

**VICARIOUS JUSTICE AND WORK OUTCOMES:  
THE ROLE OF SPECIFIC EMOTIONS**

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THE ROLE OF SPECIFIC EMOTIONS**

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## **Abstract**

This study used an emotion-centered model (Spector & Fox, 2002) to examine predictions about the effect of customer vicarious justice on the three domains of job performance: task performance, counterproductive work behavior (CWB) and organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Service-oriented employees ( $N = 196$ ) completed a survey assessing their justice perceptions of their organizations' treatment of customers, emotions at work, and several work outcomes. Employees who perceived their organization as treating customers unfairly (vicarious injustice interactional) engaged in more CWB, while employees who perceived fair treatment of customers engaged in more OCB. Different emotions mediated these relationships. Anger and guilt mediated the relationship between vicarious interactional injustice and employee CWB. Pride mediated the relationship between vicarious interactional justice and employee OCB. It was also expected that employees who perceived fair treatment of customers would also exhibit better task performance; however, this hypothesis was not supported.

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## 1. Introduction

According to the deonance model of justice, fair treatment is considered a universal human right and *all* individuals deserve to be treated with dignity and respect (Folger, 1994, 1998). Because of its universality, reactions to injustice are not limited to one's own injustice, but also to witnessing justice or injustice directed towards other people. This perception of another's (un)fair treatment is termed *vicarious justice* (Kray & Lind, 2002) and has also been called *other-oriented justice* (van den Bos & Lind, 2001) or *third-party observer perspective* (Skarlicki, Ellard, & Kellen, 1998). The importance of examining vicarious justice is highlighted by van den Bos and Lind's (2001) assertion that the effects of vicarious justice may equal those of personal (mis)treatment. In fact, research supporting the deonance model and vicarious justice has found that witnessing the unfair treatment of others can cause a variety of reactions ranging from anger (De Cremer & Van Hiel, 2006) to willingness to punish the perpetrator (Turillo, Folger, Lavelle, Umphress, & Gee, 2002).

Although vicarious justice has been applied in an organizational context by examining the effects of injustice directed towards coworkers (De Cremer, Stinglhamber, & Eisenberger, 2005), vicarious justice research has not examined employees' responses to the (un)fair treatment of customers. For example, if an organization treats customers unfairly, perhaps by overpricing products or services, this may elicit negative reactions from employees. Alternatively, fair treatment of customers (e.g., being truthful and honest during interactions) could elicit a positive reaction from employees. Therefore, the first purpose of this study was to examine employees' perceptions of their organizations' treatment of customers and how those perceptions affect task performance and the voluntary employee behaviours of counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) and



organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB). This topic warrants examination as organizations could benefit from a better understanding of why employees do, or do not, engage in these behaviors. More knowledge about what could increase OCB and task performance and decrease CWB could potentially lead to improved organizational effectiveness as previous research indicates that deviant workplace behaviors have a negative effect on business unit performance (Dunlop & Lee, 2004) and organizational citizenship behaviors positively affect organizational performance (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997).

The deonance model predicts an emotional reaction in response to (un)fair treatment of the self and of others (Folger, 1998). Spector and Fox (2002), in their emotion-centred model of voluntary work behaviour, describe emotions as mediating the relationship between justice and work behaviours. Emotions, therefore, are the mechanisms that explain how experiences of vicarious justice can lead to certain workplace behaviours. For example, the unjust treatment of others can elicit feelings of anger (Folger, Cropanzano, & Goldman, 2005), and anger directed towards one's organization may in turn lead to acts of retribution (or counterproductive work behavior; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). Thus, the second purpose of this study was to examine the mediating role of emotions in the relationship between vicarious justice on behalf of the customer and employees' workplace behaviours of CWB, OCB, and task performance. By exploring emotion as a potential mediator, this study heeds the advice of De Cremer and Van Hiel (2001), who state: "It is clear that to advance our knowledge of the effects of the fairness experiences of others, one's own emotional experiences have to be assessed" (p. 234).

To examine the theoretical relationship between vicarious justice, emotion, and workplace behaviors, this study used an emotion-centered model of job performance (Spector & Fox, 2002). This model is used to generate predictions regarding the effect of vicarious justice on the three domains of job performance: counterproductive work behaviour (CWB), organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB), and task performance (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). Counterproductive work behaviors are voluntary behaviors that harm the well-being of the organization (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Organizational citizenship behaviors refer to discretionary, extra-role behaviors that relate and contribute to the effective functioning of an organization but are not explicitly required (Organ, 1988a, 1997). Task performance is defined as activities that are formally recognized as part of the job and that contribute to the organization's technical core (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993).

The study's research model is depicted in Figure 1. Hypotheses are developed in Chapter 2 and the model is assessed in Chapters 3 through 5 with a sample of customer service agents ( $N = 196$ ) from Alberta, Canada.

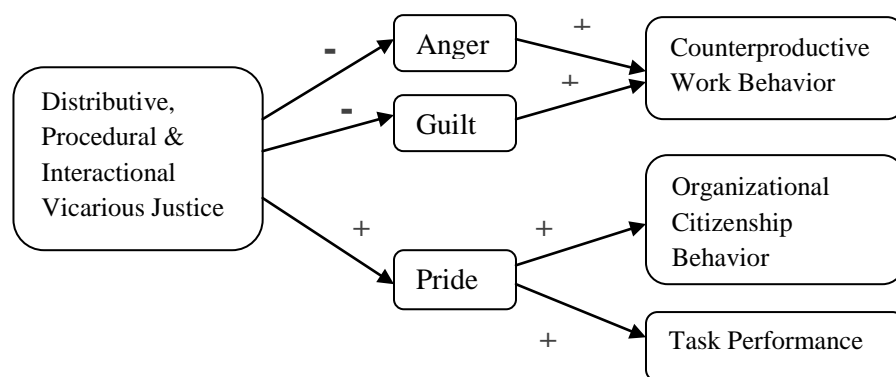


Figure 1.1 Proposed model.

## 2. Review of the Literature

### *Organizational Justice and Fairness Theories*

Modern organizational justice research typically incorporates the three major dimensions of organizational justice: distributive, procedural, and interactional (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2005). Distributive justice is the perceived fairness of the distribution of outcomes (Adams, 1965; Leventhal, 1976). Procedural justice is the perceived fairness of the procedures used to determine those outcomes (Leventhal, 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Interactional justice refers to the behavior of the individuals carrying out the decisions and how those individuals treat people who are subject to their authority, decisions, and actions (Bies & Moag, 1986). Interactional justice can be subdivided into interpersonal and informational justice where informational justice concerns the explanations for procedures or events and interpersonal justice concerns treating people with dignity and respect (Colquitt, 2001).

Experts agree that one of the fundamental questions for organizational justice researchers is *why* people care about fairness (Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel, & Rupp, 2001). One possibility is that people as rational decision makers care about justice because of what it can do for them. This *self-interest* perspective lies behind two theories of fairness that have dominated organizational justice research – the instrumental model (Tyler, 1987) and the interpersonal, or group-value, model (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler & Lind, 1992). More recently, research supporting the existence an additional model that does not rely on self-interest resulted in the development of the deonance model (Folger, 1998; Folger, 2001). These three models, along with a detailed description of the theoretical progression of the deonance model, are described next.

## *Theories of Fairness*

*Instrumental model.* This theory maintains that justice is important to people because it serves their own interests (Greenberg & Folger, 1983; Tyler, 1987; Tyler et al., 1996). Individuals care about justice because it is a mechanism through which they can have control over their outcomes, which in turn is assumed to maximize the likelihood of desired outcomes (Greenberg & Folger, 1983; Tyler, 1987, 1994).

*Group-value model.* According to this theory, justice is important because it provides information on one's standing within, and value to, a social group (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler, 1994; Tyler & Blader, 2002; Tyler & Caine, 1981; Tyler & Lind, 1992). Fair treatment has the ability to increase one's feelings of self-worth because it indicates that one is valued by the group (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler & Lind, 1992). People's natural tendency to interact within social groups contributes to an important part of an individual's identity; therefore, individuals are motivated to pay special attention to the signs and symbols, such as fair treatment, that provide information about their place within groups (Tyler, 1994). The importance of social groups to one's identity causes people to behave in ways that preserve or promote their status within that group (Tyler & Blader, 2002).

*Deonance model of fairness.* The deonance model is based on the assumption that justice is grounded in ethical norms concerning how other people should be treated (Folger, 1994, 1998, 2001; Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). The term "deonance" was chosen because of the theory's emphasis on moral obligations between people (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998); the word "deon" means obligation in Greek (Cropanzano et al., 2003). This theory proposes that individuals also care about following the norms of

fairness because of a moral obligation that “it [is] the right thing to do” (Cropanzano & Rupp, 2002, p. 234). This approach theorizes that people care about justice because it provides basic respect for human dignity and worth (Folger, 1994, 1998). Unfair treatment is an affront to these beliefs as it violates one’s dignity and “human dignity seems to be one of the few common values in our world of philosophical pluralism” (Spiegelberg, 1970, p. 62). Alternatively, fair behavior fulfills an individual’s interest in following norms concerning moral and ethical conduct (Folger, 1998). This is because people are motivated toward fairness because it is the right thing to do (Cropanzano & Rupp, 2002; Folger, 2001). The decision about what is fair or unfair is based on *a priori* standards that are derived from some value-based system of belief (Cropanzano et al., 2003).

People are not merely motivated by personal benefits, such as group standing or control over outcomes. According to deontological principles, moral standards provide motivation for their own sake and, despite the possibility of consequences, may trigger equity-inducing behavior (Cropanzano et al., 2003). Evidence provided by experimental studies supports the deonance model’s notion that people are motivated by something other than self-interest (Kahneman, Knetsch, & Thaler, 1986; Turillo et al. 2002).

