. Last Friday night he attended a party where some of his friends were smoking marijuana. John had never experimented with drugs before but his friends pressured him to try it. Against his better judgment, he did. Saturday morning he felt awful about the whole situation and vowed to never use drugs again. Unfortunately, Monday morning at work his supervisor told him he had been randomly selected to take a drug test that afternoon. It is now Thursday morning and John has a meeting with his supervisor to discuss the results of the drug test.

Additionally, all subjects received a copy of the above paragraph. Although subjects were not explicitly instructed to take on the role of the employee, as evidenced by the above, an attempt was made to include employee characteristics that were similar to the subjects in order to increase the probability of subjects identifying with him.

As indicated above, the target employee and the employee's supervisor are both male. The sex of the scenario actors was explicitly chosen to be male for several reasons. First, although recent increases in drug use by females have been dramatic, current research still indicates that there are more male than female illicit drug abusers (Hser, Anglin, & McGlothlin, 1987). Furthermore, although

societal views are steadily changing, traditional expectations about gender roles persist. Consequently, it is not unreasonable to assume that society may view drug use by males and females somewhat differently. As a result, a male was chosen to represent the employee in this hypothetical scenario. Secondly, because the purpose of the current investigation did not include examining differences in individuals' perceptions of same-sex versus cross-sex interactions within the current context, a male was also chosen to represent the supervisor in this scenario. Again, societal views regarding traditional sex role expectations persist. As a result, individuals may react somewhat differently to a supervisor's discretion, depending, in part, on the supervisor's sex. For example, if a female supervisor took into account extenuating circumstances when arriving at a decision, some individuals might perceive that this supervisor was being "easy" on her employee or being "motherly." Furthermore, those individuals might perceive the same situation differently when the circumstance involves a male supervisor. Although the author believes these issues are important and worthy of examination, they are left to future investigations.

In all conditions, the scenario began with John's supervisor explaining the results of the drug test (see Appendix C).

In the voice conditions, the employee was allowed an opportunity to explain the reasons for the positive test result (i.e., extenuating circumstances). Afterwards, the subjects were led to believe that either those extenuating circumstances are taken into account in the decision of which consequence the employee will receive (situationally guided policy condition) or they are not (rule-guided policy condition).

In the mute conditions, the target was not provided an opportunity to explain the circumstances involved. Immediately after the supervisor had explained the results of the drug test and indicated his knowledge of the employee's performance record, the employee was told the consequences he would receive. In the rule-guided policy condition, the situation was framed in such a way as to lead subjects to believe that all employees testing positive for drugs receive the same consequence, regardless of their performance record. In the situationally guided policy condition, the situation was framed in such a way as to lead subjects to believe that the supervisor had decided in this case to give the employee a second chance. In other words, the subjects were led to believe that the consequence this employee would receive was less severe than what other employees might receive in this circumstance.

Due to the relatively short length of the videotaped scenarios (three to five minutes), all subjects viewed them twice. This procedure was carried out to cancel out any momentary deficiencies in attention.

Procedure

Subjects were given a consent form (see Appendix D) indicating the purpose and procedures used in the study. They then viewed one of the four videotaped scenarios depicting a post-drug test interview between a supervisor and his employee. Next, subjects answered questions assessing perceptions of procedural fairness and outcome fairness. Lastly, subjects were thanked for their participation and debriefed.

Measures

Manipulation checks. Two items assessed the effectiveness of the voice conditions. First, subjects indicated their degree of agreement (1= strongly agree; 7=strongly disagree) with the following statements (adapted from Tyler, 1988, 1990): (a) "The supervisor allowed the employee to state his views;" and (b) "The employee had an opportunity to present his case to the supervisor before a decision was made."

Two items were used to check the impact of the policy type manipulation (rule-guided versus situationally guided). Subjects indicated their degree of agreement (1=strongly

agree; 7=strongly disagree) with the following statements:

(a) "The supervisor used his own judgment when deciding what consequence the employee should receive;" and (b) "The supervisor took into account extenuating circumstances when arriving at a decision" (adapted from Tyler, 1988).

Additionally, two items were used to assess the believability of the manipulations. Subjects indicated their degree of agreement (1=strongly agree; 7=strongly disagree) with the following statements (adapted from Kulik & Clark, 1992): (a) "This situation is realistic;" and (b) "Situations like this happen in real life."

Outcome fairness. Two items assessed the fairness of the outcome. Subjects indicated their degree of agreement (1=strongly agree; 7=strongly disagree) with two statements adapted from Tyler (1989): (a) "The consequence the employee received was unfair"; and (b) "People get what they deserve as a result of the drug testing program."

Procedural fairness. Three items assessed the perceived fairness of the procedures utilized. First, subjects were presented an open-ended item: "Please describe how this case should be handled by the supervisor" (adapted from Tyler, 1989). Subjects were provided a blank page in which to respond to this statement. Participants were instructed to complete this portion of the investigation before proceeding on to the following sections of the

questionnaire. Additionally, subjects were asked to indicate their degree of agreement (1=strongly agree; 7=strongly disagree) with the following two statements: (a) "The procedure for dealing with employee drug use at this company is fair"; and (b) "The procedure used to determine consequences for a positive drug test is fair" (adapted from Tyler, 1989).

Bias. Two items assessed subjects' perceptions of the extent of bias in the decision making process. Subjects rated their degree of agreement (1=strongly agree; 7=strongly disagree) with two statements: (a) "The supervisor acted in an unbiased way" (adapted from Tyler, Casper, & Fisher, 1989); and (b) "The decision of what consequence the employee was to receive was arbitrary and without basis."

Perceptions of relevant information. Two items assessed whether subjects perceived that the decision was based on relevant information. Subjects rated their degree of agreement (1=strongly agree; 7=strongly disagree) with two statements: (a) "The supervisor made a decision based on relevant information;" and (b) "The supervisor used irrelevant information to make the decision."

Trust. Two items assessed the degree to which subjects perceived the supervisor to be trustworthy. Subjects rated their degree of agreement (1=strongly agree; 7=strongly

disagree) with the following two statements: (a) "The supervisor can be trusted to do what is right in the future" (adapted from Tyler, Rasinski, & McGraw, 1985); and (b) "The supervisor can be relied upon to make appropriate decisions."

Exploratory measures. Two items were included in the questionnaire for exploratory purposes. Subjects indicated their degree of agreement (1=strongly agree; 7=strongly disagree) with the following two statements: (a) "The procedure used to determine the employee's consequence was thorough" (adapted from Lind, MacCoun, Ebener, Felstiner, Hensler, Resnik, & Tyler, 1989); and (b) "The supervisor showed concern for the employee's rights" (adapted from Tyler, 1990).

Demographic information. Subjects provided their age, sex, race/ethnic origin, employment status, academic major, and class standing. This information was collected in order to accurately report the characteristics of the population being investigated. Subjects also indicated if they had ever worked for a firm that tested for drug use and whether they had ever submitted to a drug test (see Appendix E for the full questionnaire).

Chapter VI

Results

The current investigation examined the effect of two independent variables, voice (present vs. absent) and policy type (situationally guided vs. rule-guided), on various justice perceptions: procedural and distributive justice, information relevance, bias, and trust. In the following section, results of the data analyses are reported, beginning with the manipulation check analyses. The analyses of the five hypotheses follow. Finally, results of the two exploratory analyses are presented.

Manipulation Checks

Voice. Items 4 and 14 were utilized as voice manipulation checks in the current investigation (condition means are presented in Table 7). In order to test the effectiveness of the voice manipulation, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed with items 4 and 14 as the dependent variables and voice (present versus absent) and policy type (situationally guided versus rule-guided) as the independent variables. Table 8 presents the MANOVA table for the effects. Eta squared, an index of effect size, was calculated for each effect following the procedure outlined by Rosenthal and Rosnow (1991).

As predicted, a strong main effect for voice was found, unqualified by other effects. This effect confirms that

Table 7

Mean Responses to Voice Manipulation Check Items

Item 4 The supervisor allowed the employee to state
 his views.

Type of Policy	Voice	
	Present	Absent
Situationally guided	1.74	5.03
Rule-guided	1.71	4.79

Item 14 The employee had an opportunity to present
 his case to the supervisor before a decision
 was made.

Type of Policy	Voice	
	Present	Absent
Situationally guided	3.81	5.73
Rule-guided	3.07	5.58

Note. 1=strongly agree, 7=strongly disagree.

Table 8

MANOVA of Responses to Voice Manipulation Check Items

Source	Wilk's Λ	F	df	p	η^2
Voice (V)	.47	68.58	2	.001	.53
Policy (P)	.99	<1	2	.399	--
V x P	.99	<1	2	.506	--

Note. Error df=123.

the manipulation was working. Subjects correctly recognized that the employee was allowed to state his views (item 4) and present his case (item 14) in the voice present conditions but not in the voice absent conditions.

Policy type. Items 5 and 15 were utilized as policy type manipulation checks in the current investigation (condition means are presented in Table 9). As Table 9 indicates, the pattern of means is different depending on the item one is examining.

For item 5, subjects reported that they believed the supervisor took into account extenuating circumstances when a situationally guided policy was used and voice was permitted. However, they disagreed with this statement when either a rule-guided policy was used (as expected) or when a situationally guided policy was used and voice was not permitted.

For item 15, the picture is somewhat different. Subjects agreed that the supervisor used his own judgment when a situationally guided policy was used, regardless of the presence or absence of voice, but not when a rule-guided policy was used (regardless of the presence or absence of voice).

