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Organizational justice perceptions of Virginia high school teachers: Relationships to organizational citizenship behavior and student achievement

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**ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS OF VIRGINIA HIGH
SCHOOL TEACHERS: RELATIONSHIPS TO ORGANIZATIONAL
CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR AND STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT**

Dissertation

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The College of William and Mary in Virginia

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Doctor of Education

by

William R. Travis Burns


April 10, 2012

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SCHOOL TEACHERS: RELATIONSHIPS TO ORGANIZATIONAL
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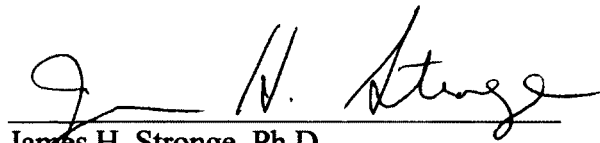
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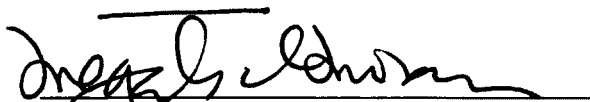
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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my father, Lt. Col. Danny A. Burns. May he continue to rest in peace with the absolute wisdom that he will be reunited with his family in a not so distant and magnanimous future!

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**ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS OF VIRGINIA HIGH
SCHOOL TEACHERS: RELATIONSHIPS TO ORGANIZATIONAL
CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR AND STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT**

ABSTRACT

An emergent research base suggests that teacher perceptions of fairness with respect to interactions with school administrators, decision-making processes, and decision outcomes have much to contribute to our understanding of effective schools. This study focused on the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) in the high school setting and their relationships to student achievement. Correlational analysis was used to analyze and measure the strength of the relationships between examined variables. The study found a positive and significant relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior in Virginia public high schools. No evidence was found for a significant correlation between organizational justice and student achievement. Results of the study are discussed in terms of their implications for future research on organizational justice.

CHAPTER 1

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

Increasing organizational effectiveness is an intrinsic aim of public schools and their leaders. In general, school effectiveness may be measured by the quality of outputs and capacity to reach intended goals and objectives related to school mission and student achievement. School effectiveness refers to variables that contribute to optimal learning conditions at the school and classroom levels. The major impetus for the development of school effectiveness research is typically attributed to the findings of Coleman et al. (1966), which was authorized as part of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. The Coleman Report, as it is commonly known, examined inconsistencies between student achievement and socio-economic status and ignited the discourse on what it means to be an effective school.

The essential finding of the Coleman Report was that socioeconomic status and family background accounted for 90 percent of the variance in student achievement while school-based variables and/or differences related to school quality and teacher effectiveness accounted for 10 percent. Six years after the release of the Coleman Report, Jencks et al (1972) revisited the data collected by the Coleman researchers. The Jencks Report reaffirmed the findings of Coleman, serving as further evidence, or argument, that school-based variables remained a poor indicator of student outcomes. Therefore, they concluded that school quality and teacher effectiveness mattered very little in terms of student achievement. What mattered most was the socioeconomic status and family background of the individual student.

The idea that socioeconomic status and family background are the primary determinants of student achievement runs counter to the fundamental beliefs and values of public education. Since its inception, public education has always operated under the premise that schools can and do make a difference in the lives of student clientele regardless of socioeconomic or family background. The investigative findings of the Coleman and Jencks studies were certainly disconcerting to educational practitioners. Wagner (2008) contends these particular studies “were indicative of an era when school bureaucracy manifested itself in wide disparities in school quality, funding, accountability, and student achievement (p. 15).” Pervasive school reform and further investigative research was necessary to moderate the trends of the period and counter the claims of the Coleman and Jencks studies while promoting the value of public education, changing public perceptions, and identifying the characteristics of effective school organizations, specifically school-based variables impacting student achievement.

Ever since the Coleman Report was first published the motivating impetus behind school effectiveness research was and continues to remain focused on uncovering the relevant contextual factors that promote student achievement. The 1970s and 1980s were characterized by an era of empirical studies challenging the claims of the Coleman and Jencks studies that focused on school qualities that yield high levels of student achievement. In particular, many research studies during this period articulated building-level factors common to effective schools, ushering in what has now been termed the effective schools movement. Hoffman (1991) surveyed the literature base on effective schools research from the 1970s and 1980s (e.g., Venezky & Winfield, 1979; Weber, 1971; Wilder, 1977). From the sampled studies Hoffman identified several

characteristics common to effective literacy instruction and student achievement. Those characteristics were, as follows:

1. a clearly identifiable and agreed upon school mission;
2. strong instructional leadership;
3. high expectations for student achievement;
4. ongoing curriculum development;
5. maximum use of instructional time on the part of classroom teachers;
6. frequent monitoring of student progress;
7. positive home-school relationships; and
8. a safe and secure learning environment.

Hoffman's work emphasized outcomes with respect to reading instruction and his work served as a basis for further studies articulating common correlates necessary for achieving elevated and equitable levels of student success in the classroom. The empirical research findings of Lezotte (Lezotte, 1991; Lezotte, 1997; Lezotte, 2001) supports the work of Hoffman and is considered by many scholars as authority on the variables common to effective schools. Lezotte's work particularly focuses on high achieving schools with sizeable populations of students from families lacking financial, social, and educational standing. Over the course of two decades, Lezotte found consistent support for seven primary correlates of school effectiveness. The primary means of examining the veracity of the correlates has been student achievement on standardized measures. Lezotte's seven correlates are identified as:

1. clear school mission;
2. high expectations for student success;

3. strong instructional leadership;
4. opportunity to learn and time on task;
5. safe and orderly environment;
6. positive home-school relations; and
7. frequent monitoring of student progress.

Lezotte's characteristics of effective schools continue to serve as a guide for transforming low performing schools into high performing ones. Perhaps the most significant contribution of Lezotte's findings is that public schools can and do make difference in spite of economic hurdles related to family and socio-economic background.

Over time the research on effective schools prompted a major paradigm shift with respect to public perceptions of schools and, in turn, laid the foundation for major policy changes in education, specifically the introduction of federal and state mandates and guidelines related to accountability and standardization. The culminating efforts of the effective schools research is thought to be manifested in two seminal works, *A Nation at Risk* (1983) and the policy initiative commonly known as *The No Child Left Behind Act* of 2001 [NCLB]. Both works have served to counter conventional thinking regarding the capacity of schools for realizing high academic standards and narrowing disparities between ethnic and socio-economic groups. In fact, No Child Left Behind delineates consequences and corrective actions for public schools that fail to meet state mandated benchmarks for adequate yearly progress (AYP). In simplest of terms, adequate yearly progress or AYP may be defined as cumulative student progress on state standardized assessments. The sense of urgency for school officials in developing, implementing, and

sustaining initiatives and practices aimed at promoting student achievement has never been greater.

Following on the heels of *A Nation at Risk* and NCLB, research continues to demonstrate that school-based contextual factors play a significant role in realizing high achievement standards. The research of the past two decades builds on and supports the early works of the 1970s and 1980s. Tangible building level factors such as class size (Mosteller, 1995; Odden, 1990) and school size (Gooding & Wagner, 1985; Haller, 1993) have been found to promote student achievement. Much consideration over the years has also been given to more elusive school-based contextual factors related to social interactions and leader-follower relationships. Factors such as job satisfaction (Hoy & Miskel, 2005), academic optimism (Kirby and DiPaola, 2009), school climate (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005b; DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Tschannen-Moran, Parish, & DiPaola, 2006), collegial leadership (Hoy & Miskel, 2005; Hoy and Sabo, 1998), organizational commitment, (Kushman, 1992), trust (Tschannen-Moran, 2004), and organizational citizenship behavior (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005a; DiPaola & Hoy, 2005b; DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001) are thought to be critical to understanding interactions between school leaders and teachers and, more importantly, have also been found to be consistent correlates of student performance and/or academic achievement.

Though the literature base on school effectiveness has grown exponentially over the past few decades much remains to be learned with respect to contextual factors that influence student achievement. Studies on organizational citizenship behavior and faculty trust in school leadership, students, and parents have invoked a special degree of

attention among educational scholars in attempts to understand and explain influences on student achievement:

Positive working relationships with respect to trust and contributions that go above and beyond contractual expectations are certainly a vital source of school effectiveness. Scholars have also addressed the potential and practical implications of teacher perceptions of justice. However, justice remains to be linked to student achievement. Organizational justice refers to worker perceptions of fairness in decision-making processes and outcomes (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). A major premise behind organizational citizenship behavior studies in the private sector is that perceptions of fairness “promote work motives and enhance performance at the workplace (Young, p. 637).” Among other variables, this study compares organizational justice to organizational citizenship behavior. Perceptions of fairness have not been linked to organizational citizenship behavior within schools. However, justice has been linked to school climate and teacher trust in leadership, students, and parents. Through empirical analysis DiPaola and Guy (2009) determined that organizational justice correlates strongly and positively to school climate and trust. An earlier study by Tschannen-Moran (2003) found a significant positive relationship between trust and organizational citizenship behavior. Hoy and Tarter (2004) concluded that justice and trust in schools are inextricably linked, operating in tandem to shape and influence the social milieu of a given school organization. Expanding on Hoy and Tarter’s (2004) work, DiPaola and Guy (2009) also concluded that trust and justice are essentially different words for the same construct when applied to schools. The findings of Hoy and Tarter (2004), Tschannen-Moran (2003), and DiPaola and Guy (2009) clearly underscore the rationale

for exploring the relationships among teacher perceptions of justice, organizational citizenship behavior, and student achievement. Despite the seemingly apparent connection there is no seminal authority or body of work that sheds light on the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) in the school setting and how this relationship influences student achievement. This study provides a “first-look” analysis of the interplay among organizational justice, organizational citizenship behavior, and student achievement.

Conceptual Framework

Employee perceptions of supervisors, decision-making structures, and the work environment have practical implications for organizational efficiency and effectiveness. Pulakos, et al. (1988) and Bolman and Deal (2003) maintain that the perceptions of individual workers are critical to organizational mission and achieving intended goals and objectives. When employees have positive attitudes they are more apt to exhibit desirable behaviors that in the aggregate result in greater efficiency and effectiveness. Schools are no exception to the rule. Perceptions toward school leaders -in particular building level principals- and the decision-making structures that direct the ebb and flow of resources and outcomes may influence how teachers affiliate with colleagues, engage students, communicate with parents, and perform contractual and non-contractual work obligations. Hence, questions of teacher perceptions are fundamental to understanding the social milieu of schools and the contextual factors that promote or curb efforts aimed at promoting student achievement.

Organizational justice is an attitudinal variable that has been linked to organizational effectiveness (Byrne and Cropanzano, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001;

Greenberg, 1990). Organizational justice refers to worker perceptions of fairness in the workplace (Greenberg, 1996). With respect to schools perceptions of fairness are associated with teacher feelings and actions. Exploration of the relationship of organizational justice and school effectiveness is emergent and in particular its relationship to student outcomes is unknown (DiPaola & Guy, 2009).

Teaching is a highly complex profession requiring sound judgment and initiative. Sound judgment and initiative on the part of classroom teachers are necessary elements of high functioning schools. With the increasing expectations and complexities associated with leading and managing a public school educational leaders should strive to foster environments where school personnel use professional discretion to go beyond minimum expected performance (Tschannen-Moran, 2003). Performing mandatory tasks articulated in a job description or by a principal is simply not enough. Katz and Kahn (1966) suggested that organizational managers must strive to elicit contributory “extra role” professional behaviors of employees. Non-mandatory “extra role” tasks are not required and may not result in either extrinsic rewards such as a promotion or higher pay or intrinsic rewards such as praise for a job well done. This is the essence of organizational citizenship behavior. Tschannen-Moran (2003) defines organizational citizenship behavior as “going beyond minimum expected performance (p. 159).” Research focusing on the relationship between organizational justice and organizational climate suggests that perceived justice is linked to mandatory and non-mandatory task performance (Chegini, 2009; Ehrhart, 2004). On the other hand, perceived injustice is linked to counterproductive work behaviors (CWB) such as latent dissent, sabotage, and theft and in turn diminished work productivity (Fox, Spector & Miles, 2002). The central

concern of this study is whether teacher perceptions of justice are related to organizational citizenship behavior and student achievement. Student achievement is the unit of measurement for determining school effectiveness.

Research exploring the relationship between justice and organizational citizenship behavior has been limited primarily to the business sector. There is scant literature that explores the relationship between justice climates and citizenship behavior in school settings (Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009). The conceptual framework for this study posits a linkage between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior in the school setting and, among other things, makes obvious an association to student achievement.

Prior studies on justice suggest a strong correlation to trust (Hoy & Tarter, 2004; Guy, 2007). In fact, DiPaola and Guy (2009) determined that trust and justice are essentially different names for the same construct. Tschannen-Moran (2003) found a strong correlation between trust and organizational citizenship behavior. Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2000) demonstrated that trust facilitates cooperation between stakeholders [principal, teachers, students, and parents] while promoting school effectiveness in particular student achievement. Though justice has been linked to organizational effectiveness in the business sector the concept's relationship to student achievement has not been explored and has up until this point been assumed based on the constructs relationship to trust. In sum, the findings of Hoy and Tarter (2004), Tschannen-Moran (2003), and DiPaola and Guy (2009) underscore the rationale for exploring the relationships among organizational justice, organizational citizenship behavior in schools, and student achievement. Figure 1 shows the conceptual framework

used for understanding the hypothesized relationships between organizational justice, organizational citizenship behavior, and student achievement.

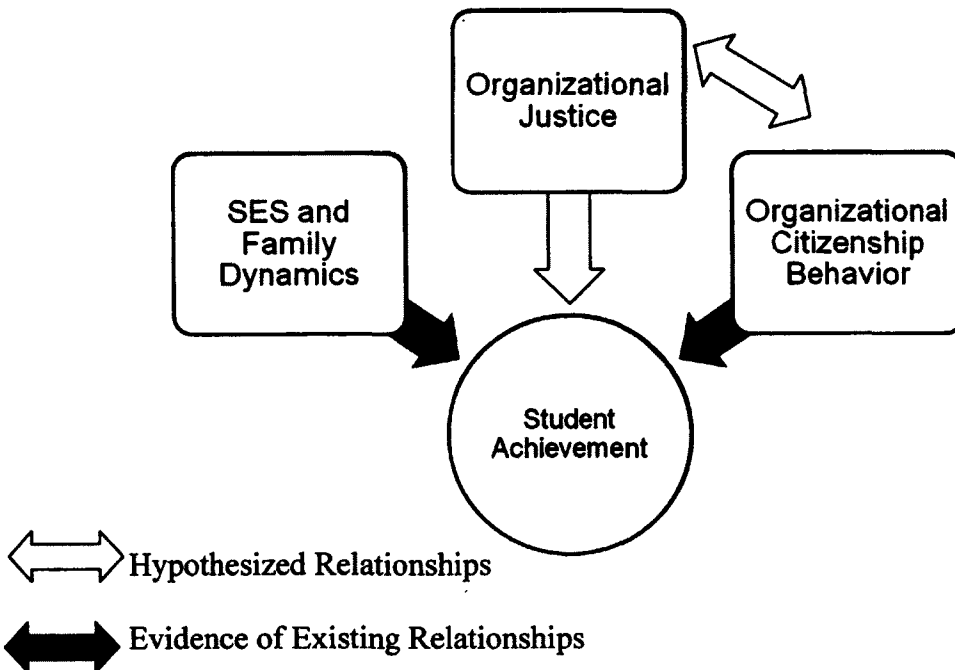


Figure 1: Conceptual framework diagram for relationship between organizational justice and student achievement.

Statement of Problem

The decisions school leaders make as well as the means in which decisions are implemented have profound implications for achieving schools goals and objectives. Research suggests that worker perceptions of justice with respect to the decisions made and the process for making them correlate to job satisfaction (Chen et al. 2010; Clay-Warner, Reynolds, & Roman, 2005; Schappe, 1998), organizational climate (Guy, 2007), employee dissent (Kassing and McDowell, 2008), organizational commitment (Liao & Rupp, 2005; Shapira-Lishchinsky, 2009), organizational trust (Guy, 2007; Hoy & Tarter, 2004; Hubbell & Chory-Assad, 2005), and organizational citizenship behavior (Farh, Earley & Lin, 1997; Moorman, 1991; Moorman, Blakely & Niehoff, 1998; Organ &

Moorman, 1993). Either independently, or in the aggregate, these variables can either advance or obstruct the flow of progress leading to increased organizational efficiency and effectiveness. The research base on justice in schools is scant at best. Further inquiry into justice perceptions in schools is necessitated by its capacity for shaping teacher attitudes and promoting positive workplace behaviors and, more importantly, for its potential for influencing student achievement.

In educational settings school effectiveness is typically evaluated in terms of student performance on standardized measures of achievement. Empirical studies on justice, trust, and citizenship behavior lend credibility to the supposition that perceptions of fairness in school settings may play a positive role in promoting student achievement. The purpose of this study is to build upon the current literature base by examining the degree of influence justice has over student achievement and organizational citizenship behaviors in schools. Research by DiPaola and Hoy (2005a) found a strong correlation between organizational citizenship behavior and student achievement in high school settings. Further studies by Hoy and DiPaola (2005b) have supported the linkage between citizenship behavior and student achievement in elementary and middle schools. Tschannen-Moran (2003) found a strong correlation between citizenship behavior and trust, suggesting that trust is a more powerful explanatory variable than transformational leadership. Tschannen-Moran asserts further that working environments where trust is lacking are less likely to experience high levels of organizational citizenship behavior. A later study by Tschannen-Moran (2004a) found trust to be linked to student achievement. Hoy and Tarter (2004) found trust and justice to be inextricably linked. Guy (2007) first asserted that trust and justice are simply different words for the same construct.