Kahneman et al. (1986) determined that there are situations where people enforce principles of fairness even though doing so is in opposition to their own self-interest. In their study, student participants were told to divide 20 dollars between themselves and an unknown student. If the unknown student accepted what the first student offered, each student kept their portions. If the unknown student declined what the first student offered, then neither student got paid. The majority of students (76%) chose a fair split

(\$10/\$10) even though it was not in their best economic interests. This behavior was not motivated by instrumental concerns (money) nor was it motivated by interpersonal reasons (the other student was unknown) however, the fact that 76% of participants chose to divide the money fairly is evidence that there is a reason for this behavior. Of further importance, is that of the 24% of students who were offered less than their fair share of the \$20, a substantial portion of participants preferred to take nothing rather than split the \$20 unequally with the greedy student. Here again, participants behaved out of something other than their economic interests. A second part of the experiment tested participants' willingness to give up a dollar to punish an unfair allocator and reward a fair one. Seventy-four percent chose to split 10 dollars with a fair individual rather than split 12 dollars with an unfair individual. The choice to sacrifice a dollar to punish an unfair individual is more evidence of how fairness norms are enforced despite economic incentives to do otherwise.

Turillo et al. (2002) found almost identical results when replicating Kahneman et al.'s (1986) study. Seventy-three percent of participants chose to divide 10 dollars evenly with a fair individual rather than 12 with an unfair individual. They concluded that this successful replication is strong evidence that people are not only interested in fairness for their own sake but are also interested in doing "good for goodness's sake" (Turillo et al., 2002, p. 844). Therefore, fairness appears to be an end in itself rather than for only self-interested purposes. Turillo and colleagues also added to Kahneman and colleagues' original design by setting up a scenario where participants had to decide how to divide money between themselves and two other people (Person A and Person B). Person A was a manager that took pleasure in belittling and ridiculing employees and Person B was

a manager selected at random with whom no information was given. The participants' first option was to distribute 18 dollars equally between themselves, Person A and Person B (six dollars each). The second option was to give themselves five dollars, Person A zero dollar and Person B five dollars. Using this design, 50 percent of participants chose the second option, preferring to punish the ridiculing manager despite the cost to them as individuals. This is lower than the 73 percent self-sacrificial punishment of the replication study, but is still high considering that their decision ostensibly cost them and another manager each one dollar. The finding that half the participants chose to punish injustice is important because it occurred despite that doing so also cost Person B. This is contrary to the rationale behind the economic theory of *pareto optimality* which states that people are motivated for maximal benefit to all, equal benefit to all, and greatest good for the greatest number (Turillo et al., 2002). Participants chose to punish an offender despite that doing so cost not only themselves but also the neutral individual (Person B) thus, demonstrating the power of vicarious injustice to elicit punishing behavior.

Research on those that witness layoffs also adds to the literature on vicarious justice as individuals may react negatively when others are perceived to be unfairly dismissed (Brockner & Greenberg, 1990; Brockner, Grover, Reed, DeWitt, & O'Malley, 1987; Skarlicki, Ellard, & Kelln, 1998). For example, individuals were less likely to be interested in being a customer or an employee at an organization that they perceived as having had unfairly laid off employees (Skarlicki, Ellard, & Kelln, 1998). The authors comment that uninvolved observers are affected by the fates of others because the necessity for fair procedures is a powerful socialized influence and a basic moral value.

Additionally, research has demonstrated that the extent to which survivor work performance and organizational commitment is affected after layoffs is dependent upon the extent to which the survivors identified with the layoff victims (Brockner et al., 1987). The research on layoff-survivors takes a slightly different approach however, as it relies on the group value perspective (relational model of justice) to explain why layoff survivors would react. Layoff survivors are said to react to injustices that occur within their “moral community” and only individuals that are perceived to be similar, or psychologically close, are considered members of one’s moral community (Brockner, 1990). Accordingly, people are willing to tolerate injustice when those that are treated unfairly are outside their moral community. This theory differs from the deonance model that states that everyone is entitled to fairness and people will react because socially and morally engrained fairness norms are not followed.

These studies are said to contain “evidence [that] is in clear opposition to both the instrumental and relational models of justice” (Cropanzano & Rupp, 2002, p. 233). Observers of the justice experiences of others chose to punish unfairness (or reward fairness) despite the fact that they had no relationship with either party involved (no interpersonal motivator) and there was no benefit to themselves for doing so (no instrumental motivator). Prior self-interested theories do not explain this behavior as they overlook the fact that justice is also concerned with what people view as ethically appropriate (Cropanzano et al., 2003; Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). People respond to the justice experiences of others because of universal morality-based justice concerns (Folger, 1998). In violating norms of fairness, an individual makes the statement that he or she is above the rules of others as if “superior to moral authority” (Folger,



Cropanzano, & Goldman, 2005, p. 217). Philosopher Immanuel Kant stated that “Every man is to be respected as an absolute end in himself; and it is a crime against the dignity that belongs to him as a human being, to use him as a mere means for some external purpose” (as cited in Bies, 2001, p. 89). An individual who willfully pursues self-interest with indifference for others will cause a reaction in observers because of the blatant disregard for common moral standards (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). In essence, the deonance model provides an explanation for reactions to the justice experiences of others (fair or unfair) that the self-interested models lack.

#### *Hypothesis Development*

Since the development of the deonance model, several studies have added to our knowledge of vicarious justice. De Cremer, Stinglhamber, and Eisenberger, (2005) determined that witnessing the justice experiences of others emotionally impacts the observer. De Cremer and Van Hiel (2006) expanded on that research by providing some evidence of the mediating effects of emotion caused by vicarious justice on behavior. Specifically, their research established links between vicarious justice, emotion, and either cooperative or withdrawal behavior. Although this study was completed using scenarios and undergraduate students, the findings are an important contribution to organizational behavior research because cooperative and withdrawal behaviors are relevant to job performance (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). However, job performance, specifically, has yet to be examined in combination with vicarious justice. Experiments such as Kahneman and colleagues (1986) and Turillo and colleagues (2002) provide a foundation for “understanding what third parties *are capable of doing*, but [...] they fail to inform us as to what individuals *actually will do* in the workplace, leaving a significant

gap in our theorizing and research” (Skarlicki & Kulik, 2005, p. 214). There is some empirical support for a possible link between vicarious justice and job performance. Colquitt (2004) found evidence that role performance in teams depends on one’s perception of how fairly team members are treated. Specifically, individuals perform better when both they and their teammates are treated fairly. Additional support for a relationship between vicarious justice and job performance comes from research linking personal experiences of organizational (in)justice to job performance. A summary of this research is outlined below.

### *Organizational Justice and Job Performance*

An individual’s overall contribution to an organization can be conceived of as a composite of three job performance domains: counterproductive work behaviors (CWB) organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) and task performance (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). Research evidence links personal reactions to (in)justice to each of the three primary performance domains. Specifically, an individual’s perception of unfair treatment from their organization has been linked to *more* CWB, *less* OCB, and *poorer* task performance.

*Counterproductive work behavior.* People who experience unfair treatment are more likely to quit their jobs, display lower levels of commitment, or engage in illegal behavior (Greenberg, 1993). Perceptions of low distributive justice have been linked to numerous anti-social or hostile behaviors in organizations (Giacalone & Greenberg, 1996), such as revenge (Bies, Tripp, & Kramer, 1997), employee theft (Greenberg, 1993), sabotage (Ambrose, Seabright, & Schminke, 2002), and consideration of litigation (Goldman, 2003). In a meta-analysis, negative reactions at work (e.g. organizational

retaliatory behaviors) correlated with procedural justice ( $r = -.27$ ) and distributive justice ( $r = -.26$ ) (Colquitt et al., 2001). This is because individuals who perceive unfair treatment are much more likely to “strike back” against an organization or its members, as these behaviors may be an attempt to restore the employee’s sense of equity (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). Alternatively, when employees perceive their organization as fair they are less likely to engage in disruptive behavior (Greenberg & Lind, 2000).

*Organizational citizenship behavior.* Perceptions of fair treatment have been related to more organizational commitment and citizenship behavior (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998; Moorman, 1991). Fassina, Jones, and Uggerslev (2008) suggested that employees’ perceptions of fairness are one of the most robust attitudinal predictors of OCB. For example, perceptions of justice successfully predict OCB in a number of studies (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001). Furthermore, research by Skarlicki and Latham (1996, 1997) found that, following leader training on issues of fairness, subordinates displayed higher levels of perceived fairness and OCB. Meta-analytic evidence demonstrates a positive correlation between organizational citizenship behaviors with procedural justice perceptions ( $r = .23$ ) and also with distributive justice perceptions ( $r = .20$ ) (Colquitt et al., 2001). One salient reason for why fairness leads to increased OCB is because of a social exchange relationship between the employee and the organization (Lavelle, Rupp, & Brockner, 2007). That is, the employee views just behavior as part of an exchange relationship which is rewarded by reciprocating OCB. Additionally, it is thought that in conditions that are perceived to be unfair individuals may withdraw their OCB as an act of revenge (Fassina et al., 2008).

*Task performance.* Task performance is linked to both procedural justice ( $r = .30$ ) and distributive justice ( $r = .13$ ) (Colquitt et al., 2001). In a more recent study, participants' own perceptions of procedural justice interacted with their perceptions of others' procedural justice to positively predict participant role performance (Colquitt, 2004). Furthermore, because service agent attitudes impact customer attitudes, service agents who are unhappy with their organizations have lower task performance (Bowen, Gilliland, & Folger, 1999). Finally, Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, and Taylor (2000) found that task performance (as rated by the supervisor) was negatively related to employees' perceptions of interactional injustice ( $r = -.19$ ).

#### *Vicarious Justice and Job Performance Hypotheses*

Previous research has established that individuals care about, and react to, the justice experiences of others. Research has yet to connect vicarious justice to each type of job performance: CWB, OCB, and task performance. This is surprising considering the evidence from Colquitt (2004) linking vicarious justice to team role performance. Finally, the volume of research linking personal justice to job performance indicates a need to address this area.