In order to test the effectiveness of the policy type manipulation, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed with items 5 and 15 as the dependent variables

Table 9

Mean Responses to Policy Type Manipulation Check Items

Item 5 The supervisor took into account extenuating
circumstances when arriving at a decision.

Type of Policy	Voice	
	Present	Absent
Situationally guided	3.00	4.67
Rule-guided	4.90	5.01

Item 15 The supervisor used his own judgment when
deciding what consequence the employee would
receive.

Type of Policy	Voice	
	Present	Absent
Situationally guided	2.26	2.94
Rule-guided	5.81	5.76

Note. 1=strongly agree, 7=strongly disagree.

and voice (present versus absent) and policy type (situationally guided versus rule-guided) as the independent variables. Table 10 presents the MANOVA table of the effects. As the table indicates, the Voice x Policy Type interaction was significant. As a result, univariate analyses were determined to be more appropriate in this case. Table 11 displays the results of the univariate analyses.

As predicted, the main effect for policy type was significant for item 5, indicating that the manipulation was working. However, results indicated that the main effect for voice was also significant for item 5. Subjects reported that the supervisor was more likely to take into account extenuating circumstances when voice was permitted ($\bar{M}=3.95$) than when voice was not permitted ($\bar{M}=4.86$). In addition, a significant Voice x Policy Type interaction was found for item 5. Subjects reported that the supervisor took into account extenuating circumstances only when a situationally guided policy was used and voice was permitted.

Results indicated that the main effect for policy type was significant for item 15, unqualified by other effects. An examination of the item statements (see Table 9) indicates that item 15 was a better item for the construct the investigation was attempting to measure. Item 15

Table 10

MANOVA of Policy Type Manipulation Check Items

Source	Wilk's Λ	<u>F</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>	η^2
Voice (V)	.94	4.10	2	.019	.06
Policy (P)	.42	85.62	2	.001	.58
V x P	.95	3.20	2	.044	.05

Note. Error df=123.

Table 11

ANOVA for Item 5

Source	<u>F</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>	η^2
Voice (V)	7.56	1	.007	.06
Policy (P)	12.00	1	.001	.09
V x P	5.18	1	.025	.04

Note. Error df=124.

ANOVA for Item 15

Source	<u>F</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>	η^2
Voice (V)	1.69	1	.196	--
Policy (P)	171.14	1	.001	.58
V x P	2.25	1	.136	--

Note. Error df=124.

directly tapped the construct of discretion. However item 5 tapped this construct in an indirect way by stating that "[T]he supervisor took into account extenuating circumstances when arriving at a decision." Results for item 15 support the conclusion that the manipulation was working as intended.

Scenario realism. Two items (numbers 3 and 13) were included to assess the realism of the videotaped scenarios. It was expected that all conditions would be viewed as realistic (mean responses are displayed in Table 12). Results of the multivariate analysis (see Table 13) showed a weak main effect for policy type, such that rule-guided policies were perceived as more realistic than situationally guided policies. Since all condition means were on the side of agreement, it is concluded that all conditions were perceived as realistic.

Hypotheses

In the next section, the analysis of the five hypotheses will be presented and discussed. Additionally, results of the exploratory analyses will be reviewed. On the basis of Steven's (1986) recommendations, multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted on the items when two conditions were met: a) the items were correlated, and b) they shared a common conceptual meaning. When these

Table 12

Mean Responses to Scenario Realism Items

Item 3 Situations like this happen in real life.

Voice

Type of Policy	Present	Absent
Situationally guided	2.13	2.36
Rule-guided	1.61	1.91

Item 13 This situation is realistic.

Voice

Type of Policy	Present	Absent
Situationally guided	2.29	2.52
Rule-guided	1.90	2.09

Note. 1=strongly agree, 7=strongly disagree.

Table 13

MANOVA of Responses to Scenario Realism Items

Source	Wilk's Λ	F	df	p	η^2
Voice (V)	.98	<1	2	.372	--
Policy (P)	.95	3.47	2	.034	.05
V x P	1.00	<1	2	.963	--

Note. Error df=123.

conditions were not met; univariate statistical tests were conducted. Table 14 displays the item correlation matrix.

Procedural justice. Item 1 and item 11 assessed the procedural fairness of the conditions (Table 15 displays the condition means). A multivariate analysis was conducted with items 1 and 11 as the dependent variables and voice and policy type as the independent variables (see Table 16).

Hypothesis 1A predicted a main effect for voice such that the procedure of allowing employees an opportunity to explain the results of the positive drug test (voice) was expected to be perceived as fairer than not allowing employees that opportunity (no voice). However, as Table 16 indicates, this effect was nonsignificant. Thus, Hypothesis 1A was not supported.

Hypothesis 1B predicted a Voice x Policy Type interaction such that the voice effect was expected to be magnified in the situationally guided condition in comparison to the rule-guided condition. Results from the multivariate analysis indicated that the Voice x Policy Type interaction was nonsignificant, although it approached significance. Thus, Hypothesis 1B was not supported.

In summary, results did not support the hypotheses. However, an examination of the condition means (see Table 15) uncovers an interesting pattern. Responses indicate subjects were less likely to agree that "the procedure for

Table 14

Interitem Correlation Matrix

	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 4	Item 5	Item 6	Item 7	Item 8	Item 9	Item 10	Item 11	Item 12
Item 1	1.00											
Item 2	.654	1.00										
Item 3	.645	.684	1.00									
Item 4	.501	.557	.460	1.00								
Item 5	-.483	-.378	-.380	-.386	1.00							
Item 6	.147	.204	.062	.170	-.312	1.00						
Item 7	.564	.487	.571	.512	-.398	.153	1.00					
Item 8	.436	.384	.328	.267	-.276	.022	.386	1.00				
Item 9	.626	.576	.494	.479	-.468	.210	.575	.472	1.00			
Item 10	.613	.592	.481	.533	-.431	.245	.605	.475	.815	1.00		
Item 11	.551	.648	.561	.436	-.316	.132	.611	.328	.570	.535	1.00	
Item 12	.568	.544	.512	.499	-.380	.116	.501	.334	.605	.511	.536	1.00

Item Key: 1-Procedural Justice 1 3-Distributive Justice 1 5-Bias 1 7-Relevance 1 9-Trust 1 11-Thoroughness
 2-Procedural Justice 2 4-Distributive Justice 2 6-Bias 2 8-Relevance 2 10-Trust 2 12-Concern

Note: All correlations greater than .170 were significant at .05.

Table 15

Mean Responses to Procedural Justice Items

Item 1 The procedure for dealing with employee drug
 use at this company is fair.

Voice

Type of Policy	Present	Absent
Situationally guided	2.74	3.73
Rule-guided	2.94	2.39

Item 11 The procedure used to determine consequences
 for a positive drug test is fair.

Voice

Type of Policy	Present	Absent
Situationally guided	3.19	3.85
Rule-guided	3.03	2.73

Note. 1=strongly agree, 7=strongly disagree.

Table 16

MANOVA of Responses to Procedural Justice Items

Source	Wilk's Λ	F	df	p	η^2
Voice (V)	1.00	<1	2	.771	--
Policy (P)	.96	2.49	2	.087	--
V x P	.96	2.87	2	.060	--

Note. Error df=123.

dealing with employee drug use at this company is fair" (item 1) or that "the procedure used to determine consequences for a positive drug test is fair" (item 11) when a situationally guided policy was used and voice was not permitted ($M=3.73$, $M=3.85$, respectively) than when the same policy was used and voice was permitted or when a rule-guided policy was used, regardless of the presence or absence of voice ($M=2.69$, $M=2.98$, respectively). To test the significance of this pattern, a post-hoc Scheffe' procedure for the multiple range test was performed. Results indicated that this pattern was significant at the .05 level for item 1 but not for item 11. Thus, the findings show that respondents did, in fact, perceive that the conditions varied in terms of their procedural fairness.

Distributive justice. Items 2 and 12 assessed the fairness of the consequence (Table 17 displays the condition means). A multivariate analysis was performed with items 2 and 12 as the dependent variables and voice and policy type as the independent variables (see Table 18).

Hypothesis 2A predicted a main effect for voice. An examination of Table 13 indicates that this effect was nonsignificant. Thus, Hypothesis 2A was not supported. The consequence the employee received was not rated as being more fair when the employee was allowed an opportunity to

Table 17

Mean Responses to Distributive Justice Items

Item 2 People get what they deserve as a result of
the drug testing program.

Voice

Type of Policy	Present	Absent
Situationally guided	3.34	3.78
Rule-guided	3.32	3.24

Item 12 The consequence the employee received was
unfair. (reverse scored)

Voice

Type of Policy	Present	Absent
Situationally guided	2.58	3.42
Rule-guided	3.10	2.30

Note. 1=strongly agree, 7=strongly disagree.

Table 18

MANOVA for Responses to Distributive Justice Items

Source	Wilk's Λ	F	df	p	η^2
Voice (V)	1.00	<1	2	.851	--
Policy (P)	.99	<1	2	.516	--
V x P	.94	4.09	2	.019	.06

Note. Error $df=123$.

explain the results of the positive drug test (voice) than when he was not allowed that opportunity (no voice). Hypothesis 2B predicted a Voice x Policy Type interaction such that the voice effect was expected to be magnified in the situationally guided condition in comparison to the rule-guided condition. Results of the multivariate analysis indicated a significant Voice x Policy Type interaction. An examination of the means (see Table 17) indicates that this interaction was in the direction specified.