However, research on organizational justice has received only a marginal degree of national and international attention in terms of its applicability to school organizations and relationship to student achievement (DiPaola and Guy, 2009). Organizational justice is a novel construct in the lexicon of school jargon that has yet to be conclusively linked to student achievement. Further inquiry is necessitated by the limited studies on the subject of organizational justice with respect to its affects on student achievement. There is significant potential for extending scholarly discussion in a direction that ultimately serves to benefit the field of educational leadership.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided this study of the relationships among organizational justice, organizational citizenship behavior, and student achievement in public high schools in Virginia:

1. What is the relationship between organizational justice, as measured by the Organizational Justice Scale (OJS) and student achievement on the Virginia Standards of Learning (SOL) End-of-Course (EOC) Tests: English 11: *Reading*; English 11: *Writing*; Biology; and United States History?
2. What is the relationship between organizational justice, as measured by the Organizational Justice Scale (OJS) and organizational citizenship behaviors of classroom teachers, as measured by the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale (OCBS) in Virginia high schools?
3. What are the relative and collective effects of organizational justice, organizational citizenship behavior, and socio-economic status in explaining variance in student achievement with respect to effect size as measured by the

Virginia Standards of Learning (SOL) End-of-Course (EOC) Tests: English 11: *Reading*; English 11: *Writing*; Biology; and United States History?

Operational Terms

The following terms applied to this investigation of organizational justice:

- **High Schools:** Schools with grade configurations of either 8-12 or 9-12.
- **Organizational Justice:** Organizational justice refers to employee perceptions of fairness and evaluations regarding appropriateness of outcomes and processes in the workplace (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). Perceptions of justice are based on the distribution of organizational outcomes, procedures regulating outcome distribution, and leader-member interactions related to the treatment of subordinates/workers.
- **Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB):** Worker performance that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization” (Organ, 1988, p.4). Examples of citizenship behaviors in schools may include volunteering to serve on a school improvement committee, providing advance notice prior to taking personal leave, and giving up planning time or staying after school hours to tutor a student. Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) is a one-dimensional construct when applied to schools, benefits to individuals and benefits to school (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001).
- **Trust:** Research suggests that trust and justice are one in the same when applied to schools (DiPaola & Guy, 2009). Trust is a workers willingness to be

vulnerable to another based on the confidence that the other party is benevolent, reliable, open, competent, and honest (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran; Tschannen-Moran, 2004).

- **Socioeconomic Status (SES):** Represented by the percentage of students receiving free or reduced-price lunch. Data for SES were provided by the Virginia Department of Education (VDOE).
- **Student Achievement:** Student academic performance as measured by the 2010-2011 Virginia Standards of Learning tests. The dissertation study used data from the Biology, United States History, English 11 Writing, and English 11 Reading Tests.

Limitations of Study

No study is without limitations and delimitations. First, the research study was correlational in design. Subsequently, relationships between the variables under study were inferred. Strong predictions regarding the direction of relationships could not be determined from the research design. Second, the confidence and generalizability of the conclusions reached regarding relationships between the examined variables are limited. Efforts were made to obtain a random sample representative of the Commonwealth of Virginia. Participation was limited to high schools willing to participate in the study. The sample was diverse, representing rural, urban, and suburban high schools across Virginia.

Third, the primary purpose of this study was to explore relationships among a select core of contextual variables influencing student achievement, particularly organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior. Other variables and/or

phenomena not identified or controlled for by this study may have affected the relationships between the identified constructs leading to complications with respect to the research findings and conclusions. For example, history may have affected teacher perceptions of justice and organizational citizenship behavior. History refers to events occurring at the time of the research study. This study was conducted at a time when significant budget restraints across Virginia have resulted in school districts cutting positions, reducing contracts, and freezing salaries. The reality is that these contextual constraints may have negatively influenced the sampled population's perceptions of organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior.

A fourth limitation of the study is related to the potential for the inflation or deflation of the identified correlations between the observed constructs. Perceptual data were obtained and analyzed through the use of self-reports, specifically the OJS and the OCB-Scale. Self-reports are an easy and efficient way for researchers to obtain data in a short period of time. However, self-reports are subject to common method variance (Meade, Watson & Kroustalis, 2007). The variables under study were examined from the perspective of a singular source [teachers] at one point in time using two distinct investigative tools, the OJS and OCBS. Supervisor or principal perceptions of justice and organizational citizenship behavior were not examined in this study. Additionally, common rater bias and/or consistency motif may have also influenced the results of this study. Common rater bias refers to the personal opinions of individual raters and how those opinions distort estimations of scaled items. Ideally, scale ratings for the OJS and OCBS should be based on actual teacher perceptions and the ratings themselves should be accurate reflections of the degree to which raters hold those perceptions. Conceivably

individual raters may have tended to intentionally avoid extremities or respond to individual items in either a negative or positive response pattern. This type of bias is often referred to as consistency motif. Consistency motif specifically refers to the propensity for respondents to maintain a level of consistency in terms of their scoring of scaled items. These are just a few examples of how common method variance and/or rater bias may cloud the essential findings and conclusions of this study.

Finally, achievement data in this study was limited to the Virginia Standards of Learning (SOL) End-of-Course (EOC) Tests: English 11: *Reading*; English 11: *Writing*; Biology; and United States History. No other achievement measures were used to weigh against perceptions of justice and organizational citizenship. Wagner (2008) asserted that the identified Virginia Standards of Learning tests are a reliable and valid source of measurement due in large part to “their uniformity and consistency across large groups of students in school-wide test administrations, as well as for their content variety (pp. 59-60).” The Standards of Learning End-of-Course Tests describe the Commonwealth of Virginia’s expectations for minimum competency in terms of achievement in grades K-12. Curriculum frameworks identify the cognitive knowledge and skills students must possess in order to demonstrate competency. The target population for this study was administered the OJI and the OCB-scale during the spring months of the 2010-2011 academic year and the fall months of 2011-2012. SOL test data were obtained and analyzed from the 2010-2011 academic year and is reported in the aggregate as opposed to individual schools.

Summary

Individual feelings and beliefs in the aggregate may explain variance in terms of how employees behave and act within an organization. Worker perceptions of justice are accepted as an important contextual variable in understanding the interactions between leaders and followers. In fact, organizational justice has been linked to organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness. Literature on the topic is primarily limited to non-educational fields such as business and/or private industry. It is critical for school leaders to have an understanding of the school-based variables that promote school effectiveness. Research on school effectiveness demonstrates that school leaders can and should work to shape the academic culture and climate of their respective schools with the aim being to promote student achievement. Among other things, the emerging field of study in schools, organizational justice, has the potential to influence school-based outcomes. If teachers perceive that the principal and decision-making structures are fair, they may be more apt to cope with change, take risks, and perform tasks beyond minimal expectations. Subsequently, it is important that school leaders understand the implications of developing justice climates within their respective schools.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Chapter 2 specifically examines organizational justice theory and literature that explores the relationships between organizational justice and contextual factors deemed as correlates of organizational effectiveness. This study affords a special degree of consideration to examining the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior. Greenberg's (1996) work forms the backdrop of the inquiry into organizational justice. Distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice are defined within the context of the private sector and discussed in terms of relationships to organizational climate, job satisfaction, employee dissent, organizational citizenship behavior, organizational commitment, and trust. The literature review begins with an overview of the methodology used in obtaining and selecting research to include in the study and concludes with an exploration of the literature on organizational justice in schools.

Literature Review Methodology

Identification and selection of primary academic resources is a critical task in crafting a literature review. First and foremost, as an initial part of the search for literature related to the constructs of organizational justice, organizational citizenship behavior, and trust, experts on the topic were consulted about published and unpublished text. Following the consultations, a key word search of indexed academic journals contained in the William & Mary Earl Gregg Swem Library's electronic journal list and on-line catalogue was carried out. Additionally, relevant academic articles for inclusion in the literature review were obtained from scholarly databases such as Education

Resources Information Center (ERIC) and the American Psychological Association and research engines such as Google Scholar.

Thirdly, a comprehensive review of dissertation studies related to the topics of organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior. The dissertations served as valuable tools for broadening thoughts, exploring avenues for future research on the topic, and reflecting on efforts necessary to complete a quality doctoral dissertation.

Finally, bibliographies from dissertations, academic articles, and other relevant sources were used to identify and select additional noteworthy and current literature on the topic. Upon reviewing the abstracts from the selected sources, studies were then categorized based on research questions, study location/subjects, methodology, results, and conclusions. Academic rigor, methodological precision, and applicability to public education served as the primary criteria for inclusion in the literature review.

Organizational Justice Theory

The study of organizational justice has progressed significantly since the work of Greenberg (1996). Building on Adam's (1965) *Equality Theory*, Greenberg sought to explain the antecedents and implications of justice in affecting organizational exchanges and outcomes. Greenberg defines organizational justice as worker perceptions of fairness in the workplace. Research on organizational justice tends to focus on how employees socially construct meaning from situations related to fairness (Cropanzano & Greenberg; Greenberg, 1996; Chory & Kingsley-Westerman, 2009; Titrek, 2010). In fact, organizational justice is a construct used by social and educational researchers to determine whether or not employees perceive organizational leaders as fair, respectful and equitable manner with respect to treatment of employees (Greenberg, 1990).

Individual workers who perceive incongruence between their inputs and outputs received for their efforts are likely to hold an unfavorable view of fairness. Inputs may include the degree of diligence, skill level, and motivation that a worker puts forth. Outputs, on the other hand, are what a worker receives in exchange for performance (e.g., salary, benefits, recognition, etc.).

Because leaders are responsible for enacting fair procedures and delineating rewards/consequences related to worker inputs, a major objective of the organizational justice research has been to examine effective leadership characteristics in promoting climates of fairness. Subsequent to this reality, research on the justice construct tends to lean heavily toward worker perceptions of how leaders apply procedures, distribute resources/outcomes, and treat workers. In fact, research has recognized the need to consider organizational justice, specifically in terms of three subsets related to relationships between leaders and employees, distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice. Colquitt and Shaw (2005) surveyed the literature related to the methods and scales employed by researchers in examining the justice subsets. They contend that any inquiry into fairness in the workplace should first consider the justice type, the source of justice, and the context of justice. The ensuing analysis provides a breakdown of the literature related to these factors, while asserting the accuracy of Colquitt and Shaw's claims. Appendix C provides a copy of Colquitt's Justice Measure.

Distributive justice

Distributive justice refers to perceptions of fairness related to the specific consequences or outcomes derived from the decision-making process (Greenberg, 1996). If an outcome is commensurate with a worker's individual input, then equity may be

perceived. As reported in Greenberg (1996), Adams (1965) first explored distributive justice in the context of distributive outcomes awarded in transactional situations. Transactions involve the distribution of outcomes and/or the exchange of one thing for another. Examples of distributive outcomes are increased pay, promotion, and performance feedback. Negative performance feedback has been shown to influence all three types of justice perceptions, distributive, procedural, and interactional (Chory & Kingsley-Westerman, 2009). In assessing the transactions that take place in an organization, workers are likely to compare and contrast a distributive outcome received to that of a colleague (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997; Chory & Kingsley-Westerman, 2009). When workers perceive distributive injustices they are more likely to behave in an undesirable manner (Chory & Kingsley-Westerman, 2009). Undesirable behaviors resulting from perceived injustices may include workplace deviance (Henle, 2005) and employee dissent (Kassing & McDowell, 2008).

Procedural justice

It is imperative that subordinates perceive procedures as fair and/or free of prejudice. Workplace policies and procedures provide leaders and followers with a framework for achieving goals and objectives related to mission. Perceptions of fairness associated with formal procedures used in decision-making may be referred to as procedural justice (Greenberg, 1996). A lack of fairness in decision-making procedures may inhibit progress and deprive organizations of opportunities to successfully initiate, implement, and institutionalize strategic planning initiatives. In fact, studies on equity theory (Adams, 1965; Chegini, 2009; Greenberg, 1996; Moorman, 1991) have shown

worker performance to increase or decrease in relation to perceptions of procedural justice.

Participation in decision-making processes is critical to shaping perceptions of procedural justice. Studies on voice or process control support a positive correlation with organizational justice (Bies, 1987; Bies & Shapiro, 1988; Earley and Lind, 1987; Robertson & Koorsguard, 1995). Voice control refers to the degree of input and/or impact in the decision-making process that leaders bestow on workers. Worker involvement in decision-making processes may help develop follower trust in the leadership, while also fostering a culture and climate of mutual respect and professionalism. When followers are respected and treated as professionals and/or equals they feel free to communicate ideas and pursue new knowledge and ways of enhancing the efficiency and quality of the organization.

To lead in a culture of change and create a culture of change, Fullan (2001) maintains that leaders have to be effective in building relationships. In fact, he argues that “you can’t get anywhere without relationships” (Fullan, 2001, p. 51). Relationships are critical to change efforts. In order for organizational participants to accept change they have to trust the leadership. Hubbell and Chory-Assad (2005) assert that procedural justice is the strongest predictor of trust. Leaders may build trusting relationships by empowering followers through collaborative decision-making. Collaboration between leaders and followers with respect to decision-making processes may serve to instill an organizational community with a spirit of professionalism and respect by making change a bottom-up and collective experience as opposed to a top-down and autocratic experience.

Interactional justice

Workers distinguish the fairness of procedures from the fairness of supervisor communication and treatment (Bies, 2001). Interactional justice refers to perceptions of fairness regarding how organizational leaders communicate decisions to followers and the interpersonal treatment workers receive when decisions are carried out (Greenberg, 1996). Research suggests that the interaction of personality variables and perceptions of justice predicts citizenship behavior and workplace deviance (Henle, 2005). Because leaders are responsible for enacting fair procedures and communicating distributive outcomes, Greenberg (1993) put forth the notion of subdividing interactional justice into two distinct subsets, informational justice and interpersonal justice. He asserted that informational justice refers to the manner in which leaders explain procedures. Interpersonal justice refers to the degree of regard a leader exudes toward followers in communicating the distribution of outcomes.

In terms of school decision-making structures, the principal is the single most important player for communicating school-based decisions. Therefore, evaluating how school principals manage and shape subordinate attitudes and behaviors related to justice through interactions is a worthy endeavor for the field of leadership. To make good things happen in a school organization, school leaders must strive to foster an environment that is conditioned by understanding and permits knowledge exchange and creation (Fullan, 2001). Through knowledge exchange effective school leaders with an understanding of interactional justice may take proactive steps to communicate the link between professional development activities and improving instruction. Research demonstrates that meaningful and relevant professional development is likely to improve

the quality of classroom instruction and, in turn, student achievement (DuFour & Eaker, 1998). It is to no advantage for classrooms teachers to have little to no understanding of the relationship between professional development initiatives and improving the quality of classroom instruction. Knowledge exchange plays a key role in influencing teacher understanding. A key component of knowledge exchange is conversation.

Conversations that are open and honest with teachers are the best means for inspiring commitment to processes and outlining expectations. Openness and honesty are factors of trust and critical to fostering effective supervisor-follower relationships (Tschannen-Moran, 2004). When applied to schools trust has been significantly and positively connected to justice (Hoy and Tarter, 2004). This finding certainly suggests that interactions in terms of conversations between school leaders and teachers are critical to forming opinions of fairness.

Organizational Justice: Relationships to Contextual Factors Linked to Organizational Effectiveness

Organizational justice is linked to contextual factors deemed as correlates of organizational effectiveness. Organizational citizenship behavior, organizational climate, job satisfaction, employee dissent, organizational citizenship behavior, organizational climate, and trust are important factors contributing to the success of organizations. Organizational justice has been found to be an important correlate of these contextual factors influencing organizational outcomes. Table 1 summarizes several frequently cited and/or recent national and international studies that examine relationships organizational justice and contextual factors deemed as essential to achieving organizational goals and objectives. Refer also to Appendix E.