Research on vicarious justice has been limited in focus in that the victims of injustice have been constrained to fellow students or employees (Kray & Lind, 2002; Lind, Kray, & Thompson, 1998). The current study employed the concept of vicarious justice for a relevant "other" external to the organization: the customer. The "justice experience of the customer" is how fairly the organization treats its customers. For example, the organization may overcharge for products or services, there may not be an outlet for customers to express their opinions regarding their experience, some customers

may be treated better than others, the organization may be biased against some customers, managers may not respond to customer complaints with dignity or respect, or there may be little information available as to why a service is delivered in a certain manner. It is likely that employees are aware of the extent to which their organization is fair to its customers. Customer service agents in particular would be the most familiar with the organization's treatment towards customers not only because of their awareness of the organization's customer service policies and procedures but also because their daily interactions with customers gives them the most opportunities to evaluate customers' reactions to such treatment.

This research examines how job performance is affected by one's perceptions of customers' justice experiences. If the organization treats the customer unfairly, the service agent may engage in more organization-directed CWB to punish an organization that places itself above the universal moral code of fairness. In this way, a service agent can become a type of vigilante using CWB behaviors to restore a sense of equity (Bies et al., 1997). If the organization treats its customers fairly, the service agent may respond by increasing organization-directed OCB as a thank-you to a virtuous organization (Lavelle et al., 2007). Two factors of OCB are examined in this study: conscientiousness and civic virtue. Conscientiousness (Organ, 1988b) refers to behaviors that go beyond what is minimally required relating to extra effort, attendance, breaks, and general rule compliance. Service agents may respond to a fair organization with these extra-role behaviors as a way of reciprocal "good behavior." Civic virtue (Organ, 1988b) refers to behaviors that are centred on the life of the organization such as participation in meetings and keeping alert to company change. Service agents may go so far as to directly reward

the organization for its fairness by promoting or helping the organization. Similar to how a service agent might reward an organization, a service agent might also take on the task of promoting adherence to moral code by acting in a manner consistent with fairness to all. This could translate into increased customer service task performance as service agents must also live up to this standard of fairness. Therefore, it is hypothesized that service agents who perceive the organization as exhibiting higher levels of fairness towards the customer will exhibit better performance in the three domains (i.e., *less* CWB, *more* OCB, *higher* task performance). In this study, fairness is defined as three separate factors (distributive, procedural, and interactional justice) as in other justice research (Colquitt et al., 2005). However, because the concept of vicarious justice on behalf of the customer has not been examined previously, it is difficult to make specific predictions about the relative strength of each fairness factor, so no such predictions are made.

*H1a-c: Service agents' perceptions of their organization as exhibiting lower levels of a) distributive justice, b) procedural justice, and c) interactional justice towards customers will be positively related to CWB.*

*H2a-c: Service agents' perceptions of their organization as exhibiting higher levels of a) distributive justice, b) procedural justice, and c) interactional justice towards customers will be positively related to OCB-Conscientiousness.*

*H2d-f: Service agents' perceptions of their organization as exhibiting higher levels of d) distributive justice, e) procedural justice, and f) interactional justice towards customers will be positively related to OCB-Civic virtue.*

*H3a-c: Service agents' perceptions of their organization as exhibiting higher levels of a) distributive justice, b) procedural justice, and c) interactional justice towards customers will be positively related to task performance.*

### *The Mediating Role of Emotions*

As outlined above, it is expected that others' justice experiences will impact one's performance. To understand why this occurs, the mechanism through which vicarious justice affects job performance needs to be examined. According to Affective Events Theory (AET), affective reactions mediate the effect of work events on behaviors (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Previous research has demonstrated this in that the job satisfaction of customer service agents working in call centers is impacted by the emotions they experience at work (Wegge, van Dick, Fisher, West, & Dawson, 2006). Being witness to multiple instances where the customer is put second to the organization's interests could impact service agents' emotions and subsequently their behaviour. This study examines the possibility that emotion is a mediating variable between vicarious justice and job performance. Research connecting vicarious justice to negative emotions and negative emotions to counterproductive work behaviors is discussed below. This is followed by a discussion of research connecting vicarious justice to positive emotions and positive emotions to organizational citizenship behaviors and task performance.

A multitude of negative emotions may be experienced when one is working in an environment where one is constantly witnessing the unfair treatment of others. De Cremer and Van Hiel (2006) found that negative emotions (a combination of anger and irritation) mediated the relationship between the unfair treatment of others and desire to

quit a task. Past research has connected negative emotion to counterproductive work behavior. For example, Fox, Spector, and Miles (2001) determined that a global measure of negative emotion correlated with organization-directed CWB ( $r = .45$ ) and person-directed CWB ( $r = .30$ ). Furthermore, a global measure of positive emotion was negatively correlated with organization-directed CWB ( $r = -.16$ ). This research paved the way for Spector and Fox's (2002) emotion-centred model of voluntary work behaviour. This model theorizes that emotion mediates the relationship between one's appraisal of a situation (e.g. unfair treatment) and CWB. Aligned with this, Barclay, Skarlicki, and Pugh (2005) found that a combined measure of anger and hostility mediated the relationship between the interaction of outcome favorability and interactional justice and organizational retaliatory behavior. This general research concerning negative emotions opens the door for research on specific emotions, as it has been suggested that within the justice literature a number of emotions remain to be measured differing in specificity and type (Mikula, Scherer, & Athenstaedt, 1998; Spector & Fox, 2002). It is important to examine specific emotions as presently we are unable to distinguish and compare the types of emotions that result from (in)justice (Mikula, Scherer, & Athenstaedt, 1998).

### *Anger*

According to the deonance model, emotions can be influenced even when an injustice does not affect an individual personally (Ellard & Skarlicki, 2002; Turillo et al., 2002). Reactions of third party witnesses are more than empathy towards the victim as they also include wrath about the violation of fairness norms (Bies & Tripp, 2001, 2002; Folger, 1998). This phenomenon is referred to as the "deontic response" and is often accompanied with a burning desire to see violators punished (Folger, 1998). These



strongly felt emotions can prompt action tendencies (Folger et al., 2005) such as acts of retribution (Bies, 1987). Past research indicates that individuals may respond with aggressive retaliation to those who disregard moral-based norms (DaGloria & DeRidder, 1977, 1979). To instigate retaliatory anger, it is necessary that blame be assigned for morally prohibited conduct because unintended, or accidental, unfair treatment does not result in anger from witnesses (Aquino, Tripp, & Bies, 2001; Folger & Cropanzano, 2001; Folger & Skarlicki, 1998; Turillo et al., 2002).

Empirically, the connection between vicarious justice and anger has been examined by De Cremer and Van Hiel (2006), as described above. Studies have also connected anger to counterproductive work behavior. For example, Storms and Spector (1987) found support for the relationship between workplace frustration and negative behavioral reactions that characterize CWB (interpersonal aggression, hostility, sabotage, and withdrawal). Feelings of frustration on the job have been connected to interpersonal aggression, hostility and complaints, and intention to quit (Chen & Spector, 1992). Furthermore, the authors found that anger on the job was significantly related to sabotage, interpersonal aggression, hostility and complaints, theft, absenteeism, and intention to quit. Fox and Spector (1999) provided further evidence for the relationship between frustration and CWB (both organization and co-worker directed;  $r = .36$  and  $r = .23$ , respectively).

According to Bies and colleagues (1997), anger mediates the relationship between experiencing a personal offense and revenge. The essence of their argument is that, through the justification process, employees can convince themselves that illicit behaviors such as theft are reasonable and “forgivable” given the specific circumstances.

They may view these actions as a means of restoring equity (Greenberg & Scott, 1996). Anger may therefore mediate the relationship between being witness to another's offense and revenge. The proposed connection between vicarious justice, anger, and counterproductive work behavior has been examined in one study. Goldman (2003) found that state anger (subjective feelings of annoyance, irritation, fury, and rage related to a particular set of events) partially mediated the relationship between perceived injustice following co-worker layoffs and legal claiming. Legal claiming (legal action to obtain payment from another party) may be considered a form of revenge against the organization.

As outlined above, the connection between vicarious injustice and anger has been made in past research, as has been the connection between anger and CWB. Research has yet to examine the mediating role of anger in the relationship between vicarious injustice and CWB. This examination is warranted in a customer service environment as service agents could potentially be angered by their organization's mistreatment of their customers. This is because the organization is placing itself above universal laws of fairness. Furthermore, service agents, presumably having been customers themselves at some point, may identify with any frustrations felt on behalf of the customer. It is thought that service agents will engage in retaliatory CWB against the organization as a result. In this way, engaging in CWB not only serves as revenge on behalf of the customer, but also serves as revenge on behalf of a service agent putting a wrongdoer back into place.

*H4a-c: Anger mediates the impact of vicarious justice a) distributive, b) procedural, and c) interactional on CWB such that the positive impact of*

*vicarious justice will be smaller or non-significant after controlling for the impact of anger.*

### *Guilt*

In vicarious justice research, the witness is most often studied as a neutral third party. There are, however, a few exceptions where the witness has a relationship to the victim and this is examined (De Cremer & van Hiel, 2006). A contribution of the current study is its consideration of the witness' relationship to the transgressor (or *enacting authority* in the case of a fair situation). The witness, as the employee of the transgressor, could experience emotional ramifications resulting from that connection. The organization's unfair treatment of customers could possibly cause the employee to feel "guilty by association" (Doosje, Branscombe, Spears, & Manstead, 1998). Guilt, as a self-conscious emotion, is strongly tied to our perceptions of what other people think of us (Tangney, 1999). It has been argued that our interpretation of others' perceptions of us can cause guilty or ashamed feelings even though we ourselves have done nothing wrong (Leary, 2004). Guilty feelings experienced at work could have implications for counterproductive work behaviors. For example, perhaps a server believes the organization overprices a particular dish, feels guilty about the pricing, and so chooses to give the customer an extra large portion to restore equity. Bank tellers may choose to omit required fees that they feel are unfair. These examples are actions that serve to alleviate guilt by benefiting the customer as the victim. Furthermore, service agents that feel guilty because of their association with an unfair organization may hold the organization responsible for their negative feelings and therefore, retaliate with CWB. In this case, service agents may feel counterproductive work behaviors are justified because it was the organization that "made them feel that way." This is aligned with researchers'

suggestion that guilt is a possible mediator between injustice and retaliatory behaviors because of the potential for guilt to turn into blame (Barclay et al., 2005).