Item 2 stated that "people get what they deserve as a result of the drug testing program." As Table 17 indicates, subjects in the situationally guided condition were more likely to agree with this statement when voice was permitted ($\bar{M}=3.34$) than when it was not ($\bar{M}=3.78$). As predicted, the voice effect was magnified in the situationally guided condition (\bar{M} difference=.44) in comparison to the rule-guided condition (\bar{M} difference=-.08).

Item 12 stated that "the consequence the employee received was unfair." Note that item 12 is reverse scored for ease in interpreting the results. As the table indicates, subjects in the situationally guided condition were more likely to agree with this statement when voice was permitted ($\bar{M}=2.58$) than when it was not ($\bar{M}=3.42$). In addition, as found for item 2, the voice effect was

magnified in the situationally guided condition (M difference=.84) in comparison to the rule-guided condition (M difference=-.80).

In summary, results for both items provide support for Hypothesis 2B. Figure 1 displays the graphic presentation of the averaged responses to the two distributive justice items. As was found for the individual items, results indicated that the voice effect was magnified in the situationally guided condition (M difference=.64) in comparison to the rule-guided condition (M difference=-.44). Thus, Hypothesis 2B is confirmed.

Bias. Items 6 and 16 assessed bias (Table 19 displays the condition means). As the low correlation in Table 14 indicates, items 6 and 16 tap somewhat different constructs. Item 6 asks subjects to make a judgment regarding the supervisor's behavior while item 16 concerns the appropriateness of the decision made. Thus, univariate analyses were performed.

Hypothesis 3 predicted a Voice x Policy Type interaction such that the supervisor was expected to be perceived as acting in a more biased way when a situationally guided policy was utilized and voice was not permitted than when the same policy was used and voice was permitted or when a rule-guided univariate policy was used

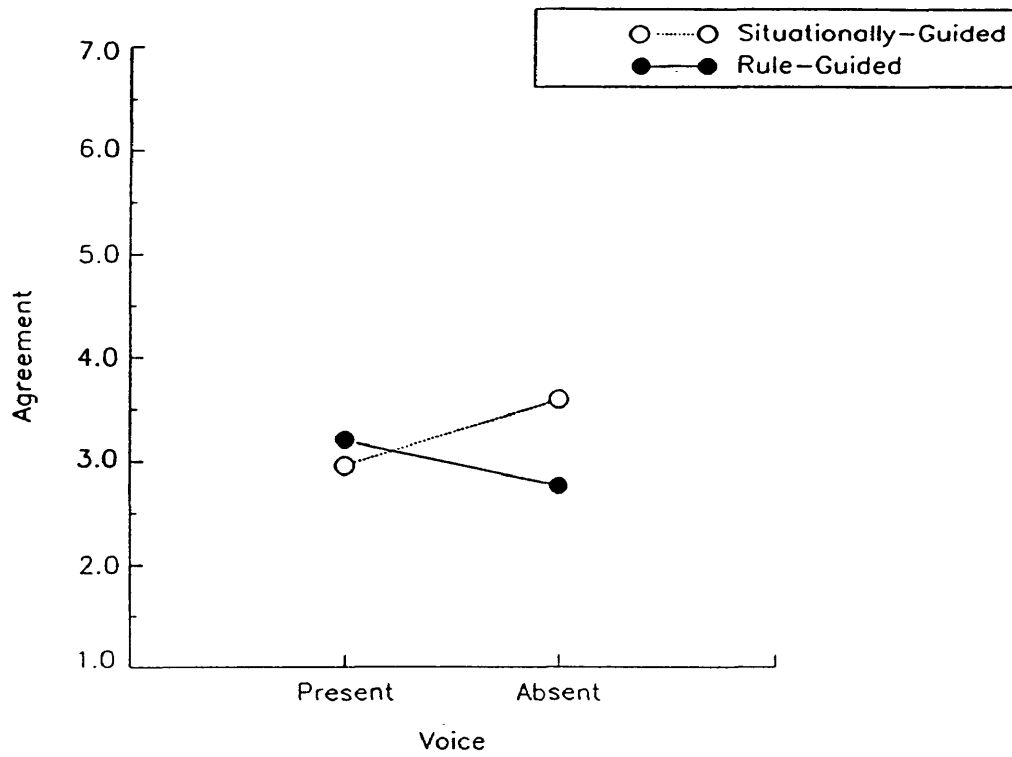


Figure 1. Averaged Responses to Distributive Justice Items

Figure 1. Averaged Responses to Distributive Justice Items

Table 19

Mean Responses to Bias Items

Item 6 The supervisor acted in an unbiased way.

Voice

Type of Policy	Present	Absent
Situationally guided	3.00	3.97
Rule-guided	2.42	2.76

Item 16 The decision of what consequence the employee was to receive was arbitrary and without basis.

Voice

Type of Policy	Present	Absent
Situationally guided	4.58	4.67
Rule-guided	3.74	3.46

Note. 1=strongly agree, 7=strongly disagree.

(regardless of the presence or absence of voice). To test this hypotheses univariate contrasts were performed for each item. Results of the test for homogeneity of variances indicated that the pooled variance estimate was not significantly different from the separate variance estimate. Thus, results are reported utilizing the former estimate.

Results indicate that the contrast analysis for item 6 was significant, $t(124)=3.73$, $p<.001$. Subjects were more likely to disagree with the statement that "the supervisor acted in an unbiased way" when a situationally guided policy was utilized and voice was permitted ($M=3.00$) than in the other three conditions ($M=2.73$). In other words, the supervisor was perceived as more biased when a situationally guided policy was used and voice was not permitted than in the other three conditions. Thus, the contrast lends support for Hypothesis 3.

Results of the contrast analysis for item 16 indicated that the pooled variance estimate was not significantly different than the separate variance estimate. Thus, the pooled variance estimate will be reported. The findings showed that this contrast was nonsignificant, $t(124)=2.13$, $p=.056$. Thus, item 16 does not lend support for Hypothesis 3. Further, an examination of the means indicates that the trend was in the opposite direction than that found for item 6. There was a tendency for subjects to disagree with

the statement that "the decision of what consequence the employee was to receive was arbitrary and without basis" when a situationally guided policy was used and voice was not permitted ($\bar{M}=4.67$) than in the other three conditions ($\bar{M}=3.92$).

In summary, results of the univariate contrasts for bias provide partial support for Hypothesis 3. For item 6, results indicated that the supervisor was perceived as acting in a more biased way when a situationally guided condition was used and voice was not permitted in comparison with the other three conditions.

Contrary to expectations, results of the univariate analysis for item 6 indicated that the main effect for voice was significant, such that the supervisor was perceived as acting in an unbiased way when voice was permitted than when it was not (see Table 20).

Unexpectedly, a strong main effect for policy type was found for both items. However, an examination of the means (see Table 19) indicates that the direction of the effect was different for item 6 and item 16. Subjects were more likely to agree that the supervisor acted in an unbiased way (item 6) when a rule-guided policy was used ($\bar{M}=2.59$) than when a situationally guided policy was used ($\bar{M}=3.50$). However, subjects were more likely to agree that the

Table 20

ANOVA for Item 6

Source	<u>F</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>	η^2
Voice (V)	6.31	1	.013	.05
Policy (P)	11.86	1	.001	.09
V x P	1.47	1	.227	--

Note. Error df=124.

ANOVA for Item 16

Source	<u>F</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>	η^2
Voice (V)	<1	1	.720	--
Policy (P)	9.84	1	.002	.07
V x P	<1	1	.595	--

Note. Error df=124.

decision of what consequence the employee was to receive was arbitrary and without basis (item 16) when a rule-guided policy was utilized ($M=3.59$) than when a situationally guided policy was utilized ($M=4.61$). Recall the difficulties surrounding item 16. Subjects may have read the statement incorrectly. Thus, one may wish to rely primarily on the results found for item 6. This result indicates that supervisors may be perceived as acting in an unbiased way when a rule-guided policy is used, but not when a situationally guided policy is used.

Relevance. Two items assessed the relevance of the supervisor's decision. Specifically, item 7 assessed whether the decision was based on relevant information while item 17 assessed whether the decision was based on irrelevant information (Table 21 displays the condition means). At first examination, these items do not appear to be conceptually different. However, one could imagine situations in which a decision was based on either relevant or irrelevant information or both. Thus, multivariate analyses were determined to be inappropriate (see Table 22). Table 23 displays the results of the univariate analyses.

Hypothesis 4 predicted a Voice x Policy Type interaction. First, it was predicted that the supervisor would be perceived as using more relevant information in determining the consequence the employee would receive when

Table 21

Mean Responses to Relevance Items

Item 7 The supervisor made a decision based on
 relevant information.

Voice

Type of Policy	Present	Absent
Situationally guided	2.42	3.09
Rule-guided	2.61	2.24

Item 17 The supervisor used irrelevant information
 to make the decision.

Voice

Type of Policy	Present	Absent
Situationally guided	5.58	5.06
Rule-guided	5.61	6.33

Note. 1=strongly agree, 7=strongly disagree.

Table 22

MANOVA of Responses to Relevance Items

Source	Wilk's Λ	F	df	p	η^2
Voice (V)	1.00	.14	2	.869	--
Policy (P)	.92	5.71	2	.004	.08
V x P	.95	2.91	2	.058	--

Note. Error $df=123$.

Table 23

ANOVA for Item 7

Source	<u>F</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>	η^2
Voice (V)	<1	1	.598	--
Policy (P)	1.32	1	.253	--
V x P	3.35	1	.070	--

Note. Error df=124.