Table 1

Summary of Organizational Justice Studies

<p>Aydin and Karaman-Kepenekci, (2008)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Qualitative design; • Turkish elementary school principals. • Focus group interviews and conceptual analysis (coding); • Interview questions focused on all subsets of justice. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perceived injustices (distributive and interactional) diminishes teacher commitment and OCB and increases teacher dissent and frequency of negative norms. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Group think in technical sense; • Anonymity issues; • No teacher data.
<p>Chen et al, (2010)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative design; • full-time Chinese workers; • Research instrument: Chen et al. (2010) supervisor-related time control survey, and adaptations multiple instruments including Colquitt's (2001) justice scale. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perceived distributive justice moderated the relationships between perceived time control and job satisfaction and organizational commitment; • Relationship stronger when distributive justice was high. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cross-sectional design (causal relationships were inferred); • Common method variance; • Single-item scales were used instead of multiple scale items.
<p>Chory and Hubbell, (2008)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative design; • Working adults from a variety of organizations; • Research instruments: Managerial Trustworthy Behaviors scale (MTB; Hubbell & Chory-Assad, 2005), OJ measure developed by researchers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Trust and justice are inextricably linked (supports work of Hoy and Tarter (2004)); • Justice and trust interacted to predict antisocial behaviors; • Trust mediated the relationships between justice and antisocial responses. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participants came from multiple organizations, limiting a more in-depth exploration of the specific processes at work; • Focused on one context, the performance appraisal, which was an infrequent event.
<p>Chory and Westerman, (2009)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative design; • Working adults from a variety of organizations; • Research tools: Geddes and Linnehan's (1996) negative feedback measure of Chory and Westerman's (2009) measure of OJ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Negative feedback from managers predicts all three types of organizational justice. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • First test of negative feedback dimensions of scale developed for study.
<p>Colquitt, (2001)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative design; • University students and automobile workers; • Confirmatory Factor analysis; • Research tool: Developed Colquitt's (2001) organizational justice scale. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reviewed literature for dimensionality of justice; • Found support for 4-factor scale for measuring justice (distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Further research to confirm construct validity; • Effect size inflation due to same source bias; • Disparity in how students and automobile workers interpret questions.
<p>Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, (2001)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Meta-analysis of 183 justice studies (international and national studies). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Justice subsets are distinct and unique in terms of consequences; • Operationalization of terms 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inflation of self-report measures due to same source bias;

		<p>(distributive, procedural, interactional, and informational) may account for variance in studies;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Measuring for multiple subsets will help explain variance. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Meta-analysis requires judgment in terms of what to include and what not to include (this affects results)
Ehrhart, (2004)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quantitative design; Attempted to sample 3,914 grocery store employees (managers and workers); Research tools: Ehrhart (2004) servant leadership survey, Podsakoff et al (1990) OCB measure, and Colquitt's (2001) measure of justice. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> There is an association between servant leadership and procedural justice and unit-level OCB. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Low response rate; Limited generalizability of results (confined to grocery stores in one chain); Cross-sectional design (could not determine causality of relationships).
Farh, Earley & Lin, (1997)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quantitative design; 109 Chinese students enrolled in MBA program; 330 employees (workers and managers) employed in electronics industry; Research tools: Chinese OCB Scale, distributive justice measure adapted from Balkin and Gomez-Mejia (1990), procedural justice measure consistent with Moorman (1991), etc... 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Demographic variables matter; Results demonstrate that OJ (distributive and procedural) is most strongly related to citizenship behavior for individuals who endorse less traditional, or high modernity, values; Relationship between justice and citizenship behavior is stronger for men than for women. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Translation of research instruments from English to Chinese Results are limited to Chinese society.
Goodboy et al., (2008)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quantitative design; Full-time employees working in a variety of organizational settings; Research tools: Kassing's (1998) Organizational Dissent Scale and Colquitt's (2001) Measure of Organizational Justice. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Interactional/interpersonal justice is the strongest predictor of latent dissent 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Made generalizations about overall dissent when only pay and communication were assessed in terms of OJ and dissent was assessed in terms of multiple organizational issues (e.g., change, inefficiency, policies, decisions, etc.)
DiPaola & Guy (2009)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quantitative design; 30 Virginia public high schools (rural, suburban, urban); 988 teachers completed surveys; Schools ranged in size from 539 to 2098; Research tools: Omnibus T-scale, SCI, and OJ. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Correlation between OJ and school climate; Four factors of school climate (i.e., collegial leadership, teacher professionalism, academic press, and community climate) are positively influenced by organizational justice, with collegial leadership demonstrating the strongest relationship. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Convenience sample; Not randomly selected from a defined population, the external validity was affected and generalizability issues; Causal relationships cannot be

			<p>determined as correlational design;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Did not control for other variables impacting perceptions of OJ.
Henle, (2005)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative design; • Employed undergraduate business and psychology students and known associates; • Research Tools: Organizational justice measure of Colquitt (2001), etc. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personality traits mediate the relationship between organizational justice and workplace deviant behaviors; • Socialization: Low socialization and low perceptions of interactional justice increases frequency of deviant behaviors; High impulsivity and low interactional justice increases frequency of deviant behavior; • Distributive and procedural justice did not interact with either personality traits in predicting of deviant behaviors. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participants were likely discreet in degree to which they exhibit deviance (conservative results); • Correlational design (cannot determine causal relationships); • Results may not be generalized to older full-time workers.
Hoy and Tarter, (2004)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative design; • 75 middle schools in Ohio (rural, suburban, and urban schools); • Research tools: Development of OJI based on 10 principles. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Surveyed literature base and found evidence for 10 principles on organizational justice; • Trust and justice are linked. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Very few studies examine justice in schools. • Need for further study to confirm construct validity.
Moorman, (1991)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative design; • Employees from two medium-sized companies in the midwestern US; • Research instruments: Distributive Justice Index of Price and Mueller (1986), procedural justice measure based on Greenberg (1990) and Tyler and Bies (1990), interactional justice measure based on Bies et al (1987), etc. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perceptions of procedural justice influences OCB; • Perceptions of distributive justice failed to influence OCB. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Chemical industry (limited generalizability); • Cross-sectional design (causal relationships were inferred)
Moorman, Blakely & Niehoff, (1998)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative design; • Civilian subordinates at a military hospital and their supervisors; • Research tools: Moorman and Blakely's (1995) OCB scale, Niehoff and Moorman's (1993) procedural justice scale, and Eisenberger et al's. (1986) organizational support scale. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Procedural justice mediates the relationship between perceived support and OCB. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Unique population (military hospital) = limited generalizability; • Common method bias (obtained the OCB ratings from the supervisors, but OJ measures from subordinates; • Cross-sectional data (could not determine causality).
Organ and Moorman, (1993)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Literature review of empirical findings (e.g., 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • OJ is a greater influence over organizational citizenship 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Individuals respond to fairness

	Adams 1965; Greenberg, 1990; Leventhal, 1980; Moorman, 1991; Niehoff and Moorman, 1991, etc.).	<p>behavior than job satisfaction.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Procedural and interactional justice are more likely to predict OCB than distributive justice; • Variance in perceptions of distributive justice and the capacity for procedural justice to mitigate unfair outcomes may explain this discrepancy. 	<p>in a holistic sense rather than in pieces;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Need for a general notion of fairness.
Shapira-Lishchinsky (2007); Shapira-Lishchinsky (2009)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative design; • Israeli teachers • Research tools: Adaptations of English Language survey instruments (Ex: Justice Scale of Moorman (1991)). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender matters; • Procedural injustice decreases female commitment; • Distributive justice increases female commitment. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adaptations of English Language measures; • Limited to Israeli context; • Same source bias.
Titrek, (2010)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative design; • Turkish Teachers • Research tools: Adaptations of Donovan et al, (1998) by Wasti (2001). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demographic and cultural variables matter. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adaptation of English Language measures; • Makes generalizations regarding OJ without exploring procedural and distributive justice (examined only interpersonal fairness of interactional justice); • Limited to Turkish context.

The following portion of this analysis highlights a number of studies that examine the relationship between organizational justice and the above-enumerated contextual factors in achieving organizational goals and objectives beginning with organizational citizenship behavior and ending with trust. The literature base is highly quantitative in nature, relying heavily on survey instruments and descriptive and inferential statistics as a means to obtain data and derive theoretical assumptions with respect to relationships between examined constructs.

Organizational Justice and Organizational Climate

Organizational climate is an important consideration in understanding organizational effectiveness and perceptions of justice. Organizational climate is related to the environmental characteristics of an organization and how members of an organization experience and perceive events occurring within the organization. Hoy (1990) and Hoy and Miskel (2008) surveyed the early works on organizational climate (e.g., Gilmer, 1966; Litwin & Stringer, 1968; Taguiri, 1968) and its application and implications for school environments. As reported in Hoy (1990), Gilmer defines organizational climate as “those characteristics that distinguish the organization from other organizations and that influence the behavior of people in the organization” (p. 151). Hoy and Miskel (2008) define school climate as a “set of internal characteristics that distinguish one school from another and influence the behavior of each school’s members” (p. 189). It is the collective perceptions of workers whether teachers or corporate employees that forms the basis for knowing and/or measuring a given organizational climate

Perceptions of justice have been shown to positively influence organizational climate. Much attention has been given to the effects of leadership personality on organizational climate in general. Very little focus, however, has been given to the effects of leadership personality in shaping justice climates with respect to procedural, distributive, and interactional justice. A fairly recent study by Mayer, Nishii, Schneider, and Goldstein (2007) asserts a weak but statistically significant relationship between leadership personality and the development of justice climates. The leadership qualities and/or subscales of agreeableness, e.g., respect for others, candidness, trustworthiness, etc., correlated with interactional justice, whereas conscientiousness related specifically

to perceptions of procedural justice. Agreeable and conscientious leaders foster work environments regarded by workers as fair and just (Mayer, Nishii, Schneider, and Goldstein, 2007). These findings seem to coincide with a host of educational studies that articulate a direct and positive correlation between school leadership behavior and school climate (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran; Hoy & Miskel, 2008; Hoy & Sabo, 1998), suggesting that organizational justice may have implications for understanding leader-follower relationships in schools and student achievement.

DiPaola and Guy (2009), building on the work of Hoy and Tarter (2004), assert that organizational justice has implications for school climate. DiPaola and Guy found a robust and positive correlation between organizational justice and school climate. Additionally, DiPaola and Guy's study postulates that each of the four factors of school climate (i.e., collegial leadership, teacher professionalism, academic press, and institutional vulnerability) identified by Hoy et al. (1998) are positively influenced by organizational justice, with collegial leadership demonstrating the strongest relationship. Collegial leadership is typically grounded in a genuine concern for the professional interests and socio-emotional well-being of school faculty and is thought to be the most valued form of leadership in terms of achieving school related goals and objectives (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Hoy & Tarter, 2004).

Organizational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

Among other variables, this study explores the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) in the high school setting and its relationship to student achievement. Moorman (1991) and Colquitt and colleagues (2001) asserted that perceptions of fairness play a significant role in

promoting organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB). Interest in organizational citizenship behavior from the perspective of the field of education stems from a growing research base that has demonstrated through empirical factor analysis that citizenship behaviors have positive implications for school organizations, specifically in terms of teacher productivity and student achievement (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005a; DiPaola & Hoy, 2005b; DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Jurewicz, 2004; Tschannen-Moran, 2003). Organizational citizenship behavior research emerged in the 1980s as a means of understanding the antecedents and implications of “extra role” performance in promoting organizational effectiveness in the corporate sector (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ, 1988). Refer to Table 2 and Appendix D for a summary of empirical studies on organizational citizenship behavior (OCB).

Table 2

Summary of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) Studies

Chen & Chiu (2009)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative design; • 323 employees and supervisors from 7 companies in Taiwan; • Convenience sampling; • Research Instruments: Hackman and Oldham’s (1975) job characteristic scale, Lodahl and Kejner’s (1965) job involvement scale and Coleman and Borman’s (2002) OCB measure. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Job characteristics (task identity, task significance, and autonomy) positively influence worker OCB. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reliability coefficients for job characteristics were low (Cronbach alpha = .56-.68); • Common method variance; • Instrumentation: Translation of research instruments from English to Chinese.
Chen, Hui, & Segó (1998)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative design; • 205 supervisor-subordinate dyads from 11 companies in China; • Research Instruments: Adaptation of Camman, Fichman, Jenkins & Klesh (1979) turnover instrument, adaptations of Organ and Near (1983) OCB scale, adaptation of 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supervisor rated OCB is a predictor of subordinate turnover; • Low levels of OCB predicts worker turnover. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Instrumentation: Research instruments translated from English to Chinese; • Limited generalizability; • Common method variance.

	<p>Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ; eg. Scarpello and Campbell, 1983), and organizational commitment measure of Porter, et al (1974), etc.</p>		
<p>Cropanzano, Rupp, & Byrne, (2003)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quantitative design; Study 1: 204 hospital employees in western United States; Study 2: 232 supervisor-subordinate dyads from various organizations in Colorado; Research Instruments: Maslach and Jackson's (1991) emotional exhaustion inventory, Williams and Anderson's (1991) OCBO, Allen and Meyer's (1990) affective commitment scale, Konovsky and Cropanzano's (1991) turnover scale, and OCBS of Malatesta (1995). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Emotional exhaustion is a predictor of OCB. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Study infers causality from cross-sectional data; Common method variance.
<p>DiPaola, Tarter & Hoy, (2004)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quantitative design; Study I consisted of 75 middle schools in Ohio; Study II consisted of 109 elementary schools from a southwestern state; Research Instruments: OCB scale and SCI. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Confirmed reliability and validity of OCB scale (revised from OCBSS); OCB positively and significantly related to all facets of school climate (i.e., collegial leadership, teacher professionalism, academic press, school mindfulness, and perceived organizational effectiveness); OCB and school climate relationship is reciprocal. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> First test of OCB scale; Did not control for other variables influencing OCB.
<p>DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, (2001)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quantitative design; Study I consisted of 42 public elementary, middle and high schools in Ohio and Virginia; Study II consisted of 97 high schools in Ohio; Research Instruments: OCBSS developed for study and OHI of Hoy, et al (1998). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Confirmed reliability and validity of OCBSS; Significant relationship between OCB and school climate; OCB is a one-dimensional construct when applied to schools; Study I: All four facets of school climate correlate with OCB; Study II: No significant relationship between OCB and community pressure. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> First test of OCBSS; Did not control for other variables influencing OCB;
<p>Farh, Zhong, &</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pseudo-mixed methods 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identified 10 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Limited

Organ, (2004)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> design; 72 state-owned and private enterprises in Japan and diverse sample of 158 employees and managers; Inductive approach to gather descriptions of behaviors in the workplace; Behaviors were in turn coded and classified using multiple judges. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> dimensions of OCB in Chinese society; Found OCB construct differs between Eastern and Western culture; Social and cultural variables influence perceptions of OCB. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> generalizability of results; Study failed to control for contextual shapers of OCB (e.g., industry, technology, strategic orientation of firm); Random sampling across jobs not used.
Jackson, (2009)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quantitative design; 1,327 teachers from 35 elementary schools in a single urban school district; Research Instruments: OCB-Scale of DiPaola, Tarter, & Hoy (2005), Collective Teacher Belief Scale of Tschannen-Moran and Barr (2004), and SOL data extracted from school district. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teacher efficacy is positively correlated to OCB; OCB is a predictor of student achievement. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Limited generalizability of results; History: Data collected at a singular point in time; Study infers causal relationships.
Jurewicz, (2004)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quantitative design; 1,096 middle school teachers from 82 schools diverse in size, socioeconomic status, and racial in composition; Research Instruments: OCB School Scale (OCBS) and the School Climate Index (SCI). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Found a significant relationship between OCB and student achievement in math and English; Found a significant relationship between OCB and the four facets of school climate. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Convenience sampling; Limited generalizability; History: Data collected at a singular point in time.
Moorman and Blakely, (1995)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quantitative design; 210 service employees from financial institutions located in the southeastern part of the United States; Research Instruments: OCB scale developed for study and IC measure of Wagner and Moch (1986). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> IC is a predictor of OCB; Individuals with collectivist tendencies are more likely to exhibit OCB; Individuals with individualist tendencies are less likely to exhibit OCB. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Limited generalizability; History: Data collected at a singular point in time; Causal inferences using cross-sectional design; Sample was 80% female.
Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ, (1993)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quantitative design; 420 cable television company employees (managers included); Research instruments: Job Descriptive Instrument (JDI; Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969), affective/continuance commitment measured using scale of Meyer and Allen (1984), procedural justice scale of Moorman 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Procedural justice is a correlate of OCB; The relationship between job satisfaction and OCB is insignificant when relationship between justice and OCB are controlled; The relationship between commitment and OCB is insignificant when 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Same source bias; Infers directions of causality when data collected cross-sectionally; Study fails to account for distributive justice and interactional justice.