*H5a-c: Guilt mediates the impact of vicarious justice a) distributive, b) procedural, and c) interactional on CWB such that the positive impact of vicarious justice will be smaller or non-significant after controlling for the impact of guilt.*

In the same way that people experience negative emotion in reaction to others' unjust experiences, theory suggests that people will experience positive emotion in reaction to others' just experiences. Blau (1964) states, "since fairness is a social norm that prescribes just treatment as a moral principle ... one whose dealings are fair earn general social approval" (p. 157). It may be the impressive nature of choosing the "moral high road" that evokes a positive response. This is important because positive emotions have implications for job performance (Lyubomirsky, King, & Diener, 2005).

There is also empirical support for the relationship between vicarious justice and positive emotions. De Cremer and colleagues (2005) found that personal experiences regarding procedural justice led to more positive emotions at work when other coworkers similarly experienced fair organizational procedures. De Cremer and Van Hiel (2006) provided evidence for the mediating role of positive emotion (in this case, a combination of happy and satisfied) between others' fair treatment and cooperative/helping behaviors.

Specifically, factors of OCB that are organization directed, such as conscientiousness and civic virtue, are thought to be the most likely to be impacted by vicarious justice. This is because it is the organization that treats the customer fairly, and thus, it is the organization that is most likely to become the target of positive behaviours (OCB-O, or organization-directed OCB).

Empirical studies have provided support that positive affective states successfully predict the likelihood of one engaging in OCB (Ilies, Scott, & Judge, 2006) and employees are more likely to engage in organizational spontaneity (i.e., OCB) due to their positive mood states (George & Brief, 1992). Previous research also provides evidence that individuals with positive feelings are more likely to engage in altruistic and other-helping behaviors (Clark & Isen, 1982). Furthermore, positive mood states at work correlate with supervisor-reported prosocial organizational behaviors (George, 1991). This study expands upon previous research by examining the effect that vicarious justice that leads to the positive emotion pride has on OCB.

### *Pride*

As addressed above, a contribution of this study is its consideration of the witness' relationship to the transgressor (or *enacting authority* in the case of a fair situation). It is likely that one would feel proud to be an employee of an organization that treats its customers fairly, as people tend to enjoy basking in the reflected glory (or in this case "moral goodness") of others (Cialdini et al., 1976). Compared with nine other emotions, pride is one of the most frequently and intensely experienced emotions by salespeople (Verbeke, Belschak, & Bagozzi, 2004). This is because feelings of personal self-worth arise when employees achieve the standards they, or their managers, set (e.g., sales quotas). These positive feelings could be oriented toward the organization, thus causing an increase in OCB-O. Previous research has found a significant relationship between pride experienced at work in salespeople and several dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviours, including civic virtue (Verbeke et al., 2004). This could occur because an employee, as a proud member of the organization, wishes to

contribute to its future growth and success. Conscientiousness too, could be affected by feelings of pride at work. Pride, as a positive emotion, triggers non-selfish and altruistic urges (Verbeke et al., 2004). If service agents are feeling altruistic, they may be more likely to do additional tasks to help out more than is required.

Therefore, this research examines pride as a mediator between vicarious justice and both civic virtue and conscientiousness, thus answering the call of Seligman (2002) for more research on the effects of positive emotions and addressing Tangney's (1999) comment that "pride remains an area wide open for empirical research" (p. 560).

*H6a-c: Pride mediates the impact of vicarious justice a) distributive, b) procedural, and c) interactional on OCB-conscientiousness such that the positive impact of vicarious justice will be smaller or non-significant after controlling for the impact of pride.*

*H7a-c: Pride mediates the impact of vicarious justice a) distributive, b) procedural, and c) interactional on OCB-civic virtue such that the positive impact of vicarious justice will be smaller or non-significant after controlling for the impact of pride.*

Research has also found that pride has a significant positive effect on the in-role performance of sales personnel (Verbeke et al., 2004). Specifically, it increases a salesperson's ability to use adaptive selling strategies, work hard, and feel self-efficacious. This is because pride functions as a resource, motivating employees and enhancing their goal attainment (Brown, Cron, & Slocum, 1997; Fredrickson, 2002). Positive, pleasant feelings such as "I feel proud" might cause a salesperson to say; "Now I feel confident that I can accomplish those tasks" (Verbeke et al., 2004, p. 392). Katzenbach (2003) suggests that it is pride, more than any other motivator, which fosters

cooperation/collective effort and individual effort. This is because employees are able to be emotionally involved in their company through the feelings of pride that they experience. In this way, pride is the emotional expression of individual commitment that motivates many of the front line people in sales and service (Katzenbach, 2003).

Pride in a fair organization may also affect more than citizenship behaviors. It is possible that proud employees may even have improved task performance. Service agents may feel they owe it to their organization to do a good job just as the organization owed the customer fair treatment. If their organization put in the appropriate time and effort to ensure their customers are treated fairly then a service agent may take pride in putting the same effort into their own work. The inclusion of pride as a mediating variable addresses Tracy and Robins' (2004) concern that self-conscious emotions (e.g., pride, guilt, and shame), although fundamentally important, have received relatively little attention compared to more basic emotions (e.g., sadness, joy).

*H8a-c: Pride mediates the impact of vicarious justice a) distributive, b) procedural, and c) interactional on task performance such that the positive impact of vicarious justice will be smaller or non-significant after controlling for the impact of pride.*

### 3. Method

#### *Sample*

A total of 234 service agents participated in the online survey. After removing 38 incomplete surveys (surveys with more than 10% of responses missing), the final sample consisted of 196 participants. Of the participants in the final sample, 17.1% came from the restaurant industry, 35.8% from the retail industry, 11.2% from the banking industry, 17.6% from the hotel industry and 18.2% from various other service industries (e.g., airlines, accounting firms, etc.).

The sample was predominantly female (77%), worked an average of 38 hours per week, had worked for their organization for an average of approximately 4.5 years, and as a service agent for an average of approximately 7.5 years. Employees ranged in age from 18 to 65 years ( $M = 27.89$ ,  $SD = 10.89$ ). In terms of education, 36.0% had high school diplomas or less, 42.9% had diplomas, 19.0% had bachelor degrees, and 2.1% had completed a master's or PhD. The majority of the employees reported their race as Caucasian (89.4%) followed by Asian, Pacific Islander or Middle Eastern (3.2%), Bi-racial or Multi-racial (2.6%), Aboriginal (2.1%), Hispanic/Latino (1.6%), and Black/African (1.1%).

#### *Procedure*

Participants were recruited using printed cards handed out to customer service representatives in the industries listed above. Cards were given to employees in positions where they regularly engaged in work duties requiring direct contact with customers, including either sales or service. The cards directed individuals to a web-based questionnaire. Individual responses were transmitted to a password-protected site that



was only accessible by the researchers. In addition to the card method, posters and a university notice board were used to advertise the study's website. The response rate is difficult to determine because of the use of several methods to collect participants. However, estimates using the card method place the response rate at approximately 23.4%. Following completion of the survey, all participants were offered the opportunity to be entered in a draw for a \$100 cash prize.

### *Measures*

#### *Predictor Variables*

Much of the previous research concerning vicarious justice has been experimental (e.g., Ellard & Skarlicki, 2002; Kahneman et al., 1986; Kray & Lind, 2002; Turillo et al., 2002). To my knowledge, no comprehensive measures exist to assess the justice experiences of others. For the purposes of this study, a self-report measure of vicarious justice was created using 11 items (three distributive, three procedural, five interactional) taken from previously used self-report measures of personal experiences of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice (Colquitt, 2001; Moorman, 1991; Price & Mueller, 1986). Items were chosen based on how easily the statements fit the study's context where the organization, rather than an individual, is the transgressor. Items were reworded to reflect perceptions of customers' justice experiences rather than one's own personal experiences.

#### *Criterion Variables*

Counterproductive work behavior was measured using a scale that included 20 deviant behaviors directed towards the organization (Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, Goh, & Kessler, 2006). For example, some items were "Purposely wasted your

employer's materials/supplies," "Daydreamed rather than did your work," and "Complained about insignificant things at work."

Organizational citizenship behaviors were measured using the OCB factors that were organizationally-directed rather than co-worker directed (i.e., conscientiousness and civic virtue subscales) from Farh, Earley, and Lin's (1997) OCB scale. These factors are analogous to those Organ originally proposed in 1988b. For the purposes of this study, statements were reworded to reflect only behaviors (rather than attitudes). Double-barrelled questions were reworded and an item that reflected "assignments" was changed to reflect "the customer." An additional item was eliminated because it did not apply to customer service representatives. This left 12 items in total. Examples include: "Tell outsiders good news about the company" and "Make constructive suggestions to improve the operation of the company." The original 7-point scale was retained but response anchors were changed from an *Agree-Disagree* Likert-type scale to a frequency scale (1 = *Never* to 7 = *Always*) to reflect behavioral frequency.