ANOVA for Item 17

Source	<u>F</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>	η^2
Voice (V)	<1	1	.901	--
Policy (P)	11.52	1	.001	.09
V x P	4.55	1	.035	.04

Note. Error df=124.

a situationally guided policy was used and voice was permitted than when the same policy was used and voice was absent or when a rule-guided policy was used regardless of whether voice was permitted or not. Item 7 tapped the relevance of information utilized. Thus, a univariate analysis contrasting the situationally guided voice condition with the other three conditions was performed. The test for the homogeneity of variances indicated that the pooled variance estimate was not significantly different from the separate variance estimate, thus the results of the former estimate are reported. Results indicated that the contrast for item 7 was not significant, $t(124) = .69$, $p = .491$. Thus, Hypothesis 4 was not supported.

Hypothesis 4 also predicted that the supervisor would be perceived as using irrelevant information in determining the consequence the employee would receive when a situationally guided policy was used and voice was not permitted but not when the same policy was used and voice was present or when a rule-guided policy was used regardless of whether voice was permitted or not. Item 17 tapped the irrelevance of the information utilized. Thus, a univariate analysis for this item was conducted contrasting the situationally guided voice absent condition with the other three conditions. The analysis for the test for homogeneity of variances indicated that the pooled variance estimate was

significantly different from the separate variance estimate. Thus, the results for the latter estimate are reported.

Results of the analysis indicated that this contrast was significant, $t(124)=2.59$, $p=.012$. Subjects were more likely to agree that "the supervisor used irrelevant information to make the decision" when a situationally guided condition was used and voice was not permitted ($M=5.06$) in comparison with the other three conditions ($M=5.84$). Thus, the results of the contrast for item 17 lend support for Hypothesis 4.

In summary, partial support for Hypothesis 4 was found. Results indicated that the supervisor was not perceived as using more relevant information to make the decision in the situationally guided voice condition than in the other three conditions. However, the supervisor was perceived as using irrelevant information in making the decision in the situationally guided voice absent condition but not in the other three conditions.

Unexpectedly, a main effect for policy type was found for item 17, such that subjects were more likely to agree that the supervisor used irrelevant information to make the decision when a situationally guided policy was utilized (marginal $M=5.31$) than when a rule-guided policy was utilized (marginal $M=5.98$) (see Table 21). This finding may reflect individuals' general tendency to believe that

decision makers, especially in large organizations, are not permitted much latitude in the decision making process. When decision makers use discretion, observers may perceive that they are not adhering to company policies and procedures. As a result, the belief that they are using irrelevant information in the decision making process may be formed.

Trust. Items 9 and 18 assessed perceptions of the supervisor's trustworthiness (see Table 24 for the condition means). A multivariate analysis was performed with items 9 and 18 as the dependent variables and voice and policy type as the independent variables (see Table 25).

Hypothesis 5 predicted a Voice x Policy Type interaction such that the supervisor was expected to be rated as being more trustworthy when a situationally guided policy was used and voice was permitted than when the same policy was utilized and voice was not permitted or when a rule-guided policy was used, regardless of the presence or absence of voice. Results of a multivariate analysis contrasting the situationally guided voice condition with the other three conditions indicated that this was not, in fact, the case, $F(2, 123) = .0233, p = .977$. Thus, Hypothesis 5 is not supported.

Although not predicted, the results of the multivariate analysis indicated that the main effect for policy type

Table 24

Mean Responses to Trust Items

Item 9 The supervisor can be trusted to do what is
right.

Type of Policy	Voice	
	Present	Absent
Situationaly guided	3.32	4.18
Rule-guided	3.00	2.94

Item 18 The supervisor can be relied upon to make
appropriate decisions.

Type of Policy	Voice	
	Present	Absent
Situationaly guided	3.19	3.89
Rule-guided	3.10	2.67

Note. 1=strongly agree, 7=strongly disagree.

Table 25

MANOVA of Responses to Trust Items

Source	Wilk's Λ	F	df	p	η^2
Voice (V)	.97	2.19	2	.116	--
Policy (P)	.93	4.98	2	.008	.07
V x P	.96	2.32	2	.102	--

Note. Error df=123.

was significant, such that the supervisor was trusted more when implementing rule-guided policies than when implementing situationally guided policies (see Table 23).

Furthermore, an examination of the condition means (Table 22) uncovers an interesting pattern. Across both items, respondents rated the supervisor as less trustworthy in the situationally guided voice absent conditions ($M=4.04$) in comparison with the other three conditions ($M=3.24$). To test the significance of this pattern, a post-hoc Scheffe' procedure was performed. Results indicated that this pattern was significant at the .05 level for both items. Thus, respondents perceive that the supervisor is less trustworthy when he is afforded discretionary decision making power and does not receive additional case information. In this case, individuals may question the decision criteria used.

Exploratory Analyses

Thoroughness. One item (item 8) was included to determine whether perceptions of the thoroughness of the procedure differed across conditions (Table 26 displays the condition means). The results of the analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicated that no effects were significant (see Table 27).

Concern. Item 10 assessed whether perceptions of the supervisor's concern for the employee's rights varied across

Table 26

Mean Responses to Thoroughness Item

Item 8 The procedure used to determine the
 employee's consequence was thorough.

Voice

Type of Policy	Present	Absent
Situationally guided	3.45	3.91
Rule-guided	3.58	3.76

Note. 1=strongly agree, 7=strongly disagree.

Table 27

ANOVA of Responses to Thoroughness Item

Source	<u>F</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>	η^2
Voice (V)	<1	1	.348	--
Policy (P)	<1	1	.973	--
V x P	<1	1	.678	--

Note. Error df=124.

conditions (Table 28 displays the condition means). A univariate analysis was performed with item 10 as the dependent variable and voice and policy type as the independent variables (see Table 29). A Voice x Policy Type interaction was found. As Table 28 indicates, subjects in the situationally guided conditions perceived the supervisor to be more concerned for the employee's rights when voice was permitted ($M=3.23$) than when it was not ($M=3.91$). Interestingly, a different pattern was found in the rule-guided conditions. Subjects believed that the supervisor showed more concern for the employee's rights when voice was absent ($M=3.46$) than when it was present ($M=3.74$). Intuitively, this result makes sense. Recall that in the situationally guided condition, the supervisor is afforded discretion in the decision making process. When voice is permitted, the supervisor can use this latitude to take into account those extenuating circumstances explained by the employee. In the voice absent condition, however, the supervisor is not aware of any extenuating circumstances. Thus, individuals might suspect this is a discretionary decision making process. What information is being used to make the decision?

Note that in the rule-guided condition, the supervisor is not allowed to take extenuating circumstances into account in the decision making process. Rather, he follows

Table 28

Mean Responses to Concern Item

Item 10 The supervisor showed concern for the
employee's rights.

Type of Policy	Voice	
	Present	Absent
Situationally guided	3.23	3.91
Rule-guided	3.74	3.46

Note. 1=strongly agree, 7=strongly disagree.

Table 29

ANOVA of Responses to Concern Item

Source	<u>F</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>	η^2
Voice (V)	1.87	1	.174	--
Policy (P)	.33	1	.556	--
V x P	5.58	1	.020	.04

Note. Error df=124.

the drug testing policy "to the letter." Individuals may believe that it is disrespectful to employees to allow them voice when the supervisor will not change his decision on the basis of this information. In this case, the supervisor may be perceived as showing more concern for the employee when he informs the employee of his decision "upfront."

Chapter VII

Discussion

The current investigation extended prior research in two ways. First, justice researchers have consistently found that voice opportunities enhance perceptions of procedural fairness (Lind & Tyler, 1988). Although this effect has been reliably demonstrated in a variety of settings including the perceived fairness of the police and courts (Tyler, 1987, 1988, 1989), managerial selection practices (Singer, 1992), and resource allocation decisions (Bies, 1987), it had not been examined in the drug testing context. Further, current drug testing legislation in many states made this issue particularly relevant. Second, prior research indicated that individuals perceive procedures that are consistent across time and people to be more procedurally fair than the inconsistent application of procedures (Barrett-Howard & Tyler, 1986; Greenberg, 1987; Sheppard et al., 1992; Singer, 1990). However, it was argued that the drug testing context may be unique in this respect.

The study examined the perceived fairness of two drug testing procedures (i.e., the presence and absence of voice, policy types) using videotaped scenarios. In a post-drug-test interview, the supervisor either allowed the employee to express his views and concerns or did not permit

the employee this opportunity. Furthermore, the supervisor utilized one of two policy types: a situationally guided policy or a rule-guided policy. In the following sections, the results of the study are summarized and discussed. Next, potential methodological concerns are addressed. Finally, implications of the findings for the implementation of drug testing policies are presented.

Manipulation Checks

Subject perceptions of the independent variable manipulations were assessed via several questionnaire items. Results indicated that subjects correctly recognized that the employee was given an opportunity to express his concerns and views in the voice present conditions and that this individual was not allowed this opportunity in the voice absent conditions.

Results for the policy type manipulation were more complex. Results for item 15 indicated that the main effect for policy type was significant, unqualified by other effects. Subjects agreed that the supervisor took into account extenuating circumstances when utilizing a situationally guided policy but not when utilizing a rule-guided policy. Thus, findings show that the manipulation was working as intended.

Results for item 5 also indicated that the manipulation was working as intended. However, subjects' responses

differentiated between voice present and absent conditions when a situationally guided policy was used. Specifically, respondents indicated that extenuating circumstances were taken into account to a greater degree when voice was permitted than when it was not. However, this is not surprising given the two variables of interest. The supervisor would be more able to take into account extenuating circumstances when voice is permitted than when voice is not permitted because he is not aware of these factors in the latter case. Thus, results for both items indicate that the manipulation was working as intended.