	(1991), and OCB scale of Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1989).	relationship between justice and OCB are controlled; <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The relationship between justice and civic virtue/altruism is insignificant. 	
Organ, (1997)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Review of empirical literature on OCB. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Finds that discretionary behavior, extra-role behavior, and behavior that goes beyond the job may actually be considered as part of the job by respondents; Disagreement regarding enforceable work behaviors; OCB is contextual and associated with non-tasks; OCB does not support the technical core; OCB supports the organizational climate/health of an organization. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> OCB is influenced by time and space.
Organ and Ryan, (1995)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Meta-analysis of 55 studies on OCB; Literature search of major academic journals; Coding/categorizing studies based on themes. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Worker attitudes predict OCB; Job satisfaction a stronger predictor of OCB than in-role performance; Fairness, commitment, and leader support correlate with OCB; Differences in setting and subject groups do not account for much variance. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Studies are correlational, making it possible that attitudes follow from OCB rather than vice versa; Studies used varied methods/instruments for obtaining data; Need for a common metric for assessing OCB.
Podsakoff, Ahearn, & Mackenzie, (1997)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quantitative design; 218 paper mill workers; Research Instruments: OCB measure based on works of Organ (1988, 1990), MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter (1991, 1993), Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994), and Podsakoff et al. (1990), quality measure (paper rejected by quality control and/or customers, and quantity measure (amount of paper produced for year). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Altruism and sportsmanship positively related to quantity of work performance; Altruism related to the quality of work performance; Civic virtue was not related to quantity and quality; OCBs predict quantity better than quality. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Infers causal relationships (data were cross-sectional); Study failed to account for variables that may mediate the role between OCBs and quality/quantity.
Smith, Organ, & Near (1983)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quantitative design; 58 bank departments and 422 respondents; Research Instruments: 16 item OCB measure 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Altruism and general compliance emerged as independent dimensions of OCB; Correlations found 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> First test of instrument; Common method variance.

	developed for study, Scott's (1967) job satisfaction measure, leadership supportiveness measure of House and Dessler (1974), task interdependence scale of Van de Ven, Delbecq, and Koenig (1976), etc...	between leadership supportiveness, job satisfaction, and OCB.	
Tschannen-Moran, (2003)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quantitative design; 3,066 teachers from 55 middle schools in mid-Atlantic state; Research Instruments: Nicholson's (2002) transformational leadership questionnaire, OCBSS of DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2001), and trust measure developed for study. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Trust is a correlate of OCB; Transformational leadership is not a correlate of OCB; Provided evidence for 5 facets of trust (i.e., benevolence, reliability, openness, competence, and honesty). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Did not control for other variables related to OCB; History: Statewide budget crisis at the time study was conducted; Questionnaires were administered separately to reduce common method variance.
Wagner, (2008)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quantitative design; 1,218 teachers from diverse sample of public high schools; Research Instruments: Collective efficacy instrument of Goddard (2002), Academic emphasis survey items from Goddard, Hoy, et al. (2002), faculty trust in students and parents survey items from Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003), and OCBS of DiPaola and Hoy (2005). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Academic optimism strongly correlates to OCB in schools. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Convenience sampling; Limited generalizability; History: Data collected a singular point in time. Common method variance.
Yilmaz & Cokluk-Bokeoglu, (2008)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quantitative design; 225 teachers from Turkish primary schools in Ankara; Research Instruments: Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale of Mowday, et al (1974) and Organizational Commitment Scale of Williams and Anderson (1991). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Moderate positive relationship between OCB and organizational commitment (affective and continuance type commitment). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Limited generalizability of results; Instrumentation: Research instruments converted from English to Turkish; Common method variance.

Organ (1988) defined organizational citizenship behavior as “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization” (p.4). Pulakos and his colleagues (1988) and Bolman and Deal (2003) maintained that

the discretionary behaviors of individual workers are critical to achieving the mission, goals, and objectives of any organization with a bureaucratic structure. Discretion requires the individual worker to be able to adapt to context and the social milieu of the working environment. Non-discretionary or “extra role” tasks are not required and may not result in either extrinsic rewards such as a promotion or higher pay or intrinsic rewards such as praise for a job well-done.

When controlling for job satisfaction, Moorman (1991) found a causal affiliation between worker perceptions of organizational justice and citizenship behavior. Additionally, he found perceptions of fairness to have more influence over extra role performance than job satisfaction. As reported by Moorman this finding is consistent with the earlier work of Organ (1990). However, Moorman’s study went further by exploring the relations between the specific justice subsets and non-mandatory task performance. He found interactional justice to be the most influential determinant of organizational citizenship behavior. The basic premise behind his work was that workers who perceive their supervisor as exuding fairness, will be more inclined to reciprocate fair treatment in the form of compliance with mandatory tasks and extra effort toward completing non-mandatory tasks that benefit other workers and the organization as a whole. It would appear that interactional justice has the greatest influence over worker behaviors whether positive or negative in nature. This finding compliments the work of Ambrose and colleagues (2002) regarding negative perceptions of interactional justice as a determinant for increasing the frequency of retaliatory behaviors in the workplace.

Organ and Moorman’s (1993) review of the empirical and theoretical literature on fairness in the workplace (e.g., Adams, 1965; Greenberg, 1990; Leventhal, 1980; Niehoff

& Moorman, 1991) provided support for the notion that all types of justice are empirically and conceptually significant in understanding the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior. The degree to which justice types influence organizational citizenship behaviors may vary depending on the contextual factors associated with the organization under study. However, Organ and Moorman contend there is a general tendency for interactional justice and procedural justice to overshadow the influences of distributive justice. This premise held true in a later work by Chegini (2009) that examined the influence of justice types on organizational citizenship behavior amongst Iranian government employees.

There are many plausible explanations for the weak link between distributive justice and citizenship behavior. One such explanation is the abstract nature and complexity of distributive justice. Distributive justice, unlike its counterparts, procedural and interactional justice, is known only to the individual worker through sharing and comparing experiences with a referent. On the other hand, procedural and interactional justice experiences are not necessarily predicated on such tertiary actions. Additionally, the capacity for procedural and interactional justice types to mitigate distributive outcomes that are perceived as unfair may account for variance in promoting citizenship behavior.

Demographic factors have traditionally been treated as secondary influences on worker behaviors. The following studies suggest that demographic factors deserve to be recognized as significant factors that assign meaning to how workers interact within working environments. In their study of organizational citizenship behavior, Jones and Schaubroeck (2004) found that organizational justice mediate the relationship between

race and non-mandatory job performance. According to Jones and Schaubroek (2004), non-white perceptions of leadership and co-worker support were much lower than white perceptions. Alienation, mistrust, and disenfranchisement were highlighted as contributory factors. Subsequently, when non-whites perceive injustices in the workplace they are less likely to engage in extra-role behaviors than their white counterparts. Studies outside of the United States also provide support for the finding that demographic variables, e.g., gender, ethnicity, culture, and geography, influence the relationship between organizational citizenship and organizational justice (Farh, Earley & Lin, 1997; Yilmaz & Tisdan, 2009). Farh, Early & Lin (1997) explored the influence of gender in Chinese society on organizational justice and citizenship behavior. They assert that the relationship between organizational justice and citizenship behavior is stronger for men than women.

Personality variables may also explain the relationship between organizational justice and workplace deviance. Deviant behavior is considered the polar opposite of citizenship behavior. Workplace deviance, as reported by Henle (2005) refers to “voluntary behaviors by employees that violate significant company norms, policies, or rules and threaten the well-being of the organization and/or members” (p. 247). Deviant behaviors include, but are not limited to, acts of theft, sabotage, lateness behavior, and minimal work effort. Henle specifically examined personality traits to gain a deeper understanding of the organizational justice construct and workplace deviance. Her sample consisted of 272 employed undergraduate business and psychology students. From the findings Henle asserted that the combined effects of low socialization and low perceptions of interactional justice contributed to increased frequency of deviant

behaviors. Additionally, she found high impulsivity and low perceptions of interactional justice to also increase the rate of deviant worker behavior.

Demographic variables and personality factors are relevant to understanding how justice perceptions relate to citizenship behavior and workplace deviance. Further inquiry applicable to schools may contribute to understanding how organizational justice mediates the relationship between personality factors and demographic variables (e.g., tenure, years of service, age, gender, and ethnicity) and workplace behaviors.

Organizational Justice and Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction has an important place in the study of organizational climate. Job satisfaction refers to a worker's feelings and/or attitude toward work. Job satisfaction can be influenced by a number of factors including, but not limited to leader-follower relationships, organizational climate, trust, and the quality of the facilities where task performance takes place. Research suggests that job satisfaction is predicated upon worker perceptions of organizational justice (Chen et al., 2010; Organ & Moorman, 1993; Schappe, 1998). Understanding the relationship between justice and job satisfaction may have implications for reducing turnover and absenteeism while also advancing organizational commitment.

Research suggests that justice types (i.e., procedural, distributive, and interpersonal) vary in degree of influence over job satisfaction. Using three separate measures for each of the justice types, Schappe (1998) maintains that distributive justice was the strongest predictor of job satisfaction. This finding seems to suggest that workers are sensitive to the fairness of outcomes when evaluating personal attitudes, such as job satisfaction. A recent study by Chen et al (2010) gives credence to Schappe's findings by supporting the

claim that distributive justice accentuates a positive relationship between perceived time control and job satisfaction. The sample population for this particular study was 505 full-time Chinese workers from a variety of organizations in Hong Kong. Adaptations of the job satisfaction measures Quinn and Staines (1979) and Scarpello and Campbell (1983) were used to obtain findings related to job satisfaction. Participants also completed an adapted version of Colquitt's (2001) justice instrument. The adapted version assessed worker perceptions of distributive justice using a singular item from Colquitt's (2001) scale, "my reward is justified, given my performance." Participants rated their response to this question using a 5-point scale that assessed the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the statement. The researchers measured time control using an 11-item 5-point scale developed specifically for the study. Factor analysis was used to test the reliability of the individual items of the instrument. The reliability coefficient for the entire scale was .88.

Time control refers to the degree of perceived supervisor coordination over worker patterns through managerial directives and/or requests. Research suggests that frequent supervisor interruptions related to time control leads to a reduction in job satisfaction (Paulsen et al, 2005). Coupled together, high levels of distributive justice and nominal interruptions on time control lead to elevated levels of job satisfaction (Chen et al, 2010). In the absence of high levels of distributive justice the positive effect of time control on job satisfaction is not as prevalent. In schools, time control may be associated with planning and scheduling which are important considerations for teaching staff in making judgments about fairness. Given this supposition it is quite reasonable to assume

that time control mediates the relationship between justice and teacher satisfaction in schools. Further research is necessary to confirm this relationship.

Research on the relationship between organizational justice and job satisfaction are mixed. An empirical study by Clay-Warner et al (2005) found distributive justice by itself to be less of a predictor of job satisfaction than procedural justice. This study included a sample of 2,505 randomly selected full-time works divided into two primary subgroups, those considered as victims of corporate downsizing and those considered as survivors of corporate downsizing. Bivariate and multivariate analysis was used to disaggregate data from three researcher-developed scales:

1. A 4-item scale for job satisfaction;
- 2). An 8-item scale for procedural justice, and;
- 3). A 3-item scale for distributive justice.

For the distributive justice scale participants were asked to respond to the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the following statements:

“The amount of pay employees receive is distributed fairly.”

“Employees receive an amount of fringe benefits that are fair.”

“The overall rewards workers receive where you work are fairly distributed.”

Factor analysis confirmed a reliability coefficient of .72 for the distributive justice scale.

The reliability coefficient for the procedural justice scale was .85. Specific items on the procedural justice scale included, but were not limited to, the following statements:

“When decisions are being made, all of the people who will be affected are asked for their ideas.”

“Managers make sure that all employee’s concerns are heard before decisions are

made.”

“Decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees.”

“Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions that are made by managers.”

The variance in findings across studies seems to suggest that the respective contextual and situational factors of a given organization and/or sample population plays a dynamic role in determining the degree of influence that particular subsets of justice have on the attitudes and behaviors of workers. As such, generalizations of findings to a larger and/or target population may be subject to much scrutiny.

Organizational Justice and Employee Dissent

Employee dissent is part of the natural order of things in any working environment. The degree to which employees communicate dissent and whom they communicate it to has implications for justice climates. Organizational dissent may be defined as disagreement related to organizational decision-making (Goodboy, Chory, & Dunleavy, 2008; Kassing, 1997). Acts of organizational dissent may be divided into three types: articulated, latent, and displaced. Articulated dissent refers to the degree of disagreement expressed directly to a supervisor. Latent dissent involves expressions of disagreement directed at lateral audiences such as co-workers. Displaced dissent involves expressions of disagreement to external audiences such as family members, friends, and individuals who are unaffiliated with the organization.

As reported in Goodboy et al (2008) expressions of dissent are positively linked to the quality of leader-follower relationships and the degree to which employees are able to express themselves in the workplace. Kassing’s (1997) Organizational Dissent Scale

(ODS) and Colquitt's (2001) measure of organizational justice were employed by the researchers to collect data related to the two constructs. Goodboy and his colleagues noted that acts of latent dissent were negatively influenced by worker perceptions of distributive and interactional justice. Perceptions of interactional justice were noted as the strongest predictor of latent dissent. Using quantitative measures, Kassing and McDowell (2008) explored the relationship between the three dimensions of organizational justice and found dissent to be precipitated by perceptions of procedural justice and interactional justice. Fairness related to outcomes-based or distributive justice was found to have no statistically significant relationship to acts of dissent (Kassing & McDowell, 2008). These findings seem to underscore the importance leader-follower relationships in shaping perceptions of fairness and justice in the workplace.

Existing literature suggests that the combination of organizational justice and employee dissent has implications for citizenship behavior. Individuals who perceive injustices in the workplace may harbor negative feelings and may be more likely to refrain from engaging in citizenship behaviors (Kassing & McDowell, 2008; Tschannen-Moran, 2003; Watson & Clark, 1992). Moreover, organizational justice is thought to moderate the relationship between employee dissent and retaliatory behaviors such as employee resistance and withdrawal. This supposition is supported by the work of Skarlicki and Folger (1997). They assert that perceptions of justice types interacted to explain variance in peer ratings of retaliatory behaviors. A later study by Ambrose and colleagues (2002) suggests that interactional justice by itself was more likely than other forms of justice to prompt retaliatory behaviors. As discussed later in this paper, the above-enumerated findings appear to hold true for school environments.

Organizational Justice and Organizational Commitment

Organizational justice has implications for organizational commitment.

Organizational commitment may be defined as an employee's degree of participation and identification within a given organization (Potter, et al 1974; Yilmaz & Cokluk-Bokeoglu, 2008). As it relates to educational research, Hoy et al. (1991) defined commitment as the "wholehearted support of organizational ventures and values" (p. 122). Employees with high levels of commitment are thought to influence organizational performance in positive ways. Commitment has been shown to positively relate to school climate (Hoy et al, 1991) and other contextual variables such as organizational citizenship behavior (Yilmaz & Cokluk-Bokeoglu, 2008).

Commitment is predicated on the social exchanges that take place in an organization. Positive exchanges serve to strengthen follower affiliation with their respective organization. Subsequent to this given understanding, perceptions of fairness have implications for organizational commitment. Liao and Rupp (2005) examined the impact of justice perceptions on a myriad of worker related outcomes, specifically satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and commitment. Their findings suggest that worker perceptions of organizational justice are a more proximate predictor of commitment than such variables as citizenship behavior and job satisfaction. Chen et al (2010), however, found justice to impact satisfaction and commitment equally, asserting that supervisor-related time control positively influenced job satisfaction and worker commitment. A study by Mayer et al (2007) provided additional support for the relationship between justice and commitment. Justice climates were found to moderate the relationship between individual-level justice perceptions and worker commitment.

Organizational Justice and Organizational Trust

Trust is an important factor in developing cooperation in organizations, while contributing to the effectiveness and efficiency of organizations. Research suggests that perceptions of justice are positively related to managerial and organizational trust (Colquitt, 2001). More recent studies have also discovered that specific types of justice relate positively to managerial and organizational trust (Chory & Hubbell, 2008; Hubbell & Chory-Assad, 2005). Organizational trust refers to trusting relationships between followers. Rotter (1967) defines organizational trust as “an expectancy held by an individual or group that the word, promise, verbal or written statement of another individual or group can be relied upon” (p. 651). Managerial trust, on the other hand, refers to trusting relations between supervisors and subordinates. In a sample of 181 full-time working adults from a variety of organizations, Hubbell and Chory-Assad (2005) found perceptions of procedural justice to be the strongest predictor of managerial and organizational trust. Distributive justice by itself was found to only predict managerial trust.

When applied to schools justice appears to be singular construct as opposed to a three dimensional construct with respect to procedural, distributive, and interactional justice (Hoy & Tarter, 2004). Regardless of subsets explored, Guy (2007) boldly asserts that all forms of justice are viable when accounting for trust. In reviewing the literature, she concludes that voice in terms of teacher performance evaluations plays a significant role in mediating the relationship between trust and justice. Recall voice deals with the degree of input an employee has in the decision-making process. When teachers perceive

that that they have input and impact in evaluative processes, they are more inclined to have favorable opinions of managerial justice.

In general, trust refers to allowing oneself to be vulnerable to another (Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt & Camerer, 1998; Tschannen-Moran, 2004). Tschannen-Moran (2004a) postulated that trust is the glue and lubricant that binds organizational participants together and facilitates communication and confidence between colleagues. She argued that trust within schools is vital to foster organizational benevolence, openness, and honesty. Workers emotionally attach to the organization because they believe that the trusted parties will not harm them. This allows colleagues to openly disclose facts, alternatives, judgments, intentions, and feelings. A school or organization with high levels of benevolence, openness, and honesty tends to be innovative, unified, and resource efficient (Tschannen-Moran, 2004a). More importantly, trust has the capacity to foster conditions conducive for learning, while contributing to students' academic achievement (Tschannen-Moran, 2004a; Tschannen-Moran, 2004b). Faculty trust in student and parents was found by Tschannen-Moran (2004b) to be strongly related to student achievement in the areas of mathematics and English. However, and rather interestingly, Tschannen-Moran (2004b) found no link between faculty trust in the principal and student achievement. Though there was no empirical evidence to support the claim that faculty trust in the school leadership is directly related to student achievement, school leaders are responsible for promoting environments that foster trusting relationships (Tschannen-Moran, 2004b). Furthermore, in high trust environments there will likely be evidence of shared information and decision-making responsibilities. Creativity as well as a willingness to take risks is not only heightened,

but encouraged in high trust environments. Conversely, low trust environments function in a constricted manner as exhibited by increased fear and anxiety coupled with decreased volunteering. Low trust organizations demonstrate difficulty with employee retention. Not surprisingly, members of such organizations will be far less likely to engage in risk taking endeavors (Reina and Reina, 1999).