Task performance was measured with an adapted version of Saxe and Weitz's (1982) SOCO scale (Service Orientation Customer Orientation). Instructions were changed to reflect the service agent's perception of their customers' evaluation of their service (i.e., would your customers say that you: etc.). Example items include asking if customers would report that the participant "discussed their needs with them" and "influenced them with information rather than pressure." For the purposes of this study, negatively stemmed items and attitude-based items were eliminated (as was done in Johnson & Ashforth, 2008) to reduce participant fatigue due to scale length. Finally, an additional item was eliminated because of low factor loadings in previous research

(Jaramillo, Locander, Spector, & Harris, 2007; Johnson & Ashforth, 2008) leaving a total of eight items.

### *Mediator Variables*

To assess emotions, participants were asked to judge their experiences of the emotions at work over the past 3 months. This was done to give participants a frame of reference when answering the questions that would limit the extent of retrospective recall. A 3 month time period was chosen because it is long enough to avoid responses that might be based on temporary emotional events due to a unique situation but short enough that participants should be able to remember their emotions accurately.

A measure of anger was used from Richin's (1997) Consumption Emotions Set (CES) subscale. This subscale consists of three items: "frustrated," "angry," and "irritated." Participants answered questions on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *Never*; 5 = *Always*).

Guilt was measured using three items derived from the Shame and Guilt Scale (Marschall, Sanftner, & Tangney, 1994). This self-rating scale focuses on in-the-moment (state) feelings of shame, guilt, and pride experiences. The three emotions that were measured were "guilty," "apologetic," and "dishonourable." The 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *Not feeling this way at all*; 5 = *Feeling this way very strongly*) was maintained but directions were changed from reporting on "how you feel right now" to match the assessment of other emotions ("emotion experienced at work over the past 3 months").

Pride was measured using three items from the Shame and Guilt Scale (Marschall et al., 1994). The three emotions that measured pride were "proud," "respectable," and "honourable." The 5-point Likert-type scale was maintained but directions were changed

from reporting on “how you feel right now” to match the assessment of the other emotions over the past 3 months.

### *Control Variables*

The Marlowe-Crowne social desirability scale (Crowne, & Marlowe, 1960) was used to determine the degree to which responses on CWB, OCB, and task performance were influenced by responding in a socially desirable manner. It is possible that participants under-exaggerate the extent to which they engage in counterproductive work behavior and/or over-exaggerate the extent to which they engage in organizational citizenship behaviors and their level of task performance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). A shortened 7-item version of the original scale (Ramanaiah, Schill, & Leung, 1977) was used. Participants responded with either true or false to statements such as “I have never intensely disliked anyone.”

A measure of personal justice was included as a control variable because research has shown that personal feelings of justice correlate highly with perceptions of others’ justice experiences (Colquitt, 2004; De Cremer et al., 2005). As it is possible that participants’ own feelings of justice influence their perceptions of others’ justice experiences, personal justice was included as a control variable. This measure consisted of three one-item measures that reflected the participant’s own feelings of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice. Items included “Is your pay fair,” “Is the process used to determine your pay fair,” and “Does your organization treat you fairly.” These items were derived from Greenberg (1987). These statements were aggregated to form one overall measure of personal justice and participants responded on a scale of 1 (*To a*

*small extent*) to 6 (*To a large extent*). This scale was chosen because it reflected each of the three dimensions of justice needed and had a small number of items.

A measure of task performance was included as a control for organizational citizenship behaviors (this was the same measure of task performance mentioned above). This was done as organizational citizenship behaviors have been shown to correlate with task performance in previous studies (e.g., Hoffman, Blair, Meriac, & Woehr, 2007). These high correlations may be because it is difficult to separate behaviors that are required for the job (task performance) from behaviors that are above and beyond the job (OCB) in the mind of the participant.

Table 3.1 includes a summary of all measures. The table indicates the measure, author(s), number of items, number of scale anchor points, and the reliabilities reported in previous studies for each measure (see Appendix A for all items used in the current study).

Table 3.1 *Measures Assessed by Participants.*

Measure	Author(s)	# of Items	# of Points and Scale Anchors	$\alpha$
Vicarious Justice (distributive, procedural & interactional)	Adapted from Price & Mueller, 1986; Colquitt, 2001; Moorman, 1991	3, 3, 5	6; small extent to a large extent	Factors ranged from .75 to .92
Anger	Richins, 1997	3	5; never to always	.91
Guilt	Adapted from Marschall et al., 1994	3	5; never to always	.87 (reported by Stoeber, Harris, & Moon, 2007)
Pride	Adapted from Marschall et al., 1994	3	5; never to always	.85 (reported by Stoeber et al., 2007)
CWB	Spector et al., 2004	20	5; never to always	.84
OCB (civic virtue & consci.)	Adapted from Farh et al., 1997	3, 6	7; never to always	Factors ranged from .82 to .87
Task Performance	Adapted from Saxe & Weitz, 1982	8	5; strongly disagree to strongly agree	.77 (reported by Johnson & Ashforth, 2008)
Social Desirability	Adapted from Crowne & Marlow, 1960	7	T/F	.79 (reported by Ramanaiah et al., 1977)
Personal Justice	Adapted from Greenberg, 1987	3	6; small extent to a large extent	--
Demographics	--	14	--	--

*Note.*  $\alpha$  = Coefficients alpha in original studies.

### *Treatment of Common Method Variance*

Survey-based research methods are often criticized for their reliance on self-report measures and corresponding concerns regarding common method variance (CMV). In some situations, common method variance will inflate or attenuate correlations between variables (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Despite expert opinion that the problem of CMV has been exaggerated to become an “urban myth,” it is agreed that efforts should be taken to reduce CMV where possible (Spector, 2006). This study focused on three ways to reduce CMV: increasing participant honesty, psychological separation of controls, and statistical controls.

To increase respondent honesty, respondents were presented with detailed information about the precautions taken to ensure the anonymity and confidentiality of their individual responses. Furthermore, the surveys were filled out online and participants were informed that only the researcher would have access to their responses. This is important because the respondents’ organizations were not involved at any stage in the survey administration process. Furthermore, to decrease respondent evaluation apprehension (i.e., social desirability bias), respondents were explicitly assured in the instructions that there were no right or wrong answers to the questions in the survey.

To prevent response consistency effects, the independent, dependent, and moderator scales were presented in separate sections of the survey. Different instructions and ratings scales psychologically separated these measures (Podsakoff et al., 2003). For example, in completing the measure of task performance participants were asked to estimate how the *customer* would report their performance.

Finally, statistical remedies were used to partial out common method variance in the study (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Specifically, the effects of social desirability bias and personal justice were control variables in the analyses.



## 4. Results

### *Goodness of Measures*

#### *Dimensionality and Distinctiveness*

To ensure that factors loaded on multidimensional scales as hypothesized, Amos 16.0 software was used to run confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The goodness of fit was assessed for each measurement model using three indices: goodness-of-fit index (GFI), comparative fit index (CFI) (Bentler, 1990), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). All indices were expected to be comparable to the acceptable levels (i.e., greater than .90 for CFI, greater than .90 for GFI, and less than .10 for RMSEA) (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). Indices that were approximately three percent away from appropriate levels were accepted as it can be assumed that the appropriate fits would have been reached had a bigger sample been obtained (Hair et al., 2006).

Confirmatory factor analysis was run on each construct to ensure that factors loaded on the model hypothesized (see Table 4.1). The only exception was CWB as it is inappropriate to do such an analysis on a causal indicator (Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, Goh, & Kessler, 2004). A causal indicator is a measure in which the content of the items defines the construct rather than the other way around. Essentially, it is the items that cause the construct (Bollen & Lennox, 1991) and because each item is individually distinct, and may represent a unique piece of the construct, items are not necessarily inter-correlated (see Spector et al., 2004 for a discussion of causal vs. effect indicators). It is necessary that each model be compared to all competing models as

theory can dictate distinct factors for the same construct. Thus it is important to ensure the hypothesized models display the best fit indices.

Each of the hypothesized models for the independent, mediator, and dependent measures displayed better fit indices than alternative models and met, or exceeded, standards for fit indices. The hypothesized three-factor model of vicarious justice (distributive, procedural, and interactional) demonstrated the best fit when compared to alternative one- and two-factor models. The specific emotions (guilt, anger, and pride) were compared to a one-factor model and displayed the best fit indices as hypothesized with three separate factors. Task performance and OCB demonstrated the best fit in a three-factor model as hypothesized when compared to two-factor and one-factor models.

Table 4.1 *CFA of All Variables.*

<i>Measures</i>	<i>Model</i>	$\chi^2$	<i>df</i>	$\Delta \chi^2$	$\Delta df$	<i>GFI</i>	<i>CFI</i>	<i>RMSEA</i>
Vicarious Justice	Model A	84.6	41	--	--	.92	.97	.07
	Model B	169.7	43	2	2	.85	.90	.12
	Model C	266.4	44	3	3	.79	.82	.16
Specific Emotions	Model A	33.3	24	--	--	.96	.99	.05
	Model B	238.3	27	205.0	3	.74	.66	.20
Task Performance & OCB	Model A	317.9	146	--	--	.86	.90	.08
	Model B	464.6	151	146.7	5	.78	.80	.10
	Model C	690.8	152	372.9	6	.66	.66	.14

*Note.* **Vicarious Justice** (Model A = Hypothesized three-factor model of vicarious justice [distributive, procedural and interactional]; Model B = Two-factor model [procedural/interactional and distributive]; Model C = One-factor model.) **Specific Emotions** (Model A = Hypothesized three-factor model [pride, anger, guilt]; Model B = One-factor model). **OCB & Task Performance** (Model A = Hypothesized three-factor model [task performance, civic virtue, and conscientiousness]; Model B = Two-factor model [task performance and OCB]; Model C = One-factor model.)