Results also indicated that all scenario conditions were perceived as realistic. However, findings show that rule-guided policies were perceived as more realistic than situationally guided policies. Given the perceived bureaucracy of most organizations, individuals may simply believe that strict rule-bound decisions are the normal state of affairs in business. Alternatively, this finding may be more specific to the drug testing context. Concern for individual rights has been a paramount issue in this arena. As a result, drug testing legislation has been passed in many states. Thus, the saliency of these factors may heighten beliefs that drug testing policies are implemented "by the book."

In sum, results of the analyses of the three independent variable manipulations confirmed that they were working as intended.

Tests of Hypotheses

Results from the videotaped scenarios indicated mixed support for the hypotheses across the dependent variables of the study. Findings for each hypothesis are discussed below.

Procedural justice. Results did not provide support for Hypotheses 1A and 1B. The procedure of allowing employees to explain the results of the positive drug test (voice) was not perceived as fairer than not allowing employees that opportunity (no voice). Furthermore, the voice effects were not magnified in the situationally guided condition in comparison to the rule-guided condition. However, an examination of the condition means uncovered an interesting pattern. Responses indicated that subjects gave lower fairness ratings when a situationally guided policy was utilized and voice was not permitted than when the same policy was used and voice was permitted or when a rule-guided policy was used, regardless of the presence or absence of voice. Results of the post-hoc Scheffe' procedure indicated that this effect was significant for one item. Additionally, a similar (though nonsignificant) pattern was found for the remaining item. Some additional

effects also approached significance, and although these effects were not in the directions predicted, the results are interesting and will be discussed below.

Subjects, on average, tended to perceive rule-guided policies to be more procedurally fair than situationally guided policies. Furthermore, a preference for rule-guided policies with no provision for voice was indicated by the findings. These results are both contradictory and supportive of prior justice research. First, it was expected that subjects would prefer situationally guided policies because this policy would allow important extenuating circumstances to be taken into account. However, as found in prior research, it appears that respondents prefer procedures that are consistent across individuals. These results may be due to the methodology utilized in the study. For example, although subjects were not explicitly instructed to "take on" the role of the employee, they were provided with several characteristics of the employee that were expected to facilitate respondents' identification with that individual. Unfortunately, this identification may not have occurred. Individuals may prefer consistency for others, but flexibility for themselves. Future research should examine this empirical question.

The findings contradict prior research which has demonstrated that voice opportunities enhance perceived procedural fairness. This finding may be specific to the drug testing context. As indicated above, respondents indicated a preference for the utilization of rule-guided policies, particularly when voice is not permitted. Anecdotal evidence may illuminate this finding. Several subjects indicated that it was unfair to provide an employee an opportunity to explain the circumstances involved because (in the case of rule-guided policies) the supervisor has already made the decision of what consequence he will receive. Thus, in this case, you are "leading the employee on." This may be evidence for the "frustration effect" (Folger, 1977). As indicated previously, justice researchers use this term to refer to situations in which decision makers attempt to appear fair while they use the procedure(s) to pursue their own self-interests (Folger et al., 1979).

However, support for voice was found elsewhere in the results. An examination of the means indicates that, as predicted, if a situationally guided policy is utilized, a voice provision should be included. These results suggest that individuals may tolerate "guided" discretion, but do not prefer discretion unequivocally.

In sum, the results are suggestive that, at least in the drug testing context, rule-guided policies with no provision for employee voice are perceived as more fair than the same policy with a voice provision or situationally guided policies (regardless of the presence or absence of voice).

Distributive justice. Results did not provide support for Hypothesis 2A. The consequence the employee received was not rated as being more fair when the employee was allowed an opportunity to explain the results of the positive drug test (voice present) than when he was not allowed that opportunity (voice absent). However, support was found for Hypothesis 2B. The voice effects were magnified in the situationally guided condition in comparison to the rule-guided condition. These findings are particularly noteworthy given the fact that the consequence (outcome) was held constant across all four conditions.

An examination of the condition means uncovered an interesting pattern. The consequence the employee received was rated as more fair when a rule-guided policy was utilized and voice was not permitted. Thus, the data indicate that individuals prefer that drug testing policies be followed "to the letter." The results parallel those found for the procedural justice dependent variable. Subjects were less likely to agree that the drug testing

program was procedurally and distributively fair when a situationally guided policy was used and voice was not permitted than in the other three conditions. This finding suggests that procedural justice has a direct effect on distributive justice. Consistent with prior research (Lind & Tyler, 1988), perceived procedural fairness enhances satisfaction with negative outcomes.

Bias. Hypothesis 3 predicted a Voice x Policy Type interaction such that the supervisor was expected to be perceived as acting in a more biased way when a situationally guided policy was used and voice was not permitted than when the same policy was used and voice was permitted or when a rule-guided policy was used regardless of the presence or absence of voice. Results from the contrast analysis provided partial support for the hypothesis. In addition, several unexpected findings were found. Results for this dependent variable are complex. Methodological concerns and the unexpected findings will be discussed below.

To test Hypothesis 3, univariate contrasts were performed for each item. Results for one item provided support for the hypothesis that the supervisor was perceived as more biased when a situationally-guided policy was used and voice was not permitted than in the other three conditions. However, the contrast for the other item was

nonsignificant. Furthermore, an examination of the means indicated that the direction of the effect was the opposite of that predicted. Subjects were more likely to agree that the decision of what consequence the employee was to receive was arbitrary and without basis when a situationally guided policy was used and voice was not permitted than in the other three conditions. Thus, partial support for Hypothesis 3 was found.

Unexpectedly, a policy type main effect was found for both items. However, subsequent examination of the means indicated that the direction for this effect differed depending on the specific item being examined. A possible explanation for this result is that subjects may have been reading item 16 incorrectly. Instead of reading "the decision of what consequence the employee was to receive was arbitrary and without basis," subjects may have read "arbitrary and without bias." Obviously, this is a contradictory statement and it is unlikely that a majority, as indicated previously, of the respondents committed this error. However, these two items were not measuring the same construct. Theoretically, the supervisor could be perceived as acting in an unbiased way but the decision could be perceived as biased because of the policy guidelines.

Interestingly, these results indicated that the supervisor was perceived as acting in an unbiased way when a

rule-guided policy was utilized but not when a situationally guided policy was utilized. Intuitively this makes sense. By their very nature, rule-guided policies suppress bias by specifying the specific factors an individual must consider in the decision making process. Furthermore, these policies constrain the decision maker by prohibiting the consideration of factors not specified in the guidelines. Results also indicated that the decision was perceived as less biased when a situationally guided policy was utilized than when a rule-guided policy was used. When considered alone, this makes sense. These policies may be perceived as less biased because they allow important extenuating circumstances to be taken into account. However, when these two results are considered together, one comes to the unsettling conclusion that, regardless of policy type, either the supervisor or the decision will be perceived as biased. Thus, the decision of what policy type to utilize comes down to "picking the lesser of two evils."

Relevance. Results provide partial support for Hypothesis 4. The supervisor was perceived as using irrelevant information in determining the consequence the employee received when a situationally guided policy was used and voice was not permitted. Thus, discretion in and of itself, without additional information, is perceived as unfair.

Although effects were found for the inclusion of irrelevant information, no significant effects were found for the inclusion of relevant information. However, although not significant (but approaching significance), the supervisor was more likely to be perceived as making a decision based on relevant information when a rule-guided policy was used and voice was not permitted. No support was found for the contention that the supervisor would be perceived as using a larger amount of relevant information (the mean was not higher) when a situationally guided policy was used and voice was permitted than when a rule-guided policy was used, regardless of whether voice was permitted or not. Thus, Hypothesis 4 was not supported.

In sum, the four conditions are not differentiated on the basis of the relevancy of the information utilized. However, individuals perceived that the supervisor had used irrelevant information in the decision making process when a situationally guided policy was used and voice was not permitted.

Trust. Hypothesis 5 predicted a Voice x Policy Type interaction such that the supervisor was expected to be rated as being more trustworthy when a situationally guided policy was used and voice was permitted than when the same policy was used and voice was absent or when a rule-guided policy was used regardless of whether voice was permitted or

not. The results of the contrast did not provide support for this hypothesis. However, an examination of the means indicates that the supervisor is trusted more when implementing a rule-guided policy than when implementing a situationally guided policy. Individuals may trust supervisors who utilize a rule-guided policy because this policy constrains decision makers by not affording them discretion. When a situationally guided policy is used, the decision maker has discretionary powers to take into consideration extenuating circumstances but can also come up with his or her own criteria for the decision. Thus, the possibility of bias occurring exists.

In addition, a post-hoc Scheffe' analysis indicated that respondents perceive the supervisor's trustworthiness differently depending on the condition. Specifically, the supervisor was perceived as less trustworthy in the situationally guided voice absent condition in comparison to the other three conditions.

Exploratory Analyses

Two items were included in the study to examine how the independent variables affected the perceived thoroughness of the procedure as well as the supervisor's concern for the employee's rights. The results of the analyses will be discussed below.

First, no significant findings were found for the perceived thoroughness of the procedure. In other words, conditions were not differentiated in terms of their perceived thoroughness. Results for the concern variable indicated that the supervisor was perceived as being more concerned for the employee's rights when a situationally guided policy was used. This is an interesting finding when considered in light of the previous findings for the five dependent variables. In general, the rule-guided policy with no voice provision was preferred. Apparently, different factors are important when interactional justice is one's focus of attention. Furthermore, policy makers should not overlook interactional justice concerns. To do so is to invite trouble. As Bayles (1990) indicated, "[I]f one believes that one was denied respect in decision making, one might contest the decision not so much to alter the outcome but to gain the attention and respect one thinks one deserves to be taken seriously (p.136)."