Perceptions of organizational justice may also predict antisocial behavior that diminishes trust in the workplace. Chory and Hubbell (2008) found perceptions of justice and trust coupled together to be powerful determinants of antisocial behavior (Chory and Hubbell, 2008). Indirect hostility, rumor-mongering, and acts of betrayal are common forms of antisocial behavior in the workplace. Chory and Hubbell (2008) also found perceptions of distributive justice, specifically inequity in performance feedback and/or appraisals, to be a predictor of deception. Additionally, they document a direct link between trust and hostility. These findings seem to be consistent with Henle's (2005) study of workplace deviance discussed earlier. Tschannen-Moran (2004) found that significant acts of betrayal in school settings by supervisors toward subordinates shattered organizational trust and created a milieu of distrust and suspicion. Betrayal may be defined as a voluntary breach of mutually understood expectations committed intentionally or unintentionally (Reina & Reina, 1999). In a betrayal situation, the betrayer must make a conscious decision to violate the trust expectation established with the trusting party. The betrayal results in a decline in benevolence, openness, and honesty.

Organizational Justice and Implications for Schools

In the preceding sections much consideration was devoted to the findings and consequences of justice climates in a broad array of organizational settings. The central concern of this study is whether teacher perceptions of justice are related to organizational citizenship behavior and student achievement. Organizational justice is a novel theme when applied to schools. Research suggests that the contextual factors highlighted in this paper, i.e., organizational climate, job satisfaction, dissent, organizational citizenship, organizational commitment, trust, and efficacy, have major implications for achieving the organizational aims of schools, specifically enhancing student achievement. As such, it is critical that educational leaders have a fundamental understanding of how perceptions of fairness influence the attitudes and behaviors of classroom teachers. How teachers perceive the world and respond to it may prompt either positive or negative consequences for a respective school organization. School leaders who understand the interplay between teacher perceptions, behaviors, and student achievement may be more likely to direct energies toward accomplishing common goals and objectives with respect to improving student achievement. Because of the potential to positively affect school function, in particular student achievement, it is critical that school leaders take steps to foster justice climates that may in turn result in helpful behaviors of classroom teachers. Table 2 contains a summarization of the methods and findings related to organizational justice in school settings. Refer also to Appendix G.

Table 3

Summary of Organizational Justice Research in the Area of Education

Aydin and Karaman-	• Qualitative design;	• Perceived injustices (distributive
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Kepenekci, (2008)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus group interviews and conceptual analysis (coding); • Interview questions focused on distributive, procedural, and interactional justice; • Sample: 11 Turkish public elementary school principals. 	and interactional) diminish teacher commitment and citizenship behavior, increases teacher dissent and frequency of negative norms (e.g., gossip).
Guy, (2007)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative correlational study; • Multiple regression analysis (impact of two independent variables on a dependent variable); • Sample: 30 Virginia public high schools (rural, suburban, urban); • Sample: 988 teachers completed surveys; • Sample: Schools ranged in size from 539 to 2098; • Research instruments (Omnibus T-scale, SCI, and OJ). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Robust/positive correlation between organizational justice and school climate; • Four factors of school climate (i.e., collegial leadership, teacher professionalism, academic press, and community climate) are positively influenced by organizational justice, with collegial leadership demonstrating the strongest relationship.
Hoy and Tarter, (2004)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative correlational study • Multiple regression analysis and path analysis; • Sample: 75 middle schools in Ohio (rural, suburban, and urban school districts); • Research instrument: Development of OJI based on 10 principles found in literature (factor analysis and alpha coefficient of reliability); • Other research instruments: Omnibus T-Scale (Hoy and Tschannen-Moran, 1999) and OCI (Hoy et al., 2002). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Surveyed literature base and found evidence for 10 principles on organizational justice; • Trust and justice are inextricably linked.
Poole, (2007)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Theoretical/Scholarly study 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Group dynamics influences perceptions of justice; • Groups associate leader with group values and norms; • Unfair treatment by a school principal may lead group to deem organization as unfair.
Shapira-Lishchinsky (2007)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative correlational study; • Multiple regression analysis; • Sample: 1,016 teachers from 35 high schools in Israel; • Research Instruments: Self-report scales on lateness/single item adapted from Blau (1994) and Neal and colleagues (1993), Justice Scale of Moorman (1991) and Commitment Scale of Meyer and Allen (1997) translated into Hebrew. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender matters; • Organizational commitment partially mediated the relation between perceived distributive justice and lateness for females; • No such effect was found for males.
Shapira-Lishchinsky (2009)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative correlational study; • Multiple regression analysis; • Sample: 1, 016 Israeli high school teachers, 68% female and 32% male; • Research Instruments: Justice Scale of Moorman (1991) and Commitment Scale of Meyer and Allen (1997) translated into Hebrew. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demographic variables matter; • There are differences in how males and females respond to justice types; • Organizational commitment fully mediates the relationship between female teacher intent to leave and distributive justice;

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High-levels of distributive justice increases commitment on part of female teachers • Low-levels of distributive justice decreases commitment on the part of male teachers.
Titrek, (2010)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative correlational study; • Multiple regression analysis; • Sample: 1,006 school teachers and managers at primary schools, high schools, and vocational schools by geographic and cultural regions; • Research instruments: Donovan et al (1998) Perceptions of Fair Interpersonal Treatment Scale adapted to Turkish by Wasti (2001). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demographic variables matter; • Culture and geography influence perceptions of justice in schools.

One of the few studies conducted in the United States on organizational justice in schools is that of Hoy and Tarter (2004). This study examines the relationship between trust, climate and organizational justice using the Organizational Justice Scale (OJS), Omnibus T-Scale (Hoy and Tschannen-Moran, 1999) and Organizational Climate Index (Hoy et al., 2002). Seventy-five middle schools representing rural, suburban, and urban districts in Ohio were the sample for the study. The OJS is a six point Likert-scale questionnaire measuring teacher perceptions of justice related variables, specifically equity, equality, voice, fairness, dignity, and consistency. A copy of the OJS is provided in Appendix A. Hoy and Tarter developed the instrument specifically for their study. The reliability of the OJS measure consistently falls in the .90 or higher range (Hoy & Tarter, 2004). The Organizational Climate Index (OCI) is a measurement tool for gauging the openness and effectiveness and health of a school organization. Based on data obtained from the administration of the OCI and the OJS, Hoy and Tarter (2004) determined that trust and justice are inextricably linked and highly dependent on the collegial leadership of the school principal. Collegial leadership is critical for fostering trusting relationships in schools (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999; Tschannen-Moran, 2005; Tschannen-Moran, 2003). Trust is essential to cultivating relationships between

leaders and followers and perceptions of fairness in the workplace. In short, Hoy and Tarter (2004) found that the school principal is the single-most important indicator of trust on organizational justice.

Tschannen-Moran (2004) claimed that trust improves the functionality and efficiency of school organizations. When followers trust the leaders and when the leader trust the followers, energy monitoring behavior and speculating on motivations does not have to be exhausted by the organizational participants (Tschannen-Moran, 2004). School principals and teachers can focus on working toward a shared vision by changing the way things are done: Not change for the sake of change, but positive changes that move the school toward the vision. More emphasis can be placed on meaningful professional development activities, aligning curriculum and instruction, researching and integrating new instructional strategies in the classroom, and a host of other activities that can impact student achievement in a positive manner. Leadership in any organization is about getting followers to accept change. Once followers stop focusing their energies on change avoidance, efforts can be directed toward constructive behavior and organizational goals.

DiPaola and Guy (2009) provide further evidence to Hoy and Tarter's findings. This study's sample consisted of 30 high schools representing rural, suburban, and urban districts across Virginia. Using the School Climate Index (SCI), DiPaola & Guy (2009) found a robust and positive correlation between organizational justice and all four facets of school climate. The SCI may be used to assess four different areas of school climate impacting student achievement, specifically collegial leadership, teacher professionalism, academic press, and community engagement.

- *Collegial leadership.* Collegial leadership refers to support behaviors of the school leaders, specifically the school principal (Hoy et al, 1998).
- *Teacher professionalism.* Regard and commitment to the teaching profession and student learning describes teacher professionalism.
- *Academic press.* Hoy et al (1998) describe academic press as the act of setting “a tone that is serious, orderly and focused on academics” (p. 438).
- *Community engagement.* Community pressure refers to the external factors, i.e. parents and community, that influence the policy-making function and day-to-day operations of a school and emphasizes “the need for schools to forge an active and productive working relationship with their communities” (Tschannen-Moran, Parish & DiPaola, 2006. P. 400).

The strongest relationship was found to exist between organizational justice and collegial leadership. This finding seems to coincide with Tschannen-Moran’s (2001, 2003, 2004) work linking collegial leadership to trust in schools. Recall trust and justice were linked by Hoy and Tarter (2004).

Educational researchers have produced the foundations of a powerful core of data concerning the significance of citizenship behavior in promoting school mission, values, objectives, and goals. In educational settings school effectiveness is typically evaluated in terms of student performance on achievement tests. Research by DiPaola and Hoy (2005) uncovered a strong correlation between organizational citizenship behavior and student achievement in high school settings. Further, DiPaola, Tarter, and Hoy (2005) Hoy found support for a link between organizational citizenship behavior and student achievement in elementary and middle schools (Hoy & DiPaola, 2005). Moreover,

studies suggest that organizational citizenship behavior in schools is predicated on contextual variables such as school climate and leadership (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005b; DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Tschannen-Moran, 2005).

DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2001) argue that definition and measurement of behavioral dimensions are critical to understanding citizenship behavior in schools. Researchers have explored multiple dimensions of citizenship behavior (Organ, 1990; Williams 1988). Organ (1990) asserts that organizational citizenship behavior is a five-dimensional construct (i.e., altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue). Williams (1988) argues that organizational citizenship behavior was a two-dimensional construct, benefits to the individual and benefits to the organization. Research outside of schools has the potential to confuse our understanding of the subject. Organizational citizenship behavior when applied to schools has been shown to be a one-dimensional construct: Benefits to the individual and organization (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001). More succinctly, in the professional context of school organizations, a benefit to the individual is a benefit to the organization and vice-versa; thus, making OCB a singular “bipolar construct” when associated with schools (DiPaola, Tarter & Hoy, 2005).

The relationship between organizational justice and OCB in school settings is rather limited. However, an emerging literature base on the relationship between OCB and organizational justice has begun to take shape outside of the United States. Much of the literature explores the role of demographic variables in influencing perceptions of fairness in schools. In a study involving 1,016 Turkish school employees, Titrek (2010) found socio-cultural variables to influence perceptions of organizational justice. This

study used a broad sample, including teachers from primary, vocational, and high schools from various cultural and geographic regions of Turkey.

Yilmaz and Tasdan (2009) explore the relationship between teacher perceptions of organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior across lines of gender, field of study, and seniority in Turkish primary schools. The results of this study found that Turkish teachers possessed positive views of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational justice. Yilmaz and Tasdan (2009) found no significant differences between gender, field of study, and seniority groups in terms of perceptions of organizational citizenship behavior. However, perceptions of organizational justice on the part of senior teaching staff varied. No variance related to organizational justice was discovered between field of study and gender groups. These findings suggest that demographic variables may not serve as mediators between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior. That is to say, the demographic variables of gender, seniority, and field of study do not shape how teachers perceive fairness and in turn engage in contextual performance such as OCB. However, the research found a moderate positive relationship between teacher perceptions of organizational justice and the degree of organizational citizenship behavior.

Job satisfaction and commitment are essential to the continuing growth of any school organization. Hoy and Sabo (1998) concluded that job satisfaction and commitment are correlates of school climate. Though job satisfaction and organizational commitment are important by-products of justice climates, the literature base linking job satisfaction and organizational commitment to justice in school settings is relatively limited. Whisenant (2005) and Whisenant and Smucker (2009) identified a correlation

between job satisfaction and organizational commitment and justice within high school athletic departments. Typically, high school athletic department are comprised of teachers. However, the organization and structure of high school athletic departments are quite unique when compared to the inter-workings of the school at-large.

One of the few studies that explore commitment and justice as it relates to classroom teachers is that of Aydin and Karaman-Kepeneci (2008). Utilizing qualitative measures, Aydin and Karaman-Kepeneci examined the relationship between school leadership perceptions of justice and teacher commitment in Turkey. A conceptual analysis of data from a focus group consisting of Turkish elementary school principals suggested that commitment and justice are interrelated. Additionally, findings suggested that perceived injustices precipitated by the behaviors of the principal diminished teacher citizenship behaviors and increased the frequency of negative norms such as dissent amongst teachers. Dissent is a common feature of schools and, given its capacity for obstructing change initiatives, it is critical that school leaders have an understanding how justice shapes teacher dissent. Teachers may be less likely to expend energy on expressing dissent if they perceive the school leader as fair.

Shapira-Lishchinsky (2007) investigated the impact of organizational commitment in mediating the relationship between organizational justice and lateness behavior of Israeli high school teachers. Lateness behavior may be defined as arriving late to work or leaving before the close of the work day. Shapira-Lishchinsky (2007) administered adaptations of Moorman's (1991) distributive justice scale, the worker withdrawal scale of Blau (1964) and Neal and colleagues (1993), and Meyer and Allen's (1997) original 22-item measure of organizational commitment to a sample population

consisting of 1,016 teachers from 35 Israeli high schools. Multi-level analysis demonstrated significant gender differences in terms of perceptions of commitment, justice, and lateness. Organizational commitment by females was found to partially mediate the relationship between distributive justice and lateness. Recall distributive justice deals exclusively with decision outcomes. When female teachers perceive lower distributive justice in school, they tend to be late to work more frequently than their male counterparts. Females with higher perceptions of distributive justice were found to have a higher sense of organizational commitment and, thus, engage less frequently in late behavior.

What accounts for the differences in gender perceptions? Niederman and Sumner, as reported in Shapira-Lishchinsky, (2007) argue that Israeli women historically enter occupations with lower pay, lower prestige and mobility. Women are more frequently exposed to distributive injustices in the workplace. This trend is also applicable to professions in the United States. A later study by Shapira-Lishchinsky (2009) determined that organizational commitment mediates the relationship between female teacher intent to leave and distributive justice. In fact, high-levels of distributive justice resulted in increased commitment amongst female teachers. On the other hand, low-levels of distributive justice had little to no effect on female intent to leave. Male counterparts responded differently. That is, male teachers exhibited lower levels of commitment when distributive justice was low. Shapira-Lishchinsky credited these disparities to long-standing cultural norms. In other words, inequity between females and males is commonplace in Israeli society. Women have a lower expectation of equity in

terms of distributive outcomes. When perceptions of distributive justice are high, women are likely to view the situation as unique to their day-to-day circumstance.

Summary

Organizational justice is a relevant construct to educational settings. In fact, organizational justice has major implications for educational leadership in the 21st century. Teachers make judgments about justice based on a wide variety of factors. Promoting fair play within decision-making structures, focusing on collegial decision-making, improving methods used to communicate decisions, and developing reward systems beyond traditional compensation programs are some of the many ways school leaders may shape teacher judgments, while promoting and strengthening organizational justice climates. Hoy and Tarter (2004) conclude that school leaders should be fair in the application of rules and procedures, while encouraging teachers to be actively involved in school-wide and classroom-based decisions. Much of the literature on justice as applied to schools is confined primarily to settings outside of the United States. Further inquiry within the United States is necessitated by the capacity of justice studies to improve practice in the area of educational leadership.

The pursuit of knowledge and understanding is the ultimate aim of any research study. Organizational justice can be a powerful tool in promoting contextual factors that lead to student achievement and positive change initiatives. As educational practitioners and researchers, focusing on the contributions of the individual teacher in terms of helping individuals and helping the school organization is an effective use of a school leader's time. School leaders who have a basic understanding of the antecedents, mediators, and implications of organizational justice may be more likely to have success

in encouraging employees to exhibit attitudes and behaviors that enhance the quality of educational programs and student achievement. Reflecting on the various manifestation or subsets of justice, training leaders in the craft of justice, and providing instructional staff with meaningful opportunities to participate in the school improvement and decision-making processes are some of the many ways that school leaders may enhance working relationships, foster justice climates, and improve overall student achievement.

Although organizational justice is an important factor contributing to the effective functioning of organizations, there have been few empirical research studies of organizational justice in schools (DiPaola & Guy, 2009; Hoy & Tarter, 2004). Hoy and Tarter (2004) applied and extended organizational justice to schools and linked it to the concept of trust. Through empirical analysis DiPaola and Guy (2009) found a strong and significant relationship between organizational justice and trust in schools. Tschannen-Moran (2003) found a significant and positive relationship between trust and organizational citizenship behavior. Successive empirical analysis has linked organizational citizenship behavior to student achievement (DiPaola et al 2005; DiPaola & Hoy 2005a; DiPaola & Hoy, 2005b; Jurewicz, 2004; Wagner, 2008). This research study revealed the importance and impact of interpersonal relationships in understanding teacher perceptions of fairness while also contributing to our understanding of organizational justice's role related to organizational citizenship behavior and student outcomes in public high schools.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Chapter 3 is organized with the following major sections: (1) research methodology of the proposed study, (2) research questions and hypotheses, (3) sample population and data collection procedures (4) instruments and methods for collecting data, and (5) description of the statistical methods that will be used to analyze the data collected from the study.