#### *Evidence Against Common Method Bias*

Despite methodological and statistical treatment of common method bias, it is important to check the extent to which the data may have been influenced through collection via one method. Overall, data analysis revealed that common method bias was

not an issue in the current study. Evidence of this comes from running a CFA on all constructs to determine the feasibility of grouping all items into one construct (i.e., unidimensionality). As hypothesized, a multi-dimensional model indicated a significantly better fit ( $p < .05$ ) thus, providing evidence that participants were reporting on different constructs (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.2 *CFA Check for Common Method Bias.*

<i>Model</i>	$\chi^2$	<i>df</i>	$\Delta \chi^2$	$\Delta df$	<i>GFI</i>	<i>CFI</i>	<i>RMSEA</i>
Multiple construct model	1443.5	751	--	--	.74	.83	.07
One-factor model	2012.9	779	569.4	28	.64	.70	.09

Furthermore, Harmon's one-factor test (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986) was conducted by entering all independent and dependent variables in an exploratory factor analysis. The data would have a common method bias problem if a single general factor emerged that accounted for a large percentage of the variance in the resulting factors. However, a nonrotated principal components analysis revealed 14 factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0, rather than a single factor. The 14 factors together accounted for 70.16% of the total variance and the first (largest) factor did not account for a majority of the variance (27.47%). Thus, no general factor is apparent. While these results do not eliminate the likelihood of common method variance they do suggest that common method variance is not of great concern and thus, is unlikely to confound interpretation of results.

#### *Testing of Hypotheses*

Table 4.3 contains all correlations, means, standard deviations and reliability estimates.

Table 4.3 Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Cronbach's Alphas.

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Distributive	4.44	1.10	<b>.85</b>													
2. Procedural	4.35	1.00	.61**	<b>.81</b>												
3. Interactional	4.67	1.06	.61**	.76**	<b>.91</b>											
4. Anger	2.93	0.77	-.23**	-.29**	-.29**	<b>.84</b>										
5. Guilt	1.79	0.56	-.27**	-.28**	-.28**	.44**	<b>.62</b>									
6. Pride	3.56	0.76	.32**	.44**	.43**	-.41**	-.41**	<b>.84</b>								
7. CWB	1.52	0.42	-.31**	-.40**	-.44**	.50**	.39**	-.39**	<b>.89</b>							
8. Task Performance	4.23	0.54	.42**	.41**	.49**	-.20**	-.28**	.29**	-.43**	<b>.88</b>						
9. Civic Virtue	4.58	1.25	.28**	.37**	.37**	-.29**	-.20**	.48**	-.32**	.37**	<b>.79</b>					
10. Conscientiousness	5.36	1.02	.37**	.45**	.52**	-.38**	-.24**	.52**	-.64**	.53**	.50**	<b>.78</b>				
11. Personal Justice	3.76	1.39	.33**	.41**	.45**	-.32**	-.22**	.34**	-.29**	.21**	.26**	.20**	<b>.90</b>			
12. Social Desirability	-	-	-.03	-.19**	-.25**	.27**	.07	-.24**	.23**	-.21**	-.17*	-.28**	-.02	<b>.72</b>		
13. Gender	-	-	.00	.03	.12	-.01	-.06	-.06	-.20**	.07	-.02	.15*	-.04	.03	--	
14. Age	27.9	10.9	.09	.21**	.15	-.22**	-.01	.23**	-.29**	.15*	.15	.23**	.18*	-.25**	-.01	--

Note. Cronbach's alphas are displayed on the diagonal. Males are coded as 1. Females are coded as 2.

\*  $p < .05$

\*\*  $p < .01$

Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was used to test all hypotheses. Previous research indicates there are several demographic variables that may influence CWB, OCB, and task performance as such, this study controlled for these variables when they were significantly related to the dependent measures. Age and gender were controlled for in relationships with CWB (Sackett, Berry, Wiemann, & Laczko, 2006). Gender was controlled for in relationships with OCB-Conscientiousness (Lovell, Kahn, Anton, Davidson, Dowling, Post, & Mason, 1999).

In the hierarchical multiple regression strategy of mediation testing, there are three criteria that must be met to determine mediation: First, there must be a significant relationship between the predictor and the mediator; second, there must be a significant relationship between the predictor and the dependent variables; and third, when looking at both predictor and mediator in the regression, the predictor must become less important or nonsignificant, and the mediator must be significant (Baron & Kenny, 1986). If the predictor remains significant then the mediation is partial rather than full. The Sobel  $z$ -test (1982) was used to test for the significance of the mediating effects.

#### *Counterproductive Work Behavior*

Hypotheses 1a-c suggested that perceptions of lower levels of organizational fairness (vicarious justice distributive, procedural, and interactional) towards the customer would be positively related to CWB. When all three justice dimensions were entered in step 2, after controlling for personal justice, social desirability, gender and age in step 1, neither vicarious justice distributive nor vicarious justice procedural were significantly related to CWB (see Table 4.4). However, vicarious justice interactional did

account for a significant amount of the variance in CWB,  $\beta = -.10$ ,  $F(1, 196) = 9.86$ ,  $p < .001$ . Therefore, Hypothesis 1c was supported and Hypotheses 1a and 1b were not.

#### *Organizational Citizenship Behavior*

Hypothesis 2a-c suggested that perceptions of higher levels of organizational fairness (vicarious justice distributive, procedural, and interactional) towards the customer would be positively related to OCB-conscientiousness. When all three justice dimensions were entered in step 2, after controlling for social desirability, gender and task performance in step 1, neither vicarious justice distributive nor vicarious justice procedural were significantly related to OCB-conscientiousness (see Table 4.4). However, vicarious justice interactional did account for a significant amount of the variance in OCB-conscientiousness,  $\beta = .20$ ,  $F(1, 196) = 19.99$ ,  $p < .001$ . Therefore, for conscientiousness, Hypotheses 2c was supported and Hypotheses 2a and 2b were not.

Hypothesis 2 d-f suggested that perceptions of higher levels of organizational fairness (vicarious justice distributive, procedural, and interactional) towards the customer would be positively related to OCB-civic virtue. When all three justice dimensions were entered in step 2, after controlling for task performance and personal justice in step 1, none of the vicarious justice elements were significantly related to OCB-civic virtue despite that the step itself was significant  $F(1, 196) = 9.44$ ,  $p < .05$  (see Table 4.4). Therefore, Hypotheses 2d-f were not supported.

#### *Task Performance*

H3a-c suggested that perceptions of higher levels of organizational fairness (vicarious justice distributive, procedural, and interactional) towards the customer would be positively related to task performance. When all three justice dimensions were entered

in step 2, after controlling for conscientiousness in step 1, vicarious justice procedural was not related to task performance (see Table 4.4). However, vicarious justice distributive and vicarious justice interactional did account for a significant amount of the variance in task performance  $F(1, 196) = 26.50, p < .001$ . Therefore, Hypothesis 3a and c were supported and Hypothesis 3b was not.

Table 4.4 *Regression Analysis of Vicarious Justice on CWB, OCB, and Task Performance.*

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable							
	CWB		OCB: Conscientiousness		OCB: Civic Virtue		Task Performance	
	Equation 1	Equation 2	Equation 1	Equation 2	Equation 1	Equation 2	Equation 1	Equation 2
Step 1:								
Controls								
Personal Justice	-.09***	-.04	--	--	.17**	.10	--	--
Social Desirability	.29**	.18	-.66**	-.52*	--	--	--	--
Gender	-.19**	-.15*	.27*	.23	--	--	--	--
Age	-.01**	-.01*	--	--	--	--	--	--
Task Performance	--	--	.90***	.63***	.75***	.56**	--	--
Conscientiousness	--	--	--	--	--	--	.28***	.19***
Step 2:								
Vicarious Distributive		-.02		.05		-.03		.08*
Vicarious Procedural		-.03		.08		.24		-.01
Vicarious Interactional		-.10*		.20*		.07		.11*
$R^2$ at each step	.23	.31	.32	.40	.17	.20	.28	.36
$\Delta R^2$	.23	.08	.32	.08	.17	.03	.28	.08
$F$	11.86***	9.86***	29.44***	19.99***	18.80***	9.44*	73.64***	26.50***

Note.

\*  $p < .05$ .

\*\*  $p < .01$ .

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ .



### *Mediation Hypotheses: CWB*

Hypotheses 4a-c predicted that the effect of vicarious justice (distributive, procedural, and interactional) on CWB would be mediated by anger. The relationship between the mediator anger and the dependent variable CWB was statistically significant while controlling for the independent variables  $F(1, 196) = 12.48, p < .001$  (see Table 4.5). However, because the relationship between vicarious justice distributive and CWB as well as the relationship between vicarious justice procedural and CWB were not significant, step 3 was unwarranted in both cases. Examining the mediating effect of anger was warranted for vicarious justice interactional. Thus, it was expected that vicarious justice interactional would become nonsignificant or substantially reduced when the mediator anger was entered into the equation. Indeed vicarious justice interactional lost significance in the third step, suggesting full, rather than partial, mediation. To confirm mediation effects, a Sobel z test was conducted (Baron & Kenny, 1986) and was significant ( $Z = 3.04, p < .05$ ). Therefore, Hypothesis 4c was supported: anger mediated the relationship between vicarious justice interactional and CWB. Hypotheses 4a and b were not supported.

Hypotheses 5a-c predicted that the effect of vicarious justice (distributive, procedural, and interactional) on CWB would be mediated by guilt. The relationship between guilt and CWB was statistically significant while controlling for the independent variables  $F(1, 196) = 10.53, p < .001$  (see Table 4.5). However, because the relationship between vicarious justice distributive and CWB as well as the relationship between vicarious justice procedural and CWB were not significant, step 3 was unwarranted in both cases. The mediating effect of guilt was warranted for vicarious justice

interactional. Thus, it was expected that vicarious justice interactional would become nonsignificant or substantially reduced when the mediator guilt was entered into the equation. Indeed, vicarious justice interactional lost significance in the third step, suggesting full, rather than partial, mediation. To confirm mediation effects, a Sobel z-test was conducted (Baron & Kenny, 1986) and was significant ( $Z = 2.61, p < .05$ ). Therefore, hypothesis 5c was supported: guilt mediated the relationship between vicarious justice interactional and CWB. Hypotheses 5a and b were not supported.