In conclusion, results provided partial support for the hypotheses. In general, the drug testing procedures were perceived as less procedurally and distributively fair when a situationally guided policy was used and voice was not permitted in comparison with the other three conditions. This same pattern appeared to hold for the remaining variables. The supervisor was perceived to be more biased

and less concerned for employees' rights when a situationally guided policy was utilized and voice was not permitted than when the same policy was used and voice was permitted or when a rule-guided policy was used, regardless of the presence or absence of voice. Furthermore, in the situationally guided voice absent condition, the supervisor was perceived as using irrelevant information in the decision making process. However, the findings showed that conditions were not differentiated in terms of the perceived thoroughness of the procedures or the relevance of the information used in the decision making process.

Methodological Concerns

Although the current study broadens our knowledge of organizational justice within the drug testing context, several limitations of this investigation need to be addressed.

First, the current research utilized a lab method that is far removed from the "real world" of drug testing. Specifically, subjects completed a questionnaire assessing their perceptions of fairness of a hypothetical scenario. Although scenarios were videotaped to add realism and this is certainly a step beyond the written scenarios utilized frequently in justice research, it is possible that subjects' perceptions of fairness would differ if they were actually experiencing the situation personally. However,

research evidence indicates that lab methods underestimate effects (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler & Caine, 1981). As a result, it is most likely that field studies would show stronger effects than those demonstrated here (Lind & Tyler, 1988). Future research should utilize additional lab methods that are more involving for subjects personally. One suggestion is to utilize a role-playing method. Additionally, the results of the current study should be replicated in a field setting.

A second limitation, related to the first, concerns the subject population utilized in this investigation. One issue is the homogeneous character of the college population used. The majority of the respondents were relatively young (59% were between the ages of 17-25), of White, Non-Hispanic origin, primarily female, and enrolled in a psychology course. These characteristics could reduce the likelihood of the generalizability of the results. Future research utilizing a college sample should actively recruit equal numbers of males and females, individuals of differing ethnic backgrounds, and should consider recruiting individuals taking a more broadened courseload. Furthermore, the use of graduate students, university administrators, and faculty would increase both the age of respondents and subjects' realm of life experiences (e.g., work experiences).

Additionally, it is possible that employees of an organization, particularly an organization either currently drug testing or considering this practice, would hold different perceptions of these drug testing policies. However, research does indicate that investigations utilizing college students is highly generalizable in this domain (Murphy, Thornton, & Prue, 1991). Furthermore, a case for the generalizability of the results could be made based on the respondents' experiences external to the university. As indicated earlier, 68.4% were employed on either a full-time basis (36%) or on a part-time basis (63%). Furthermore, 38.3% of the subjects indicated they had worked for a company that tested for drug use and 29.3% had actually submitted to a drug test themselves. Thus, it is quite likely that the study's respondents had relevant experiences that aided them in their reactions to the drug testing policies. Further, considering that approximately 30% of Fortune 500 companies (DeCresce et al., 1989; Rosse et al., 1990) and 90% of Fortune 1000 companies (Urich, 1992) are utilizing drug testing in one form or another, this issue may be particularly salient for most individuals.

A third limitation concerns both the length and content of the videotaped scenarios. As indicated earlier, subjects viewed the scenarios twice because they were relatively short in length. This procedure was carried out to offset

the possibility of momentary lapses in attention affecting the results of the study. However, it is possible that this procedure adversely affected some subjects' quality of responses by inducing boredom. Additionally, some subjects indicated that they were not given enough information to accurately respond. An attempt was made to provide subjects with all pertinent information needed to provide accurate responses without jeopardizing the generalizability of the results. However, additional information such as future consequences could have been provided by holding this variable constant across all conditions. Further, the interaction between the employee and supervisor actors, wherever possible, could have been lengthened. This would have had the additional benefit of increasing the realism and involvement of the scenario.

Another possible methodological concern involves the specificity of the scenarios. In all conditions, the supervisor mentioned what factors he was considering in arriving at the decision of what consequence the employee would receive. However, it is possible that this information was not explicit, thereby questioning the saliency of the factors. In addition, the supervisor did not indicate how these factors were combined (i.e., weighted) in the decision making process. Previous justice literature indicates that procedures are perceived to be

fair when decision makers offer justifications for their decisions (Bies, 1987b; Bies et al., 1988; Brockner et al., 1990; Lind & Tyler, 1988). Thus, future research should replicate this study taking into account the above concerns.

The fourth limitation concerns the method of data collection. Subjects' reactions were obtained via a Likert-type questionnaire. This may be a problem for two reasons. First, there is the possibility of common method bias. This concept is also referred to as method variance or method bias. Method variance "...is an artifact of measurement that biases results when relations are explored among constructs measured by the same method" (Spector, 1987, p. 438). Thus, one may obtain inflated correlations between measures because data are collected from the same individuals using the same instruments (Campion, 1988). In this investigation, data were collected primarily by the use of a self-report, Likert format questionnaire. However, an open-ended question was also included. Nevertheless, future research should attempt to use multiple methods of data collection. One suggestion is to utilize behavioral measures in addition to self-report methods. Another methodological concern, related to the first, is the problem of questionnaires in general in that they assume all relevant dimensions are specified (Babbie, 1992). It is possible that respondents would not have focused their

opinions on the fairness of these drug testing policies unless, as in this case, they were explicitly questioned about these issues. However, evidence exists that this was not the case in the current investigation. Subjects were asked to respond to an open-ended question before utilizing the Likert-type scale in response to specific questions [thus, eliminating the possibility of these responses being "framed" by the specific questions asked (Babbie, 1992)]. Upon inspection of these responses, it became evident that subjects were thinking along these general lines. Several individuals mentioned outcome fairness and procedural fairness factors (e.g., voice, discretion, interpersonal treatment). However, future research should attempt to include several modes of data collection.

A related methodological limitation involves the specific questionnaire items used in the study. An attempt was made to utilize items from previous research. However, for some variables (e.g., bias, relevance, etc.) this was not possible. The results suggest that some items may have been poorly written. For example, as previously indicated, some subjects may have read item 16 incorrectly. In addition, items for bias were found to be measuring different constructs, as evidenced by the computed alpha. Thus, these issues stress the importance of the careful development of items. Furthermore, given that this area of

research is relatively new in development, multiple items (more than two) should be used to assess a given variable.

The final limitation concerns the practical question of whether or not it is beneficial for organizations to take into account the cause of an individual's positive drug test (excluding "legal" forms of drug use such as prescription medications). After all, it is quite conceivable that individuals would lie and indicate that they are a one-time drug user. This is primarily a value judgment to be made by organizational policymakers. However, this matter would only be an issue for the first offense (the first positive drug test). Obviously, this explanation would not be acceptable following further incidents of detected drug use. Future research should examine the perceived fairness of other extenuating circumstances such as tenure and an individual's willingness to participate in a rehabilitation program.

Implications for Drug Testing Policy Implementation

Organizations can and should structure decision making procedures in such a way as to enhance their perceived fairness. An advantage of this is the fact that this is the least costly method for improving organizational attitudes, cohesion, and compliance (Cropanzano & Folger, 1991; Lind & Tyler, 1988). However, policy makers should ensure that procedures not only appear fair but are fair. Sheppard et

al. (1992) contend that false appearances are impossible to maintain. Furthermore, prior research (Lind & Tyler, 1988) indicates that if individuals perceive that decision makers are manipulating the procedures to benefit themselves, negative outcomes can result.

In this section, the advantages and disadvantages for utilizing either a rule-guided policy or a situationally guided policy will be discussed. Following this discussion, the author will offer a prescription for policy implementation.

Results indicate that when a rule-guided policy is utilized, the supervisor is trusted and is perceived as acting in an unbiased way. Thus, individuals may prefer these policies because there is both consistent application of procedures and bias is suppressed. However, a tradeoff emerges once the provision of voice is examined. If this policy is utilized and no voice provision is included in the drug testing policy, both the procedure and the outcome that results from that procedure are perceived to be fair. On the other hand, the supervisor is perceived to be acting in a biased way when voice is permitted.

Results indicate that the supervisor is perceived as showing concern for employees' rights when a situationally guided policy is implemented, perhaps because this policy allows important extenuating circumstances to be taken into

account. However, for the above effect to occur, a provision of voice must be included, otherwise, the supervisor is not aware of these additional factors. Furthermore, three other findings indicate the necessity of voice opportunities when this policy is utilized. First, if voice is not permitted, the supervisor is perceived as having considered irrelevant information in the decision making process. Second, the decision made by the supervisor is perceived as being less biased when voice is permitted. Finally, perceptions of both the fairness of the procedure and the fairness of the outcome that results from this procedure suffer (are perceived as unfair) unless voice is permitted.

In sum, the results of the current investigation suggest that organizations should utilize a rule-guided policy when implementing drug testing procedures. Not only is the supervisor perceived as more trustworthy (relative to the utilization of a situationally guided policy), but distributive justice perceptions are enhanced. However, results indicate that, in this case, the decision will be perceived as more biased when a situationally guided policy is enacted. Fortunately, this effect will be offset by the fact that the supervisor will be perceived as acting in an unbiased way, perhaps because that decision maker is constrained by the rules. Although the supervisor is

perceived as showing more concern for employees' rights when the situationally guided policy is implemented, decision makers could enhance interactional justice perceptions by other means. Thus, results suggest that drug testing policies should be implemented "by the book." However, one's fairness perceptions may depend upon one's perspective in the situation. Subjects responded to a hypothetical scenario in which the outcomes of the procedure were not their own. Perhaps individuals prefer consistency for others, but flexibility for themselves. This possibility should be addressed in further empirical investigations.