The primary purpose of the research study was to build upon an emergent literature base for organizational justice in school settings while specifically determining whether or not a relationship exists between organizational justice and student achievement as measured by the following Virginia Standards of Learning (SOL) End-of-Course (EOC) Tests: English 11: *Reading*; English 11: *Writing*; Biology; and United States History. The study sought to determine if a relationship exists between organizational justice and the organizational citizenship behaviors of high school teachers in Virginia. Variables associated with improved student achievement have been a focus of educational researchers for decades. Organizational justice is thought to be an important variable related to school climate and trust in schools (DiPaola & Guy, 2009). Organizational citizenship behavior has been shown to positively correlate to student achievement (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005a; Wagner, 2008). The relationships between organizational justice, organizational citizenship behavior in schools, and their connections to student achievement have important implications for improving school effectiveness.

Research Questions

The following research questions served to guide the research study:

1. What is the relationship between organizational justice, as measured by the Organizational Justice Scale (OJS) and student achievement on the Virginia Standards of Learning (SOL) End-of-Course (EOC) Tests: English 11: *Reading*; English 11: *Writing*; Biology; and United States History?
2. What is the relationship between organizational justice, as measured by the Organizational Justice Scale (OJS) and organizational citizenship behaviors of classroom teachers, as measured by the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale (OCBS) in Virginia high schools?
3. What are the relative and collective effects of organizational justice, organizational citizenship behavior, and socio-economic status in explaining variance in student achievement with respect to effect size as measured by the Virginia Standards of Learning (SOL) End-of-Course (EOC) Tests: English 11: *Reading*; English 11: *Writing*; Biology; and United States History?

Sample

Efforts were made to obtain a representative sample of full-time teachers from high schools in Virginia. District superintendents and high school principals across the Commonwealth of Virginia were contacted via electronic mail soliciting participation in the study. The contact information of the respective district superintendents and school principals was obtained from a listserv maintained by the Virginia Department of Education. Participation in the study was voluntary. The obtained sample consisted of 34 high schools representative of Virginia with respect to geography, size, ethnicity and

socio-economics. Two of the 34 participating high schools were configured to serve grades 8 through 12, rather than grades 9 through 12.

Instrumentation

The Organizational Justice Scale (OJS) and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors Scale (OCBS) were used to assess aggregate teacher perceptions of justice and organizational citizenship behavior.

Organizational Justice

The Organizational Justice Scale (OJS) incorporates the fundamental principles of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice within school organizations. The scale, a 10-item Likert-type scale, is used to measure the extent to which teacher respondents disagree or agree with statements related to school-level perceptions of fairness. The OJS was tested in a pilot study of 75 middle schools in Ohio (Hoy & Tarter, 2004).

Cronbach's alpha coefficient of reliability was used to measure internal consistency of the instrument. The alpha coefficient of reliability for the OJS was a relatively high .97. Construct validity was supported by factor analysis of the individual scale items (Hoy & Tarter, 2004). See Table 4 sample items on the OJS. Appendix A presents a copy of the entire measure.

Table 4

The Organizational Justice Scale Sample Items

Students in this school are treated fairly.

The principal does not play favorites.

Educators in this school follow courses of action that generally free of self interest.

(Hoy & Tarter, 2004)

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

This study used the revised Organizational Citizenship Behavior in Schools Scale (OCBS). DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2001) were the first to examine organizational citizenship behavior in the context of schools. Through factor analysis they demonstrated that organizational citizenship behavior is a one-dimensional construct when applied to the school setting; benefits to individuals and benefits to the school organization with respect to student achievement (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001).

The OCBS is a 12-item Likert-type scale that asks participants to respond to the degree to which they agree or disagree with individual statements. The OCBS specifically measures teacher perceptions of organizational citizenship behavior. The construct validity of the OCBS has been consistently supported through confirmatory and exploratory factor analysis (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005a; DiPaola & Hoy, 2005b; DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001). See Table 5 for the survey items for organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). Appendix B presents a copy of the measure.

Table 5

Organizational Citizenship Behavior Sample Items

Teachers help students on their own time

Teachers voluntarily help new teachers

Teachers volunteer to serve on new committees

(DiPaola & Hoy, 2004)

Student Achievement

Student achievement in the Commonwealth of Virginia is measured by the Virginia Standards of Learning (SOL) assessments. The Virginia Standards of Learning

assessments provide a link between academic standards and graduation requirements for high school students. The SOL assessments are administered annually and designed to measure the degree to which students have mastered content and skills identified in the Virginia SOL Curriculum Frameworks. The Standards of Learning assessments are considered valid and reliable measures of student achievement as confirmed by a Virginia Department of Education Content Review Committee (Hambleton et. al, 2000). Accreditation ratings for individual schools are based on the SOL assessments and determined by student performance in the aggregate.

This study used SOL performance data to examine the relationship between organizational justice and student achievement. Achievement data for the study were limited to four Virginia Standards of Learning assessments: Biology; U. S. History; English 11: Reading; and English 11: Writing. Wagner (2008) recognized these particular assessments for their content variety and consistency in terms of being administered to students attending public high schools across Virginia under uniform conditions. The study specifically utilized the mean scaled SOL scores for the identified end-of-course assessments for the 2010-2011 academic year. Standard scores for the SOL assessments range between 200 and 600. A student must obtain a 400 to meet minimum proficiency standards. A score of 500 or better is considered pass advanced. The SOL assessment data for participating schools was collected from the Office of Test Administration, Scoring, and Reporting of the Virginia Department of Education.

Socioeconomic Status

Socioeconomic factors play a significant role in influencing student achievement. It is important to control for the influences of socioeconomics in order to provide for a

more accurate reflection of the relationship between organizational justice and student achievement. This study controlled for socioeconomic status. The percentage of students receiving free and/or reduced-price lunch served as a proxy for socioeconomic status. Free and/or reduced-price lunch percentages are directly related to family income or poverty level of students served by participating schools. Data on free and/or reduced-price lunch percentages for each of the participating high schools in the sample (N=34) were obtained from the Virginia Department of Education.

Data Collection

Doctoral students at the College of William & Mary and/or high school teachers administered the surveys during regularly scheduled faculty meetings at high schools throughout the Commonwealth of Virginia. The Organizational Justice Scale was administered to one-half of all full-time teacher respondents in each participating school. The remaining full-time teacher respondents were given the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale. An identifying number was assigned to the survey instruments that linked individual participants with their respective schools. The identifying number allowed for unit or school level analysis of the relationships between organizational justice, organizational citizenship behavior, and student achievement. Unit level data related to student achievement and socioeconomic status were obtained from an online database maintained by the Virginia Department of Education. Scaled school-level student achievement scores were obtained by the Virginia Department of Education.

Data Analysis and Procedures

The research study used correlations and multiple regression analyses to draw conclusions with respect to the identified research questions. The primary purpose of the

research study was to investigate the relationship between teacher perceptions of organizational justice and student achievement on the Virginia Standards of Learning (SOL) End-of-Course (EOC) Tests: English 11: Reading; English 11: Writing; Biology; and United States History. Moreover, the study examined the relationship between organizational justice and the organizational citizenship behaviors of high school teachers.

Research data on organizational justice, organizational citizenship, and student achievement were aggregated at the school level. The IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used for statistical analysis. Standard deviation and mean/median scores were calculated for organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior. Pearson r correlations were utilized to determine the strength and direction of the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior. Multiple regression analysis was used to identify the relative impact of organizational justice, organizational citizenship behavior, and socio-economic status on student achievement. Refer to Table 6 for a presentation of the research questions and techniques for analyzing data.

Table 6

Data Analysis Procedures

Research Question	Data Analysis Tool
1. What is the relationship between organizational justice, as measured by the Organizational Justice Scale (OJS) developed by Hoy & Tarter (2004), and student achievement on the Virginia Standards of Learning (SOL) End-of-Course (EOC) Tests: English	<i>Correlation</i>

11: *Reading*; English 11: *Writing*; Biology; and United States History?

2. What is the relationship between organizational justice, ***Correlation*** as measured by the Organizational Justice Scale (OJS) developed by Hoy & Tarter (2004), and organizational citizenship behaviors of classroom teachers, as measured by the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale (OCBS) of DiPaola & Hoy (2004), in Virginia high schools?
3. What are the relative and collective effects of organizational ***Multiple Regression*** justice, organizational citizenship behavior, and socio-economic status in explaining variance in student achievement with respect to effect size as measured by the Virginia Standards of Learning (SOL) End-of-Course (EOC) Tests: English 11: *Reading*; English 11: *Writing*; Biology; and United States History?

Ethical Safeguards

Permission for this dissertation study was obtained from the College of William and Mary's Protection of Human Subjects Committee. Moreover, permissions were obtained from the prevailing authorities and/or institutional review board (IRB)'s of the respective school districts and building level principals that opted to participate in the study. The prevailing authorities for the participating schools typically consisted of the district superintendent or designee and the principal. In a limited number of cases school board approval was required to administer the survey instruments.

Participation in the study was voluntary and participants were informed that they could opt out at any time. School principals were offered the opportunity to review the results of the OCBS and OJS for their respective schools. Participating teachers were instructed to refrain from placing identifying information on the survey instruments. To secure anonymity participants were reminded to refrain from including their name on survey instruments. Data from the study were reported in the aggregate. Information linking data to a particular school has not been reported. Confidentiality was maintained throughout the study and final dissertation, and will continue to be maintained should publication result from this study.

CHAPTER 4

Analysis of Data

This study examined the relationship between high school teacher perceptions of organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior and how this relationship influences student achievement. Organizational justice was hypothesized to be strongly related to organizational citizenship behavior and student achievement in schools. Correlation and regression analyses were conducted to test the hypothesized relationships among student achievement and teacher perceptions of organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior in the high school setting.

The sample consisted of 34 Virginia high schools serving grades 8 through 12. Only two high schools in the sample served grades 8 through 12. The remaining 32 schools served grades 9 through 12. The largest school by enrollment had a student population of 2083. The smallest school in the study had a student population of 259. The mean student population of the 34 sampled schools was 1019. Table 7 contains data for the student population of the sampled schools (N=34) by subgroups as well as the proportion of economically disadvantaged students.

Table 7

Student Population of Sample Schools (N=34) and Virginia Public High Schools

Student Population	Sample (N=34) <i>Totals and Percent</i>		Virginia <i>Totals and Percent</i>	
Economically Disadvantaged	8,496	24.52%	110,898	29.22%
American Indian	80	<1%	1,304	<1%

Asian	1,072	3.09%	21,741	5.73%
Black	7,125	30.57%	92,768	24.45%
Hawaiian	42	<1%	486	<1%
Hispanic	2,082	6.01%	37,724	9.94%
White	23,232	67.07%	212,307	55.95%
2 or more	968	2.79%	3,121	3.46%

Virginia Department of Education. (2011). *Fall membership 2010-2011*.

Findings

The data for the three research questions for this study were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Descriptive statistics were computed for organizational justice, organizational citizenship behavior, and student achievement in English 11: *Reading*; English 11: *Writing*; Biology; and United States History. Data for this study were aggregated at the school level. Mean scores for organizational justice were determined by averaging the scores for all 10 justice items. Organizational citizenship behavior was determined by averaging the scores for all 12 citizenship items.

Reliabilities for the OJS and OCBS were determined using Cronbach's alpha measure for evaluating internal consistency. With regards to organizational justice, the Cronbach's alpha for the OJS stood at .96, which indicates high internal consistency with respect to reliability. The Cronbach's alpha for organizational citizenship behavior was .89, also indicative of high internal consistency.

Student achievement data were obtained from mean school scores on four Virginia Standards of Learning end-of-course tests from the 2010-2011 academic year: English 11: *Reading*; English 11: *Writing*; Biology; and United States History. The mean school scores for student achievement were obtained from the Virginia Department of

Education. Student mastery on the Standards of Learning end-of-course tests is measured on a scale of 200 to 600 with 400 representing the minimum level of proficiency. A score of 500 or above represents advanced proficiency. Socioeconomic status data for participating schools was obtained from the Virginia Department of Education and determined by the percentage of students receiving free and reduced-price lunch (FRL) during the 2010-2011 academic year. Table 8 contains the descriptive statistics for each of the variables under study, particularly organizational justice, organizational citizenship behavior, student achievement, and socioeconomic status. Socioeconomic status is reported in percent and defined as the percentage of students receiving free and reduced-price lunch.

Table 8

Descriptive statistics (N=34)

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Organizational Justice	4.42	.54	2.90	5.30
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	4.47	.25	4.01	5.13
English 11: Reading SOL	494.76	20.44	462.0	530.0
English 11: Writing SOL	487.10	20.71	451.0	518.0
Biology SOL	456.44	17.04	423.0	492.0
United States History SOL	442.26	18.11	401.0	474.0
Free and Reduced Lunch (in Percent)	31.09	19.09	06.00	76.00

**Research Question 1: Relationship between Organizational Justice
and Student Achievement**

The first question of the dissertation study asked: *What is the relationship between organizational justice, as measured by the Organizational Justice Scale (OJS) and student achievement on the Virginia Standards of Learning (SOL) End-of-Course (EOC) Tests: English 11: Reading; English 11: Writing; Biology; and United States History?*

Data from the bivariate correlation analysis indicate that there was no evidence of a significant correlation between organizational justice and student achievement: English 11: *Reading* ($r = .24, p = n.s.$); English 11: *Writing* ($r = .22, p = n.s.$); Biology ($r = .23, p = n.s.$); and United States History ($r = .03, p = n.s.$). Although organizational justice did not correlate to student achievement, all four measures of student achievement were highly correlated with one another. Additionally, significant inverse relationships were confirmed between student socioeconomic status and all four measures of student achievement. The proportion of students receiving free and reduced-price lunch was unrelated to organizational justice in this sample of high schools ($r = -.09, p = n.s.$). Table 9 contains correlation data for organizational justice and student achievement.

Table 9

Correlational Analysis of Organizational Justice and Student Achievement

	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.
1. Organizational Justice	.24	.22	.23	.03	-.09
2. English 11: <i>Reading</i> SOL		.92**	.85**	.90**	-.78**
3. English 11: <i>Writing</i> SOL			.80**	.83**	-.79**
4. Biology SOL				.77**	-.67**

5.	United States History SOL	-.72**
6.	SES	

**p<.01
*p<.05

Although not specifically addressed in the research question, data from the correlational analysis indicated that organizational citizenship behavior was significantly related to student achievement in both Biology and Reading ($r = .57, p < .01$, and $r = .48, p < .01$, respectively). Organizational citizenship behavior also was significantly related to Writing ($r = .39, p < .05$), with a moderate positive correlation. The relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and United States History ($r = .32, p = n.s.$) was statistically insignificant. Table 10 contains correlation data for organizational citizenship behavior and student achievement. The proportion of students receiving free or reduced-price lunch was slightly inversely correlated to organizational citizenship behavior ($r = -.23, p > .05$).

Table 10

Correlational Analysis of Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Student Achievement

	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.
1. Organizational Citizenship Behavior	.48**	.39*	.57**	.32	-.23
2. English 11: <i>Reading</i> SOL		.92**	.85**	.90**	-.78**
3. English 11: <i>Writing</i> SOL			.80**	.83**	-.79**
4. Biology SOL				.77**	-.67**
5. United States History SOL					-.72**
6. SES					

**p<.01
*p<.05

**Research Question 2: Relationship between Organizational Justice
and Organizational Citizenship Behavior**

The second question of the dissertation study asked: *What is the relationship between organizational justice, as measured by the Organizational Justice Scale (OJS) and organizational citizenship behaviors of classroom teachers, as measured by the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale (OCBS) in Virginia high schools?*

The data from the bivariate correlation analysis demonstrates that there is a strong, positive correlation between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior in schools ($r = .60, p < .01$). These findings suggest a robust possibility of observing extra-role performance on the part of classroom teachers in schools that foster a culture of justice. As there is no direct correlation between organizational justice and student achievement, this finding suggests that organizational justice may have an indirect relationship to student achievement and serves to bolster organizational citizenship behavior directly and, therefore, student achievement indirectly. Table 11 contains correlation data for organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior

Table 11

Correlational Analysis of Organizational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

		2.
1.	Organizational Justice	.60**

2. Organizational Citizenship Behavior

**p <.01

Research Question 3: Relative and Collective Effects of Examined Variables on Student Achievement

The third question of this study asked: *What are the relative and collective effects of organizational justice, organizational citizenship behavior, and socio-economic status in explaining variance in student achievement with respect to effect size as measured by the Virginia Standards of Learning (SOL) End-of-Course (EOC) Tests: English 11: Reading; English 11: Writing; Biology; and United States History?*

Multiple Regression – Organizational Justice, Organizational Citizenship Behavior, Student SES and Student Achievement

Using multiple regression analysis the relative and collective effects of the explanatory variables were explored. Multiple regression analysis demonstrated that socioeconomic status in relation to organizational justice and citizenship behavior continued to have a significant and negative independent effect on the mean scores for all four of the student achievement tests: English 11: *Reading* ($\beta = -.70, p < .01$); English 11: *Writing* ($\beta = -.74, p < .01$); Biology ($\beta = -.57, p < .01$); and United States History ($\beta = -.66, p < .01$). The negative β values for socioeconomic status demonstrate an inverse relationship between students receiving free or reduced-priced lunch and student achievement. Schools in this study with higher proportions of students receiving free or reduced-price lunch experienced lower levels of student achievement. Data also indicate that organizational justice did little to account for the variance in mean student achievement scores and continues to not serve as a predictor of student achievement

when factoring for student socioeconomic status: English 11: Reading ($\beta = -.03$, $p = \text{n.s.}$); English 11: Writing ($\beta = .04$, $p = \text{n.s.}$); Biology ($\beta = -.14$, $p = \text{n.s.}$); and United States History ($\beta = -.21$, $p = \text{n.s.}$). On the other hand, organizational citizenship behavior continued to have a significant effect on mean school achievement scores for Biology ($\beta = .52$, $p < .01$) even after factoring for student socioeconomic status. In fact, organizational citizenship behavior by itself accounted for 34% of the variance in mean Biology scores for the sample ($N=34$). Organizational citizenship behavior also demonstrated significant secondary predictability for Reading ($\beta = .34$, $p < .05$), explaining 24% of the variance. Multiple regression analysis demonstrated little to no significant independent effect of organizational citizenship behavior on Writing ($\beta = .19$, $p = \text{n.s.}$) and U. S. History ($\beta = .29$, $p = \text{n.s.}$) when controlling for socioeconomic status.