*Mediation Hypotheses: OCB*

Hypotheses 6a-c predicted that the effect of vicarious justice (distributive, procedural, and interactional) on OCB-O conscientiousness would be mediated by pride. The relationship between the mediator pride and the dependent variable OCB-O conscientiousness was statistically significant while controlling for the independent variables  $F(1, 196) = 23.03, p < .001$  (see Table 4.5). However, the relationship between vicarious justice distributive and conscientiousness as well as the relationship between vicarious justice procedural and conscientiousness were not significant. Therefore, step 3 was unwarranted in both cases. The relationship between vicarious justice interactional and conscientiousness was significant. Thus, it was expected that vicarious justice interactional would become nonsignificant or substantially reduced when the mediator pride was entered into the equation. Indeed vicarious justice interactional lost significance in the third step, suggesting full, rather than partial, mediation. To confirm mediation effects, a Sobel z-test was conducted (Baron & Kenny, 1986) and was significant ( $Z = 3.20, p < .05$ ). Therefore, hypothesis 6c was supported: pride mediated

the relationship between vicarious justice interactional and conscientiousness.

Hypotheses 6a and b were not supported.

Hypotheses 7a-c suggested that pride would mediate the relationship between vicarious justice (distributive, procedural, and interactional) and OCB-O civic virtue. However, because the relationships between vicarious justice distributive and civic virtue, vicarious justice procedural and civic virtue, as well as the relationship between vicarious justice interactional and civic virtue were not significant, a mediation test was unwarranted and thus was not carried out.

#### *Mediation Hypotheses: Task Performance*

Hypotheses 8a-c predicted that the effect of vicarious justice (distributive, procedural, and interactional) on task performance would be mediated by pride. The relationship between the mediator pride and the dependent variable task performance, however, was not statistically significant while controlling for the independent variables  $F(1, 196) = 21.28, p > .05$  (see Table 4.5). Hypotheses 8a-c were not supported.

A model of the results of the mediation analyses of interactional vicarious justice can be seen in Figure 4.1.

Table 4.5 Regression Analysis of Vicarious Justice and Anger and Guilt on CWB.

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable					
	CWB			CWB		
	Equation 1	Equation 2	Equation 3	Equation 1	Equation 2	Equation 3
Step 1:						
Controls						
Personal Justice	-.09***	-.04	-.01	-.09***	-.04	-.04
Social Desirability	.29**	.18	.09	.29**	.18	.16
Gender	-.19**	-.15*	-.16*	-.19**	-.15*	-.13
Age	-.01**	-.01*	-.01*	-.01**	-.01*	-.01*
Step 2:						
Vicarious Distributive		-.02	-.01		-.02	-.01
Vicarious Procedural		-.03	-.02		-.03	-.02
Vicarious Interactional		-.10*	-.09		-.10*	-.09
Step 3:						
Anger			.20***			--
Guilt			--			.18***
$R^2$ at each step	.23	.31	.39	.23	.31	.35
$\Delta R^2$	.23	.08	.08	.23	.08	.04
$F$	11.86***	9.86***	12.48***	11.86***	9.86***	10.53***
Sobel $z$ test			3.04**			2.61**

Note.

\*  $p < .05$ .

\*\*  $p < .01$ .

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ .

Table 4.6 *Regression Analysis of Vicarious Justice and Pride on OCB and Task Performance.*

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable					
	OCB-Conscientiousness			Task Performance		
	Equation 1	Equation 2	Equation 3	Equation 1	Equation 2	Equation 3
Step 1:						
Controls						
Social Desirability	-.66**	-.52*	-.37	--	--	--
Task Performance	.90***	.63***	.58***	--	--	--
Gender	.27*	.23	.28*	--	--	--
Conscientiousness	--	--	--	.28***	.19***	.20***
Step 2:						
Vicarious Distributive		.05	.04		.08*	.08*
Vicarious Procedural		.08	.01		-.01	-.01
Vicarious Interactional		.20*	.16		.11*	.11*
Step 3:						
Pride			.42***			-.04
$R^2$ at each step	.32	.40	.47	.28	.36	.36
$\Delta R^2$	.32	.08	.07	.28	.08	.00
$F$	29.44***	19.99***	23.03***	73.64***	26.50***	21.28
Sobel $z$ test			3.20***			--

Note.

\*  $p < .05$ .

\*\*  $p < .01$ .

\*\*\*  $p < .001$

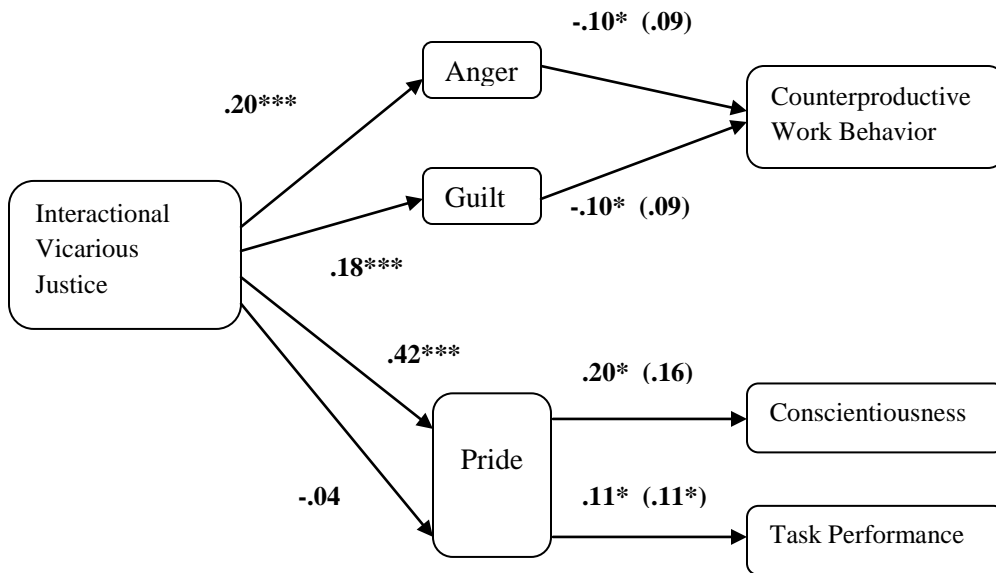


Figure 4.1 Mediation Analyses Model.

Note. Coefficients in parentheses indicate the effect of interactional vicarious justice on the dependent variable while controlling for the mediating role of emotion.

\*  $p < .05$ .

\*\*  $p < .01$ .

\*\*\*  $p < .001$

## 5. Discussion

### *Summary of Findings*

The purpose of this investigation was to explore how distributive vicarious justice, procedural vicarious justice, and interactional vicarious justice relate to work outcomes and to examine the mechanisms that mediate these relationships. The study results mostly supported theoretical predictions for interactional vicarious justice but not for distributive vicarious justice or procedural vicarious justice. When employees perceived their organization as treating customers unfairly, in terms of interactional but not distributive or procedural justice, CWB increased, OCB-conscientiousness decreased, and task performance suffered. On the other hand, OCB-civic virtue was not impacted by the employee's perception of the organization's fair or unfair treatment of the customer. Perhaps this is because conscientiousness focuses on doing a good job whereas civic virtue focuses more on the company. It may be a smaller leap for other's fairness experiences to spill over to the job than to spill over to issues related to the company. A service agent's positive emotional reaction to customers' fair treatment may be strong enough to influence conscientious behavior at work but may not be strong enough to influence the behaviors that occur outside of work such as protecting the reputation of the company or telling outsiders good news about the company that are included within civic virtue.

Another intriguing finding was that the three dimensions of vicarious justice differentially influenced work outcomes. As noted above, interactional vicarious justice appeared to be the most consequential with regard to CWB, OCB-conscientiousness, and task performance. With the exception of task performance, where both distributive vicarious justice and interactional vicarious justice were significant, in each case

interactional vicarious justice was the only predictor that maintained significance after controlling for the other justices. In hindsight, the meaning of these results becomes clearer as they are largely consistent with prior studies and theory. Distributive justice concerns outcomes (Adams, 1965; Leventhal, 1976) and procedural justice concerns the procedures used to arrive at those outcomes (Leventhal, 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975) so although both are applicable to research on others' justice experiences, they are not as applicable as interactional justice which centers on people. Interactional justice focuses on the interpersonal treatment people receive when procedures are implemented (Bies & Moag, 1986). An interactional injustice has occurred when one is treated without the politeness, dignity and respect that everyone is due. Because people have a strong sense of exactly how others should be treated this type of offense has far-reaching implications. One might argue that interactional injustice has greater implications for the deontic model of fairness than distributive or procedural injustices as outcomes and procedures vary more depending on the situation but universal rules concerning interactions would vary to a much smaller extent. In this study, the source of injustice came from service agents' perceptions of the customers' treatment, which is in essence an interpersonal concern. Thus, it makes sense that interactional injustice would be more likely to evoke personal reactions when compared to procedural and distributive justice. In sum, the current findings indicate that the influence of interactional vicarious justice is much more powerful than that of distributive or procedural vicarious justice. Future work should attempt to clarify the differential impact of the dimensions of vicarious justice.

The negative emotion anger completely mediated the relationship between interactional vicarious justice and CWB. This is aligned with previous research



concerning negative emotional reactions that lead to CWB following a personal injustice (Fox & Spector, 1999; Fox, Spector, Goh, & Bruursema, 2007; Spector & Fox, 2002). When one is personally treated unfairly it can lead to revenge behavior (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). This is aligned with research that suggests that people in negative mood states are motivated to reduce negative emotions and therefore, will engage in behavior that will do so (Lazarus, 1982, 1995; Morris & Reilly, 1987). This study contributes to theory as these participants' anger was not driven by their own mistreatment but by another's. In this way, CWB were probably not personally vindictive but rather occurred as a punishment to an unjust organization.