Future Research

It is encouraging to note the extension of research in the area of drug testing. Prior research concerned individuals' opinions regarding the appropriateness of drug testing as a method of reducing such organizational problems as absenteeism, turnover, and workplace injuries and accidents (Bennett et al., 1991; LeRoy 1990, 1991; Rosse et al., 1990). However, as Walsh and Yohay (1987) indicate "[T]he issue no longer appears to be whether it is reasonable and appropriate for employers to implement substance abuse programs, rather, the question is how such programs can be conducted effectively and fairly (p. 115)." Thus, it is encouraging to see the integration of organizational justice research in this arena. The current

investigation furthers our knowledge in this domain. However, many issues are still left to be examined. Table 1 provides an outline of issues that are worthy of research attention. First, the length of advance notice needs to be examined. Second, although interactional justice has been examined in this context (Ambrose, 1992), it is suggested that the initial interpersonal treatment of employees be examined. Since organizational cultures differ considerably, the quality of treatment of employees is expected to vary substantially also. For example, what are the effects of treating an employee who has a positive drug test as innocent until proven guilty versus treating that individual as guilty until proven innocent? Third, although voice was examined in the current investigation, additional work still needs to be done. Although employee voice has been legislated in some states (Angarola & Rodriguez, 1989), it is probable that the quantity of voice varies across organizations as well as the encouragement or discouragement of that practice. Thus, it would be interesting to examine the effects of no voice, constrained voice (or different levels thereof) and unlimited or unconstrained voice.

As indicated previously, voice, but not correctability was examined in the current investigation. An important distinction must be made between correctability and voice. Leventhal (1980) suggested that correctability is one aspect

of procedures that affect perceptions of procedural justice. Specifically, he suggested that these procedures are perceived as more fair when there is a mechanism that allows inaccurate decisions to be corrected. Research has supported Leventhal's contention. Sheppard (1985) found that the presence of an option to appeal an unfair decision dramatically improved the perceived fairness of the autocratic dispute procedure. Similarly, Tyler (1988) examined procedural justice in the context of citizen experiences with the police and courts and found that correctability was one factor influencing citizen judgments about whether the legal authorities acted fairly. Citizens believed the police and courts were fair when there was an appeal mechanism that they could utilize to correct inaccurate decisions. Voice in the present context may encompass correctability. Voice would allow individuals to express their concerns and opinions as well as allow an opportunity for correctability.

Correctability has direct relevance in the drug testing context. Individuals are often concerned about the accuracy of drug test results. Furthermore, drug tests have been shown to vary in their accuracy depending on the specific type of test. For example, the most common urinalysis screening test is the Enzyme Multiplied Immunoassay Technique (EMIT) which can yield false positives due to

nasal decongestants, heart and asthma medications, ibuprofen pain killers, etc. (Coombs & West, 1991; Muczyk & Heshizer, 1988; Rosen, 1987). On the other hand, the Gas Chromatography/Mass Spectrometry (GC/MS) is considered the most accurate drug test. If human error occurs, it will most likely result in false negatives (Urich, 1992). Researchers have suggested that EMIT results be confirmed by the GC/MS test (Brookler, 1992; Cowan, 1987; Fay, 1989; Muczyk & Heshizer, 1988; Rosen, 1987). In addition, as of 1989, eight states (Connecticut, Iowa, Louisiana, Minnesota, Montana, Rhode Island, Utah, and Vermont) passed legislation mandating that all positive drug tests be confirmed with a second more accurate test (Angarola & Rodriguez, 1989). To further ensure the accuracy of drug test results, researchers suggested that employers allow their employees to inform them of any prescription medications or over-the-counter drugs taken near the testing dates and to explain the circumstances involved (Harstein, 1987). This was the impetus for legislation mandating this procedure. Thus, legislation was passed mandating voice for the specific purpose of correctability.

Clearly, research needs to examine the perceived fairness of correctability in the drug testing context. However, this was not an objective of the current investigation. Rather, voice was examined. As previously

indicated, voice would allow correctability issues to surface. Theoretically, if an employee is allowed an opportunity to speak, he or she could rebut the results and indicate that the drug test is objectively incorrect (i.e., no legal or illegal drugs were taken) or explain that the results are due to prescription medications. However, in the current study, a narrower version of voice (i.e., one that does not encompass correctability issues) was examined. In the scenario, the employee had taken drugs and the test was objectively accurate. In the voice conditions, the employee merely explained the reasons for the drug use, he did not question the accuracy of the results. Clearly, the distinction between these variables is a fine one, but one that needs to be made.

Since drug testing legislation mandating voice was passed for the explicit purpose of providing correctability, this variable merits research attention. It will be interesting to determine whether the results of the current study are replicated utilizing correctability as the variable of interest rather than voice.

Finally, future research should also focus on gender issues. Current research indicates that there are more male than female illicit drug abusers. However, recent increases in drug use by females have been dramatic (Hser et al., 1987). Are organizations more lenient on female drug users

than males? Furthermore, does gender of the supervisor affect employee reactions to discretionary decision making? Answers to these research questions will clearly have implications for the implementation of drug testing policies.

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Appendix A

Informed Consent for Pilot Study

Title of Research Study

Drug Testing Consequences

Invitation to Participate

You are invited to participate in a research study examining fair consequences of a positive drug tests.

Basis for Subject Selection

You were selected for participation in this study because you are an English-speaking adult.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study is to determine fair consequences of a positive drug test.

Explanation of Procedures

This study requires 20 minutes to complete. Subjects will read a scenario, complete a questionnaire, and provide demographic information about themselves. At the conclusion of the study, the investigator will debrief all participants.

Potential Risk and Discomforts

None.

Potential Benefits

A potential benefit to participating in this experiment is the opportunity to see how a research project is conducted.

Alternatives to Participation (if applicable)

Your psychology course instructor has alternatives to research participation available to you as a means of earning extra credit toward your grade.

Compensation for Participation (if applicable)

Should you choose to participate in this study, you will receive 1 extra credit point toward your psychology grade.

Assurance of Confidentiality

Your responses will be strictly confidential. PLEASE DO NOT WRITE YOUR NAME ON ANY OF THE MATERIALS (except this informed consent form).

Withdrawal from the Study

Participation is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your present or future relationship with the University of Nebraska (if applicable) nor will it affect your employment (if applicable). If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time.

Offer to Answer Questions

If you have any questions, you may ask them before agreeing to participate in this study. If you think of any additional questions later, please feel free to contact me at the number listed below.

If you have any questions concerning your rights as a research subject you may contact the University of Nebraska

Institutional Review Board (IRB), telephone (402) 559-6463.
YOU ARE VOLUNTARILY MAKING A DECISION WHETHER OR NOT TO
PARTICIPATE IN THIS RESEARCH STUDY. YOUR SIGNATURE
CERTIFIES THAT YOU HAVE DECIDED TO PARTICIPATE HAVING READ
AND UNDERSTOOD THE INFORMATION PRESENTED. YOUR SIGNATURE
ALSO CERTIFIEES THAT YOU HAVE HAD ADEQUATE OPPORTUNITY TO
DISCUSS THIS STUDY WITH THE INVESTIGATOR AND THAT YOUR
QUESTIONS HAVE BEEN ANSWERED TO YOUR SATISFACTION. YOU WILL
BE GIVEN A COPY OF THIS CONSENT FORM TO KEEP.

Signature of the Subject

Date

INVESTIGATOR
Cheryl Hendrickson, Graduate Student
554-2704

Appendix B

Pilot Study

As a result of increased accident rates and productivity concerns, Lawrence Manufacturing implemented a random drug testing policy a year ago. William Smith has been employed at this firm for over five years. Normally, he is a conscientious worker and his performance record speaks well of him. Friday night he attended a party where some of his friends were smoking marijuana. William had never experimented with drugs before but his friends continually pressured him to try it. Against his better judgment, he did. Saturday morning he felt awful about the whole situation and vowed to never use drugs again. Unfortunately, Monday morning at work his supervisor told him he had been randomly selected to take a drug test. Results indicated that the test was positive-that William had used drugs.

In your opinion, what should William's employer do?

Instructions: In the following sections, you will be asked to rate the severity and appropriateness of several consequences currently being used by organizations. Below is the list of consequences with their definitions. Please read them carefully and then go to the next section.

immediately fired-an employee is immediately fired after receiving a positive drug test.

mandatory rehabilitation-the employee is required to attend a rehabilitation program in order to keep his/her job.

suspensions-If an employee receives a suspension, s/he is not allowed to report for work during the specified amount of time (i.e., 3 days, 5 days, or two weeks). Employees are not paid and are not allowed to use vacation, sick leave, or personal time during this suspension.

further testing-the employee is allowed to remain on the job if s/he agrees to be further tested for drug use. In this situation, the employee can be tested for drug use on random unannounced occasions for a specified period of time (i.e., 6 months or a year). In the event of a second positive test, the employee is immediately fired.

a written reprimand-the employee receives a written reprimand that is placed in his or her personnel file.

Instructions: In this section, you will rate the appropriateness of several consequences that are used by organizations. Please read each consequence carefully. Next, please circle the number below each consequence that represents your opinion of its appropriateness.