The strength of the relationships between all three explanatory or dependent variables –organizational justice, organizational citizenship behavior, and student socioeconomic status- and student achievement in relation to the individual student achievement measures was especially noteworthy. Collectively, the independent variables accounted for 70% of the variance in *Reading*, 66% in *Writing*, 64% in *Biology*, and 56% in *U. S. History*. Table 12 contains the multiple regression data for organizational justice, organizational citizenship behavior, student socioeconomic status, and student achievement.

Table 12

Summary of Multiple Regression Analyses for Organizational Justice (OJ), Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB), and Student SES in Predicting Student Achievement ($N=34$)

Dependent Variable and Predictors	Beta	R ²	Adjusted R ²	SE
English: <i>Reading</i> SOL Test		.70	.68	11.66
SES	-.70**			
Organizational Justice	-.03			
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	.34*			
English: <i>Writing</i> SOL Test		.66	.63	12.64
SES	-.74**			
Organizational Justice	.04			
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	.19			
Biology SOL Test		.65	.61	10.62
SES	-.57**			
Organizational Justice	-.14			
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	.52**			
US History SOL Test		.56	.51	12.65
SES	-.66**			
Organizational Justice	-.21			
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	.29			

**p<.01

*p<.05

Conclusion

This study found a significant relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior. No evidence was found for a direct correlation between organizational justice and the mean student achievement scores in English 11: *Reading*, English 11: *Writing*, Biology, and United States History. Organizational

citizenship behavior was positively and significantly correlated to mean student achievement scores in Biology and English 11: *Reading*, and English 11: *Writing*. A school's socioeconomic status was found to have a strong significant inverse relationship to all measures of student achievement in this study. The findings of this study suggest that organizational justice may bolster the level of citizenship behavior, which had a significant correlation to most of the student achievement measures used in the study. Collectively, the explanatory variables were responsible for a high percentage of the variance on all four measures of student achievement. Results of the study are discussed in terms of their implications for future research on organizational justice.

CHAPTER 5

Summary and Discussion of Findings

This research study revealed the importance and impact of interpersonal relationships in understanding teacher perceptions of fairness while also contributing to our understanding of organizational justice's role related to organizational citizenship behavior and student outcomes in public high schools. Subsequently, this study provides a basis for educational researchers to further examine the role of organizational justice in promoting student achievement. Implications and recommendations for further research are presented herein.

Summary of Results

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior and its relationship to student achievement. A basic premise of the study is that teacher perceptions of fairness are related to non-mandatory discretionary task performance behaviors that benefit individuals and the school organization.

Correlational analyses and multiple regressions were performed between the examined variables –organizational justice, organizational citizenship behavior, student socioeconomic status, and student achievement. A positive relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior was supported by the research findings. The predicted direct correlation between organizational justice and student achievement was not supported. Organizational justice may strengthen the relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and student achievement. Further research is needed to determine whether organizational justice mediates or

moderates the relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and student achievement. As predicted, student socioeconomic status correlated strongly and positively with student achievement. Significant findings not addressed by the research questions include a robust and positive correlation between organizational citizenship behavior and Biology and *Reading* achievement.

Discussion

The results of this study add to the growing realization that organizational justice is significantly related to organizational citizenship behavior. The first part of this study investigated the relationship between organizational justice and student achievement as measured by the Virginia Standards of Learning (SOL) End-of-Course (EOC) Tests: English 11: *Reading*; English 11: *Writing*; Biology; and United States History. No direct relationship was observed between organizational justice and student achievement. Although this is the first study of these variables at the high school level, this finding was not expected. Recall previous literature has suggested that justice is a proxy for trust (DiPaola & Guy, 2009; Hoy & Tarter, 2004). Empirical analysis supports a direct correlation between trust and student achievement (Tschannen-Moran, 2004). Empirical analysis has also supported a direct correlation between trust and organizational citizenship behavior (Tschannen-Moran, 2003) and organizational citizenship behavior and student achievement (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005a; DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran 2001). Given the links between trust and justice, trust and student achievement, trust and organizational citizenship behavior, and organizational citizenship behavior and student achievement, the researcher predicted that justice would also be directly correlated to student achievement. The findings of this study confirmed a link between organizational

citizenship behavior and student achievement. Further research with respect to determining the degree to which organizational justice may influence student achievement is necessary.

This study also explored the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior. A significant relationship was demonstrated between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior. Organizational justice describes teacher perceptions of fairness regarding the appropriateness of outcomes and processes in the school. Organizational justice differs from organizational citizenship behavior in that it is a measure of teacher perceptions of the principal's actions as opposed to teacher perceptions of teacher actions. The results of this study demonstrate that justice is an important component of school life. Justice provides coherence between teacher citizenship behaviors and other contextual factors shaping student performance outcomes.

Though this study demonstrated that organizational justice is an important determinant of organizational citizenship behavior, it failed to demonstrate a significant relationship to student achievement. One can only speculate on the reasons why organizational justice was not significantly related to student achievement in this study. In general, the organizational justice construct is a reflection of faculty perceptions of the principal, whereas organizational citizenship behavior reflects teacher perceptions of teachers. Teachers may not perceive school principals as having direct influence on student performance outcomes. Recall the OJS asks participants to respond to the extent to which they agree or disagree with such statements as:

“The principal's behavior is consistent.”

“The principal does not play favorites.”

“The principal in this school is fair to everyone.”

Also, recall the OCBS asks teacher participants to respond to the degree to which they agree or disagree with such statements as:

“Teachers help students on their own time.”

“Teachers voluntarily help new teachers.”

“Teachers volunteer to serve on new committees.”

The working day of a principal is typically consumed with managerial tasks such as school discipline, attending meetings, preparing reports, maintaining the facilities, and managing budgets. As such, classroom teachers may perceive their principals as having little to no direct impact on student achievement. On the other hand, it is quite possible that teachers view themselves and their instructional colleagues as having a greater degree of impact on student achievement than school principals. Regardless, justice should be a consideration in all aspects of the school social milieu because a school principal’s relationship with classroom teachers is defined through decision-making structures, support, and procedures implementing policy.

It is also important to consider the rationale that guided the research questions and the general thinking with respect to the predicted relationship between organizational justice and student achievement. Through correlational analysis Tschannen-Moran (2004) determined that faculty trust in the principal was unrelated to student achievement. Although Hoy and Tarter (2004) determined that justice was a proxy for trust, interestingly, they determined that faculty trust in the principal was a greater predictor of justice than faculty trust in colleagues. Both studies explore teacher perceptions of the

principal's interactions with faculty. Coupled with the findings of this study, the work of Tschannen-Moran and Hoy and Tarter, ostensibly suggest that organizational justice may only be directly related to a singular facet of trust –faculty trust in the principal.

Therefore, organizational justice may not be a proxy for the entire trust construct.

However, this is a claim that cannot be supported by this study.

This study examined relationships between justice, organizational citizenship behavior, and student achievement. This study did not explore trust and its relationship to the examined variables. These assumptions merely underscore the need for further research with respect to determining the nature of the relationship between student achievement and two seemingly distinct, yet interconnected constructs –organizational justice and trust.

Finally, this study also investigated the relative effects of student socioeconomic status and organizational justice perceptions of teachers on student achievement as measured by the Virginia Standards of Learning (SOL) End-of-Course (EOC) Tests: English 11: *Reading*; English 11: *Writing*; Biology; and United States History. On all four student performance indicators student socioeconomic status was found to have a significant independent negative effect on student achievement. Schools with higher proportions of students receiving free and reduced-price lunch experienced lower levels of student achievement in *Reading*, *Writing*, Biology, and History. These results support prior findings on the relationship between student socioeconomic status and student achievement (Jackson, 2009; Jurewicz, 2004; Lezotte, 1991; Lezotte, 2001; Wagner, 2008). Further research is needed to determine the effects of student socioeconomic status on organizational citizenship behavior.

Implications for Practice

The influence of organizational justice has much to contribute to our understanding of school effectiveness with respect to organizational citizenship behavior. Teachers contribute to school effectiveness by directly providing services and support to students. The importance of school principals in leading and managing school improvement efforts has long been recognized. School organizations need effective principals to achieve their objectives. School principals play an important role in promoting effectiveness by adding value to the social milieu of schools. School principals may influence learning outcomes by shaping and fostering a school culture that promotes a sense of fairness. This occurs through the principal's interactions with teachers, fair application and enforcement of policies and procedures, and through the development of school processes that support teacher task performance. School leaders who ignore the implications of developing and sustaining a culture of justice do so at their own peril. If teachers perceive the principal and/or decision-making structures as being unfair, aggregate citizenship behavior may likely diminish. In turn, student achievement as measured by standardized performance measures may wane. This study merely underscores the interconnectedness of justice and organizational citizenship behavior and the importance of developing a culture of justice in schools.

Suggestions for Further Study

As with all social science research, this study is not meant to be conclusive in its findings. Additional research is needed to confirm organizational justice as a contextual factor affecting organizational citizenship behavior and student achievement. This study was limited to 34 high schools in Virginia. Therefore, the results may neither be

generalized to all high school in Virginia nor high schools in the United States.

Replication with the methodology in elementary and middle school organizations is still needed to assess the generalizability of the association between organizational justice and organization citizenship behavior and possible mediating effects of organizational justice on student achievement. Further research may improve the generalizability of the results of this study.

This study provides a conceptual framework for exploring organizational justice's relationship to student achievement. An enhanced understanding of the antecedents and consequences of organizational justice is needed in order to understand the broader social context of school organizations. Avenues for further study may assess the causal effects of school size, class size, teacher gender, teacher ethnicity, and teacher credentials on organizational justice perceptions. This study also suggests further research that explores the consequences of organizational justice with respect to teacher turnover, job satisfaction, perceived principal support, and counterproductive work behaviors.

Conclusion

This research study revealed the importance and impact of interpersonal relationships in understanding organizational justice's relationship to organizational citizenship behavior. Research has shown that organizational justice is related to contextual factors that influence organizational effectiveness. This study failed to find evidence of a significant correlation between organizational justice and student achievement. However, organizational justice was found to be significantly and positively correlated to organizational citizenship behavior. Empirical analysis has demonstrated that organizational citizenship behavior is a correlate of student

achievement (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005; Jurewicz, 2004). This study confirmed a significant and positive correlation between organizational citizenship behavior and student achievement. Moreover, this study demonstrated strong inverse relationships between student socioeconomic status and all four measures of student achievement. Further research is needed to determine direct, mediating, and moderating effects of organizational justice on student achievement.

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Appendix A

Hoy and Tarter's Organizational Justice Scale

OJS

Directions: Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements about your school from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Your answers are confidential.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
2. Students in this school are treated fairly.	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ	Ⓔ	Ⓕ
4. The principal treats everyone with respect and dignity.	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ	Ⓔ	Ⓕ
6. The principal in this school is fair to everyone.	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ	Ⓔ	Ⓕ
8. The principal adheres to high ethical standards.	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ	Ⓔ	Ⓕ
10. Teachers are treated fairly in this school.	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ	Ⓔ	Ⓕ

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Appendix B

OCB-Scale

Indicate the extent to which you disagree or agree with the following statements about your school:

	Strongly Disagree	Strongly Agree
1. Teachers help students on their own time	1	2 3 4 5 6
2. Teachers waste a lot of class time	1	2 3 4 5 6
3. Teachers voluntarily help new teachers	1	2 3 4 5 6
4. Teachers volunteer to serve on new committees	1	2 3 4 5 6
5. Teachers volunteer to sponsor extra curricular activities.....	1	2 3 4 5 6
6. Teachers arrive to work and meetings on time.....	1	2 3 4 5 6
7. Teachers take the initiative to introduce themselves to substitutes and assist them	1	2 3 4 5 6
8. Teachers begin class promptly and use class time effectively.....	1	2 3 4 5 6
9. Teachers give colleagues advanced notice of changes in schedule or routine.....	1	2 3 4 5 6
10. Teachers give an excessive amount of busy work.....	1	2 3 4 5 6
11. Teacher committees in this school work productively.....	1	2 3 4 5 6
12. Teachers make innovative suggestions to improve the overall quality of our school.....	1	2 3 4 5 6

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Appendix C

Colquitt's (2001) Justice Measure

Procedural justice

- The following items refer to the procedures used to arrive at your (outcome). To what extent:
 1. Have you been able to express your views and feelings during those procedures?
 2. Have you had influence over the (outcome) arrived at by those procedures?
 3. Have those procedures been applied consistently?
 4. Have those procedures been free of bias?
 5. Have those procedures been based on accurate information?
 6. Have you been able to appeal the (outcome) arrived at by those procedures?
 7. Have those procedures upheld ethical and moral standards?

Distributive justice

- The following items refer to your (outcome). To what extent:
 1. Does your (outcome) reflect the effort you have put into your work?
 2. Is your (outcome) appropriate for the work you have completed?
 3. Does your (outcome) reflect what you have contributed to the organization?
 4. Is your (outcome) justified, given your performance?

Interpersonal justice

- The following items refer to (the authority figure who enacted the procedure). To what extent:
 1. Has (he/she) treated you in a polite manner?
 2. Has (he/she) treated you with dignity?
 3. Has (he/she) treated you with respect?
 4. Has (he/she) refrained from improper remarks or comments?

Informational justice

- The following items refer to (the authority figure who enacted the procedure). To what extent:
 1. Has (he/she) been candid in (his/her) communications with you?
 2. Has (he/she) explained the procedures thoroughly?
 3. Were (his/her) explanations regarding the procedures reasonable?
 4. Has (he/she) communicated details in a timely manner?
 5. Has (he/she) seemed to tailor (his/her) communications to individuals' specific needs?

Appendix D

Summary of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) Studies

Chen & Chiu (2009)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative design; • 323 employees and supervisors from 7 companies in Taiwan; • Convenience sampling; • Research Instruments: Hackman and Oldham's (1975) job characteristic scale, Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) job involvement scale and Coleman and Borman's (2002) OCB measure. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Job characteristics (task identity, task significance, and autonomy) positively influence worker OCB. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reliability coefficients for job characteristics were low (Cronbach alpha = .56-.68); • Common method variance; • Instrumentation: Translation of research instruments from English to Chinese.
Chen, Hui, & Segó (1998)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative design; • 205 supervisor-subordinate dyads from 11 companies in China; • Research Instruments: Adaptation of Camman, Fichman, Jenkins & Klesh (1979) turnover instrument, adaptations of Organ and Near (1983) OCB scale, adaptation of Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Scarpello and Campbell, 1983), and organizational commitment measure of Porter, et al (1974), etc. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supervisor rated OCB is a predictor of subordinate turnover; • Low levels of OCB predicts worker turnover. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Instrumentation: Research instruments translated from English to Chinese; • Limited generalizability; • Common method variance.
Cropanzano, Rupp, & Byrne, (2003)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative design; • Study 1: 204 hospital employees in western United States; • Study 2: 232 supervisor-subordinate dyads from various organizations in Colorado; • Research Instruments: Maslach and Jackson's (1991) emotional exhaustion inventory, Williams and Anderson's (1991) OCBO, Allen and Meyer's (1990) affective commitment scale, Konovsky and Cropanzano's (1991) turnover scale, and OCBS of Malatesta (1995). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emotional exhaustion is a predictor of OCB. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Study infers causality from cross-sectional data; • Common method variance.
DiPaola, Tarter & Hoy, (2004)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative design; • Study I consisted of 75 middle schools in Ohio; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Confirmed reliability and validity of OCB scale (revised from 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • First test of OCB scale; • Did not control for

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Study II consisted of 109 elementary schools from a southwestern state; • Research Instruments: OCB scale and SCL. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • OCBSS); • OCB positively and significantly related to all facets of school climate (i.e., collegial leadership, teacher professionalism, academic press, school mindfulness, and perceived organizational effectiveness); • OCB and school climate relationship is reciprocal. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • other variables influencing OCB.
DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, (2001)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative design; • Study I consisted of 42 public elementary, middle and high schools in Ohio and Virginia; • Study II consisted of 97 high schools in Ohio; • Research Instruments: OCBSS developed for study and OHI of Hoy, et al (1998). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Confirmed reliability and validity of OCBSS; • Significant relationship between OCB and school climate; • OCB is a one-dimensional construct when applied to schools; • Study I: All four facets of school climate correlate with OCB; • Study II: No significant relationship between OCB and community pressure. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • First test of OCBSS; • Did not control for other variables influencing OCB;
Farh, Zhong, & Organ, (2004)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pseudo-mixed methods design; • 72 state-owned and private enterprises in Japan and diverse sample of 158 employees and managers; • Inductive approach to gather descriptions of behaviors in the workplace; • Behaviors were in turn coded and classified using multiple judges. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identified 10 dimensions of OCB in Chinese society; • Found OCB construct differs between Eastern and Western culture; • Social and cultural variables influence perceptions of OCB. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Limited generalizability of results; • Study failed to control for contextual shapers of OCB (e.g., industry, technology, strategic orientation of firm); • Random sampling across jobs not used.
Jackson, (2009)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative design; • 1,327 teachers from 35 elementary schools in a single urban school district; • Research Instruments: OCB-Scale of DiPaola, Tarter, & Hoy (2005), Collective Teacher Belief Scale of Tschannen-Moran and Barr (2004), and SOL data extracted from school district. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher efficacy is positively correlated to OCB; • OCB is a predictor of student achievement. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Limited generalizability of results; • History: Data collected at a singular point in time; • Study infers causal relationships.
Jurewicz, (2004)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative design; • 1,096 middle school 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Found a significant relationship between 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Convenience sampling;

	<p>teachers from 82 schools diverse in size, socioeconomic status, and racial in composition;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Research Instruments: OCB School Scale (OCBS) and the School Climate Index (SCI). 	<p>OCB and student achievement in math and English;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Found a significant relationship between OCB and the four facets of school climate. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Limited generalizability; • History: Data collected at a singular point in time.
Moorman and Blakely, (1995)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative design; • 210 service employees from financial institutions located in the southeastern part of the United States; • Research Instruments: OCB scale developed for study and IC measure of Wagner and Moch (1986). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • IC is a predictor of OCB; • Individuals with collectivist tendencies are more likely to exhibit OCB; • Individuals with individualist tendencies are less likely to exhibit OCB. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Limited generalizability; • History: Data collected at a singular point in time; • Causal inferences using cross-sectional design; • Sample was 80% female.
Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ, (1993)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative design; • 420 cable television company employees (managers included); • Research instruments: Job Descriptive Instrument (JDI; Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969), affective/continuance commitment measured using scale of Meyer and Allen (1984), procedural justice scale of Moorman (1991), and OCB scale of Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1989). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Procedural justice is a correlate of OCB; • The relationship between job satisfaction and OCB is insignificant when relationship between justice and OCB are controlled; • The relationship between commitment and OCB is insignificant when relationship between justice and OCB are controlled; • The relationship between justice and civic virtue/altruism is insignificant. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Same source bias; • Infers directions of causality when data collected cross-sectionally; • Study fails to account for distributive justice and interactional justice.
Organ, (1997)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Review of empirical literature on OCB. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Finds that discretionary behavior, extra-role behavior, and behavior that goes beyond the job may actually be considered as part of the job by respondents; • Disagreement regarding enforceable work behaviors; • OCB is contextual and associated with non-tasks; • OCB does not support the technical core; • OCB supports the organizational climate/health of an organization. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • OCB is influenced by time and space.
Organ and Ryan, (1995)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Meta-analysis of 55 studies on OCB; • Literature search of major 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Worker attitudes predict OCB; • Job satisfaction a 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Studies are correlational, making it possible

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> academic journals; Coding/categorizing studies based on themes. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> stronger predictor of OCB than in-role performance; Fairness, commitment, and leader support correlate with OCB; Differences in setting and subject groups do not account for much variance. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> that attitudes follow from OCB rather than vice versa; Studies used varied methods/instruments for obtaining data; Need for a common metric for assessing OCB.
Podsakoff, Ahearn, & MacKenzie, (1997)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quantitative design; 218 paper mill workers; Research Instruments: OCB measure based on works of Organ (1988, 1990), MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter (1991, 1993), Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994), and Podsakoff et al. (1990), quality measure (paper rejected by quality control and/or customers, and quantity measure (amount of paper produced for year). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Altruism and sportsmanship positively related to quantity of work performance; Altruism related to the quality of work performance; Civic virtue was not related to quantity and quality; OCBs predict quantity better than quality. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Infers causal relationships (data was cross-sectional); Study failed to account for variables that may mediate the role between OCBs and quality/quantity.
Smith, Organ, & Near (1983)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quantitative design; 58 bank departments and 422 respondents; Research Instruments: 16 item OCB measure developed for study, Scott's (1967) job satisfaction measure, leadership supportiveness measure of House and Dessler (1974), task interdependence scale of Van de Ven, Delbecq, and Koenig (1976), etc... 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Altruism and general compliance emerged as independent dimensions of OCB; Correlations found between leadership supportiveness, job satisfaction, and OCB. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> First test of instrument; Common method variance.
Tschannen-Moran, (2003)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quantitative design; 3,066 teachers from 55 middle schools in mid-Atlantic state; Research Instruments: Nicholson's (2002) transformational leadership questionnaire, OCBSS of DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2001), and trust measure developed for study. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Trust is a correlate of OCB; Transformational leadership is not a correlate of OCB; Provided evidence for 5 facets of trust (i.e., benevolence, reliability, openness, competence, and honesty). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Did not control for other variables related to OCB; History: Statewide budget crisis at the time study was conducted; Questionnaires were administered separately to reduce common method variance.
Wagner, (2008)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quantitative design; 1,218 teachers from diverse sample of public high schools; Research Instruments: Collective efficacy instrument of Goddard (2002), Academic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Academic optimism strongly correlates to OCB in schools. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Convenience sampling; Limited generalizability; History: Data collected a singular point in time. Common method

	<p>emphasis survey items from Goddard, Hoy, et al. (2002), faculty trust in students and parents survey items from Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003), and OCBS of DiPaola and Hoy (2005).</p>		<p>variance.</p>
<p>Yilmaz & Cokluk-Bokeoglu, (2008)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative design; • 225 teachers from Turkish primary schools in Ankara; • Research Instruments: Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale of Mowday, et al (1974) and Organizational Commitment Scale of Williams and Anderson (1991). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Moderate positive relationship between OCB and organizational commitment (affective and continuance type commitment). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Limited generalizability of results; • Instrumentation: Research instruments converted from English to Turkish; • Common method variance.

Appendix E

Summary of Organizational Justice Studies

Aydin and Karaman-Kepenekci, (2008)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Qualitative design; • Turkish elementary school principals. • Focus group interviews and conceptual analysis (coding); • Interview questions focused on all subsets of justice. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perceived injustices (distributive and interactional) diminishes teacher commitment and OCB and increases teacher dissent and frequency of negative norms. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Group think in technical sense; • Anonymity issues; • No teacher data.
Chen et al, (2010)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative design; • full-time Chinese workers; • Research instrument: Chen et al. (2010) supervisor-related time control survey, and adaptations multiple instruments including Colquitt's (2001) justice scale. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perceived distributive justice moderated the relationships between perceived time control and job satisfaction and organizational commitment; • Relationship stronger when distributive justice was high. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cross-sectional design (causal relationships were inferred); • Common method variance; • Single-item scales were used instead of multiple scale items.
Chory and Hubbell, (2008)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative design; • Working adults from a variety of organizations; • Research instruments: Managerial Trustworthy Behaviors scale (MTB; Hubbell & Chory-Assad, 2005), OJ measure developed by researchers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Trust and justice are inextricably linked (supports work of Hoy and Tarter (2004)); • Justice and trust interacted to predict antisocial behaviors; • Trust mediated the relationships between justice and antisocial responses. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participants came from multiple organizations, limiting a more in-depth exploration of the specific processes at work; • Focused on one context, the performance appraisal, which was an infrequent event.
Chory and Westerman, (2009)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative design; • Working adults from a variety of organizations; • Research tools: Geddes and Linnchan's (1996) negative feedback measure of Chory and Westerman's (2009) measure of OJ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Negative feedback from managers predicts all three types of organizational justice. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • First test of negative feedback dimensions of scale developed for study.
Colquitt, (2001)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative design; • University students and automobile workers; • Confirmatory Factor analysis; • Research tool: Developed Colquitt's (2001) organizational justice scale. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reviewed literature for dimensionality of justice; • Found support for 4-factor scale for measuring justice (distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Further research to confirm construct validity; • Effect size inflation due to same source bias; • Disparity in how students and automobile workers interpret questions.
Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, (2001)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Meta-analysis of 183 justice studies (international and national studies). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Justice subsets are distinct and unique in terms of consequences; • Operationalization of terms 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inflation of self-report measures due to same source bias;

		<p>(distributive, procedural, interactional, and informational) may account for variance in studies;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Measuring for multiple subsets will help explain variance. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Meta-analysis requires judgment in terms of what to include and what not to include (this affects results)
Ehrhart, (2004)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quantitative design; Attempted to sample 3,914 grocery store employees (managers and workers); Research tools: Ehrhart (2004) servant leadership survey, Podsakoff et al (1990) OCB measure, and Colquitt's (2001) measure of justice. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> There is an association between servant leadership and procedural justice and unit-level OCB. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Low response rate; Limited generalizability of results (confined to grocery stores in one chain); Cross-sectional design (could not determine causality of relationships).
Farh, Earley & Lin, (1997)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quantitative design; 109 Chinese students enrolled in MBA program; 330 employees (workers and managers) employed in electronics industry; Research tools: Chinese OCB Scale, distributive justice measure adapted from Balkin and Gomez-Mejia (1990), procedural justice measure consistent with Moorman (1991), etc... 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Demographic variables matter; Results demonstrate that OJ (distributive and procedural) is most strongly related to citizenship behavior for individuals who endorse less traditional, or high modernity, values; Relationship between justice and citizenship behavior is stronger for men than for women. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Translation of research instruments from English to Chinese Results are limited to Chinese society.
Goodboy et al., (2008)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quantitative design; Full-time employees working in a variety of organizational settings; Research tools: Kassing's (1998) Organizational Dissent Scale and Colquitt's (2001) Measure of Organizational Justice. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Interactional/interpersonal justice is the strongest predictor of latent dissent 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Made generalizations about overall dissent when only pay and communication were assessed in terms of OJ and dissent was assessed in terms of multiple organizational issues (change, inefficiency, policies, decisions, etc.)
DiPaola & Guy (2009)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quantitative design; 30 Virginia public high schools (rural, suburban, urban); 988 teachers completed surveys; Schools ranged in size from 539 to 2098; Research tools: Omnibus T-scale, SCI, and OJ. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Correlation between OJ and school climate; Four factors of school climate (i.e., collegial leadership, teacher professionalism, academic press, and community climate) are positively influenced by organizational justice, with collegial leadership demonstrating the strongest relationship. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Convenience sample; Not randomly selected from a defined population, the external validity was affected and generalizability issues; Causal relationships cannot be determined as

			<p>correlational design;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Did not control for other variables impacting perceptions of OJ.
Henle, (2005)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative design; • Employed undergraduate business and psychology students and known associates; • Research Tools: Organizational justice measure of Colquitt (2001), etc. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personality traits mediate the relationship between organizational justice and workplace deviant behaviors; • Socialization: Low socialization and low perceptions of interactional justice increases frequency of deviant behaviors; High impulsivity and low interactional justice increases frequency of deviant behavior; • Distributive and procedural justice did not interact with either personality traits in predicting of deviant behaviors. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participants were likely discreet in degree to which they exhibit deviance (conservative results); • Correlational design (cannot determine causal relationships); • Results may not be generalized to older full-time workers.
Hoy and Tarter, (2004)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative design; • 75 middle schools in Ohio (rural, suburban, and urban schools); • Research tools: Development of OJI based on 10 principles. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Surveyed literature base and found evidence for 10 principles on organizational justice; • Trust and justice are linked. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Very few studies examine justice in schools. • Need for further study to confirm construct validity.
Moorman, (1991)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative design; • Employees from two medium-sized companies in the midwestern US; • Research instruments: Distributive Justice Index of Price and Mueller (1986), procedural justice measure based on Greenberg (1990) and Tyler and Bies (1990), interactional justice measure based on Bies et al (1987), etc. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perceptions of procedural justice influences OCB; • Perceptions of distributive justice failed to influence OCB. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Chemical industry (limited generalizability); • Cross-sectional design (causal relationships were inferred)
Moorman, Blakely & Niehoff, (1998)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative design; • Civilian subordinates at a military hospital and their supervisors; • Research tools: Moorman and Blakely's (1995) OCB scale, Niehoff and Moorman's (1993) procedural justice scale, and Eisenberger et al's. (1986) organizational support scale. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Procedural justice mediates the relationship between perceived support and OCB. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Unique population (military hospital) = limited generalizability; • Common method bias (obtained the OCB ratings from the supervisors, but OJ measures from subordinates; • Cross-sectional data (could not determine causality).
Organ and Moorman, (1993)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Literature review of empirical findings (e.g., Adams 1965; Greenberg, 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • OJ is a greater influence over organizational citizenship behavior than job 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Individuals respond to fairness in a holistic sense

	<p>1990; Leventhal, 1980; Moorman, 1991; Niehoff and Moorman, 1991, etc.).</p>	<p>satisfaction.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Procedural and interactional justice are more likely to predict OCB than distributive justice; • Variance in perceptions of distributive justice and the capacity for procedural justice to mitigate unfair outcomes may explain this discrepancy. 	<p>rather than in pieces;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Need for a general notion of fairness.
<p>Shapira-Lishchinsky (2007); Shapira-Lishchinsky (2009)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative design; • Israeli teachers • Research tools: Adaptations of English Language survey instruments (Ex: Justice Scale of Moorman (1991)). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender matters; • Procedural injustice decreases female commitment; • Distributive justice increases female commitment. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adaptations of English Language measures; • Limited to Israeli context; • Same source bias.
<p>Titrek, (2010)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative design; • Turkish Teachers • Research tools: Adaptations of Donovan et al, (1998) by Wasti (2001). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demographic and cultural variables matter. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adaptation of English Language measures; • Makes generalizations regarding OJ without exploring procedural and distributive justice (examined only interpersonal fairness of interactional justice); • Limited to Turkish context.

Appendix F

Summary of Organizational Justice Studies in the Area of Education

<p>Aydin and Karaman-Kepenekci, (2008)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Qualitative design; • Focus group interviews and conceptual analysis (coding); • Interview questions focused on distributive, procedural, and interactional justice; • Sample: 11 Turkish public elementary school principals. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perceived injustices (distributive and interactional) diminishes teacher commitment and citizenship behavior, increases teacher dissent and frequency of negative norms (e.g., gossip).
<p>Guy, (2007)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative correlational study; • Multiple regression analysis (impact of two independent variables on a dependent variable); • Sample: 30 Virginia public high schools (rural, suburban, urban); • Sample: 988 teachers completed surveys; • Sample: Schools ranged in size from 539 to 2098; • Research instruments (Omnibus T-scale, SCI, and OJ). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Robust/positive correlation between organizational justice and school climate; • Four factors of school climate (i.e., collegial leadership, teacher professionalism, academic press, and community climate) are positively influenced by organizational justice, with collegial leadership demonstrating the strongest relationship.
<p>Hoy and Tarter, (2004)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative correlational study • Multiple regression analysis and path analysis; • Sample: 75 middle schools in Ohio (rural, suburban, and urban school districts); • Research instrument: Development of OJI based on 10 principles found in literature (factor analysis and alpha coefficient of reliability); • Other research instruments: Omnibus T-Scale (Hoy and Tschannen-Moran, 1999) and OCI (Hoy et al., 2002). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Surveyed literature base and found evidence for 10 principles on organizational justice; • Trust and justice are inextricably linked.
<p>Poole, (2007)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Theoretical/Scholarly study 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Group dynamics influences perceptions of justice; • Groups associate leader with group values and norms; • Unfair treatment by a school principal may lead group to deem organization as unfair.
<p>Shapira-Lishchinsky (2007)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative correlational study; • Multiple regression analysis; • Sample: 1,016 teachers from 35 high schools in Israel; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender matters; • Organizational commitment partially mediated the relation between perceived distributive

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Research Instruments: Self-report scales on lateness/single item adapted from Blau (1994) and Neal and colleagues (1993), Justice Scale of Moorman (1991) and Commitment Scale of Meyer and Allen (1997) translated into Hebrew. 	<p>justice and lateness;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No such effect was found for men.
Shapira-Lishchinsky (2009)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative correlational study; • Multiple regression analysis; • Sample: 1, 016 Israeli high school teachers, 68% female and 32% male; • Research Instruments: Justice Scale of Moorman (1991) and Commitment Scale of Meyer and Allen (1997) translated into Hebrew. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demographic variables matter; • There are differences in how males and females respond to justice types; • Organizational commitment fully mediates the relationship between female teacher intent to leave and distributive justice; • High-levels of distributive justice increases commitment on part of female teachers • Low-levels of; distributive justice decreases commitment on the part of male teachers.
Titrek, (2010)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative correlational study; • Multiple regression analysis; • Sample: 1,006 school teachers and managers at primary schools, high schools, and vocational schools by geographic and cultural regions; • Research instruments: Donovan et al (1998) Perceptions of Fair Interpersonal Treatment Scale adapted to Turkish by Wasti (2001). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demographic variables matter; • Culture and geography influence perceptions of justice in schools.