VERY APPROPRIATE					NOT APPROPRIATE
1	2	3	4	5	
1.	fired immediately				
1	2	3	4	5	
2.	mandatory rehabilitation				
1	2	3	4	5	
3.	a 3-day suspension without pay				
1	2	3	4	5	
4.	a 5-day suspension without pay				
1	2	3	4	5	
5.	a 2 week suspension without pay				
1	2	3	4	5	
6.	further testing for 6 months				
1	2	3	4	5	
7.	further testing for 1 year				
1	2	3	4	5	
8.	a written reprimand				
1	2	3	4	5	

Instructions: In this section, you will rate the severity of several consequences that are used by organizations. Please read each consequence carefully. Next, please circle the number below each consequence that represents your opinion of its severity.

	VERY SEVERE					NOT SEVERE
	1	2	3	4		5
1. fired immediately						
	1	2	3	4		5
2. mandatory rehabilitation						
	1	2	3	4		5
3. a 3-day suspension without pay						
	1	2	3	4		5
4. a 5-day suspension without pay						
	1	2	3	4		5
5. a 2 week suspension without pay						
	1	2	3	4		5
6. further testing for 6 months						
	1	2	3	4		5
7. further testing for 1 year						
	1	2	3	4		5
8. a written reprimand						
	1	2	3	4		5

AGE _____

SEX (Please circle one) MALE FEMALE

RACIAL/ETHNIC INFORMATION (Please place an "X" in the blank to the left of the category that applies to you)

_____ White Non-Hispanic Origin
_____ Black Non-Hispanic Origin
_____ Hispanic
_____ Asian or Pacific Islander
_____ American Indian or Alaskan Native

MAJOR (if applicable) _____

CLASS STANDING (if applicable) _____

HIGHEST EDUCATION ATTAINED _____

Are you currently employed? YES NO

If you are currently employed, does your firm test for drug use? YES NO

Have you ever worked for a company that tested for drug use? YES NO

Have you ever submitted to a drug test? YES NO

Appendix C
Videotape Scripts

SUPERVISOR: Good afternoon John. How are you today?

[handshake]

EMPLOYEE: I'm okay, Mr. Carland. How about you?

SUPERVISOR: I'm fine, thanks. Well John, I won't beat around the bush. As you know, you and I are meeting to discuss the results of the drug test that you took Monday morning. We got the test results yesterday and I must say that I was surprised. The results came back positive. Now this usually means that an employee has used drugs. (pause) I know a lot of people wonder whether these drug tests are accurate or not. It is true that there is a small possibility that the initial screening test we use can come back positive if a person has taken cold medicine like Actifed. For this reason, we confirm all positives with a second, even more accurate test that's virtually without error. Unfortunately, the results of the second drug test confirm that you had used drugs.

[MUTE CONDITIONS-SKIP TO MUTE SECTION]

VOICE CONDITIONS

SUPERVISOR: Is there anything you'd like to say?

EMPLOYEE: Mr. Carland, I've got to be honest with you. I had never used drugs before. But last Friday night I went to a party and some people there were smoking marijuana. My friends were pressuring me to try it so I did. Since then I've felt awful about it and swore to myself that I would never do it again. Then Monday I was asked to take the drug test. Otherwise, this would never have been a problem. I just want you to know that I don't normally do things like that.

RULE-GUIDED.

SUPERVISOR: John, I'm aware of your performance record- you're a good worker and I appreciate your honesty. Although I understand your situation, we have to take positive drug tests seriously. (pause) Company policy mandates that the first drug violation results in a five-day suspension without pay. Those are the rules.

SITUATIONALLY-GUIDED.

SUPERVISOR: John, I'm aware of your performance record- you're a good worker and I appreciate your honesty. Although I understand your situation, we have to take positive drug tests seriously. (pause) So, I have decided, in your case, to suspend you for a five-day period without pay. That's my decision.

MUTE CONDITIONS:

RULE-GUIDED:

SUPERVISOR: John, I'm aware of your performance record-
you're a good worker. However, we have to take positive
drug tests seriously. (pause) Company policy mandates that
the first drug violation results in a five-day suspension
without pay. Those are the rules.

SITUATIONALLY-GUIDED:

SUPERVISOR: John, I'm aware of your performance record- you're a good worker. However, we have to take positive drug tests seriously. (pause) So, I have decided, in your case, to suspend you for a five-day period without pay. That's my decision.

ALL CONDITIONS:

SUPERVISOR: But, after the suspension, things will go back to normal. Do you have any questions?

Employee: Umm, No, I don't think so. (said in an uncertain manner)

SUPERVISOR: Well, if you have any questions later, give me a call. Thanks for coming in.

[FADE TO BLACK]

Appendix D

Informed Consent for Main Study

Title of Research Study

Drug Testing Procedures

Invitation to Participate

You are invited to participate in a research study examining reactions to drug testing procedures.

Basis for Subject Selection

You were selected for participation in this study because you are an English-speaking adult.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study is to examine reactions to drug testing procedures.

Explanation of Procedures

This study requires 30 minutes to complete. You will view a videotaped scenario, complete a questionnaire, and provide demographic information about yourself. At the conclusion of the study, the investigator will debrief you and answer any questions you may have.

Potential Risk and Discomforts

None.

Potential Benefits

A potential benefit to participating in this experiment is the opportunity to see how a research project is conducted.

Alternatives to Participation

Your psychology course instructor has alternatives to research participation available to you as a means of earning extra credit toward your grade.

Compensation for Participation

Should you choose to participate in this study, you will receive 1 extra credit point toward your psychology grade.

Assurance of Confidentiality

Your responses will be strictly confidential. PLEASE DO NOT WRITE YOUR NAME ON ANY OF THE MATERIALS.

Withdrawal from the Study

Participation is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your present or future relationship with the University of Nebraska. If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time.

Offer to Answer Questions

If you have any questions, you may ask them before agreeing to participate in this study. If you think of any additional questions later, please feel free to contact me at the number listed below.

If you have any questions concerning your rights as a research subject you may contact the University of Nebraska Institutional Review Board (IRB), telephone (402) 559-6463.

YOU ARE VOLUNTARILY MAKING A DECISION WHETHER OR NOT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS RESEARCH STUDY. YOUR SIGNATURE CERTIFIES THAT YOU HAVE DECIDED TO PARTICIPATE HAVING READ AND UNDERSTOOD THE INFORMATION PRESENTED. YOUR SIGNATURE ALSO CERTIFIES THAT YOU HAVE HAD ADEQUATE OPPORTUNITY TO DISCUSS THIS STUDY WITH THE INVESTIGATOR AND THAT YOUR QUESTIONS HAVE BEEN ANSWERED TO YOUR SATISFACTION. YOU WILL BE GIVEN A COPY OF THIS CONSENT FORM TO KEEP.

Signature of the Subject

Date

INVESTIGATOR
Cheryl Hendrickson, Graduate Student
554-2704

ADVISOR
Wayne Harrison, Ph.D
554-2452

Appendix E

Justice Questionnaire

Please describe how this case should be handled by the supervisor. (procedural fairness)*

*Indicates the construct being measured. Did not appear on the administered questionnaires.

Instructions: Please read each statement carefully. Circle the number below each statement that most closely represents your degree of agreement with that statement.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	SOMEWHAT AGREE	NEUTRAL	SOMEWHAT DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
-------------------	-------	-------------------	---------	----------------------	----------	----------------------

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

1) The procedure for dealing with employee drug use at this company is fair. (procedural fairness)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

2) People get what they deserve as a result of the drug testing program. (outcome fairness)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

3) Situations like this happen in real life. (scenario realism manipulation check)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

4) The supervisor allowed the employee to state his views. (voice manipulation check)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

5) The supervisor took into account extenuating circumstances when arriving at a decision. (policy type manipulation check)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

6) The supervisor acted in an unbiased way. (bias)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

7) The supervisor made a decision based on relevant information. (perceptions of relevant information)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	SOMEWHAT AGREE	NEUTRAL	SOMEWHAT DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8) The procedure used to determine the employee's consequence was thorough. (exploratory)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9) The supervisor can be trusted to do what is right in the future. (trust)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10) The supervisor showed concern for the employee's rights. (exploratory)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11) The procedure used to determine consequences for a positive drug test is fair. (procedural fairness)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12) The consequence the employee received was unfair. (outcome fairness)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13) This situation is realistic. (scenario realism manipulation check)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14) The employee had an opportunity to present his case to the supervisor before a decision was made. (voice manipulation check).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	SOMEWHAT AGREE	NEUTRAL	SOMEWHAT DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
-------------------	-------	-------------------	---------	----------------------	----------	----------------------

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

15) The supervisor used his own judgment when deciding what consequence the employee should receive. (policy type manipulation check)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

16) The decision of what consequence the employee was to receive was arbitrary and without basis. (bias)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

17) The supervisor used irrelevant information to make the decision. (perceptions of relevant information)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

18) The supervisor can be relied upon to make appropriate decisions. (trust)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

AGE _____

MAJOR _____

SEX (Please circle one) MALE FEMALE

RACIAL/ETHNIC INFORMATION (Please place an "X" in the blank to the left of the category that applies to you).

_____ White Non-Hispanic Origin
_____ Black Non-Hispanic Origin
_____ Hispanic
_____ Asian or Pacific Islander
_____ American Indian or Alaskan Native

CLASS STANDING (Please "X")

_____ freshman
_____ sophomore
_____ junior
_____ senior

Are you currently employed? YES NO

If employed, are you employed full-time or part-time?

FULL-TIME

PART-TIME

Have you ever worked at a company that tested for drug use? YES NO

Have you ever submitted to a drug test? YES NO