It was also found that guilt completely mediated the relationship between interactional vicarious justice and CWB. This is of special significance because a connection between guilt and CWB has not been made in previous research. Usually guilt is thought of as a personal emotion but this study provides evidence that *guilt by association* can motivate behavior. Future studies can attempt to disentangle the effects of guilt by association from personal guilt experienced as a result of being the vessel through which an organization treats its customers unfairly.

The positive emotion pride completely mediated the relationship between interactional vicarious justice and OCB-conscientiousness. This finding is consistent with past work that suggests that OCB promote or maintain positive emotional states (George & Brief, 1992). Those experiencing a positive emotion such as pride may be more likely to engage in extra-role behaviors to maintain or further increase positive affect.

Pride did not mediate the relationship between distributive vicarious justice and task performance or interactional vicarious justice and task performance. Perhaps this is

because pride, while it may lead to more detectable extra-role behaviors, has a more subtle influence on task performance. Task performance as a requirement of one's job may not have the ability to vary as much with emotion as extra-role behavior.

### *Theoretical Implications*

Research on individuals' reactions to others' fair or unfair treatment has been called "a persistent and important question in the psychology of social justice" (van den Bos & Lind, 2001, p. 1324). Researchers have suggested that others' justice can affect one's emotions and behaviors; however, no study has examined how service agents' perceptions of customers' experiences can affect customer service agents' work behaviors. Therefore, this study provided a significant contribution to the small body of literature on vicarious justice. Past studies had focused on co-workers and fellow students and had not investigated the possibility that service agents might perceive and react to the (un)fair experiences of their customers.

Because this study examines emotion as a mediating variable between vicarious justice and the domains of job performance, I respond to the suggestion that researchers include a consideration of how justice affects outcomes indirectly (i.e., mediation models) (Ambrose & Arnaud, 2005). Therefore, this study contributes to the vicarious justice, and justice literature in general, by providing evidence of the mediating role of emotions. In doing so, it has shed light on the mechanisms behind individual's reactions to justice experiences in general. In recent years, calls for additional research on specific emotions have been common (e.g. Spector & Fox, 2002). Furthermore, researchers have requested more justice research involving positive emotions (De Cremer, 2004; Folger & Cropanzano, 1998; Seligman, 2002). Therefore, the current findings add to the justice

literature by demonstrating the negative organizational effects of anger and guilt feelings at work and the positive organizational effects of feelings of pride at work.

### *Practical Implications*

These findings have some interesting practical implications for organizations. Understanding the antecedents of job performance is vital when choosing how to best run an organization to maximize employee productivity. The customer service agent's perception of the customers' experience, something likely overlooked by organizations, does affect aspects of job performance. Therefore, an organization that gives its employees the perception that it is less than fair to customers can suffer consequences. For example, organizations that have no respect for customer complaints may suffer when their employees lose interest in conscientious behaviors at work. Similarly, an organization that does not take the time to explain the pricing procedures to customers and thus appears unconcerned about customers' needs may face an increase in CWB. This study provides valuable information to organizations because it sheds light on how an organization might increase aspects of job performance. Customer service agents who believe their organization really takes customer interests to heart are that much more likely to increase conscientious citizenship behaviors and less likely to engage in CWB.

Organizations interested in changing service agents' perceptions may want to take time to develop specific management behaviors that are best suited for dealing with negative perceptions. For example, managers can be speakers on behalf of the organization and their attitudes can help service agents better understand the organization's perspective. It may be that something deemed unfair in the mind of a service agent is an organization's best effort. It may be especially difficult for large

corporations or franchises to move away from a reputation that they do not view their customers with dignity or respect. It may be more difficult for these larger companies to convince service agents that the organization's policies and procedures are in the customers' best interest and are fair. Employee orientation may be the best opportunity for the company to display its interest in the customer to new service agents. Here, in addition to regular orientation material, there should be an added focus on a genuine interest in treating customers fairly.

#### *Limitations and Future Research*

This study is limited by its cross-sectional nature. It is strongly suggested that the relationships among variables not be construed as causal until further research is done. Longitudinal research in this area is needed to better establish causality. This is particularly true for research concerning emotions as emotions may or may not be steady over time (Lazarus, 1995). It should be noted, however, that experimental research on vicarious justice and emotions has provided evidence that emotions occur after witnessing others' justice experiences (Turillo et al., 2002), thus providing some confidence in a causal relationship.

A second limitation of this study is that data on both independent and dependent variables were collected via survey method thus common-method bias could intensify or attenuate relationships between variables. However, efforts were taken to psychologically separate measures in participants' minds (variety in scale types, separate pages and different instructions for each measure) and statistically control for relationships between variables during data analysis (social desirability, personal justice,

task performance). Furthermore, Harmon's one-factor test (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986) suggested that common method variance was not an issue in the current study.

Future research can assuage fears of common method variance with data collected via observations, supervisory reports, or information from customers. Furthermore, the quantitative nature of this study excluded the insights that could be derived from the thoughts and opinions of customer service agents and thus qualitative research is also recommended for this area.

It will also be left to future research to examine the two parts of interactional justice, interpersonal and informational, and the possibility that when divided one may have stronger effects. It is also possible that anger or guilt caused by vicarious injustice would result in less OCB and pride caused by vicarious justice could result in decreased CWB. Future research is open to examine additional discrete emotions as potential mediators of customer vicarious justice and work outcomes. It may be that people can feel joy on behalf of others' fair treatment and these feelings impact OCB; alternatively, people may feel embarrassed when others are treated unfairly by their organization, which may impact workplace behavior. A closer look at the emotion guilt may be warranted as this research does not separate guilt experienced by association with one's organization from guilt experienced from being complicit in harming the customer. Additionally, other workplace behaviors such as turnover can be examined. Even a closer look at which types of CWB would be more likely to occur is warranted. It is possible that CWB that help the customer would occur more than CWB simply directed at hurting the organization. Furthermore, retaliatory efforts to "push back against the bully" may be constrained by the threat of facing discipline from the organization, so

perhaps CWB that are the easiest to get away with will be the ones that occur the most often. Antecedents to customer vicarious justice could also be examined. It is possible that multiple factors affect the formation of service agent's perceptions of customers' justice experiences. For example, individuals with stronger morals may be prone to experiencing greater reactions to the justice experiences of others because of the relationship between fairness and morality. Finally, it would also be interesting to examine how others' justice experiences affect our attitudes at work. According to affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) our behaviors originate from attitudes that are formed after the accumulation of emotions over time. A comprehensive model of how others' justice affects our behaviors through emotions, and perhaps even through attitudes as well, may be the future direction of vicarious justice research.

In conclusion, the current study provided evidence for the positive impact of fair customer treatment on OCB-conscientiousness and the detrimental impact of unfair customer treatment in increasing CWB, offering the first look at vicarious justice on behalf of the customer and its influence on organizational members. Thus, employee perceptions of customer treatment, or vicarious justice, form an important correlate of behaviours at work.

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## Appendix A

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### WORK OPINIONS & BEHAVIOR STUDY

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Dear Participant,

You have been invited to participate in a research study on workplace opinions and behaviors. In particular, I am interested in your perception of your organization's practices, and how this affects you at work. This survey will take approximately 20 minutes to complete and requires you to be a customer service agent over 18 years of age. Every participant will be entered into a draw for \$100 cash (Canadian dollars, one entry per person). Your participation will also benefit others by helping researchers to better understand workplace processes and to develop ways to improve situations at work. Your participation in this research is completely voluntary and you have the right to withdraw at any time with no negative consequences. There are no anticipated risks or discomforts related to this research.

Several steps will be taken to keep your responses anonymous and the data confidential. You will not record your name on the survey. Your e-mail address (required to enter the draw) will not be linked to your survey responses. Only I and my supervisor will have access to the data. All information will be destroyed after 5 years. No data will be distributed to your organization or any other participating organization.

No individual results will be reported. Your responses will be averaged with others' data and only aggregated results will be presented as part of a Master's thesis. In addition, the results may be presented in academic or professional journals and/or conferences. If you wish to receive a copy of the results from this study, or if you have any other questions, please contact me at [sarah.hovind@uleth.ca](mailto:sarah.hovind@uleth.ca) (403-795-3727) or my supervisor, Dr. Janelle Enns ([janelle.enns@uleth.ca](mailto:janelle.enns@uleth.ca) or 403-382-7144). For questions regarding your rights as a participant in this research, you may contact the Office of Research Services at the University of Lethbridge at 403-329-2747.

Clicking "next" indicates your agreement to participate.

Thank-you for your help,

*Sarah Hovind*

Pride, Anger, & Guilt Measures

<b>During the past 3 months, how often have you experienced each of the following emotions <u>at work</u>:</b>	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
1) Proud	1	2	3	4	5
2) Respectable	1	2	3	4	5
3) Honorable	1	2	3	4	5
4) Frustrated	1	2	3	4	5
5) Angry	1	2	3	4	5
6) Irritated	1	2	3	4	5
7) Guilty	1	2	3	4	5
8) Apologetic	1	2	3	4	5
9) Dishonorable	1	2	3	4	5

Vicarious Justice Measure

<p><b>These questions relate to how <u>your organization</u> generally treats its customers.</b></p> <p><i>To what extent:</i></p>	To a Small Extent					To a Large Extent
1) Are customers rewarded fairly for the money they've spent?	1	2	3	4	5	6
2) Are customers rewarded fairly for the stress and strain involved in receiving the product/service?	1	2	3	4	5	6
3) Are customers receiving an appropriate amount of product/service for the amount charged?	1	2	3	4	5	6
4) Are customers able to express their views and feelings?	1	2	3	4	5	6
5) Are customers given an opportunity to influence procedures?	1	2	3	4	5	6
6) Are the procedures used with customers consistently applied?	1	2	3	4	5	6
7) Are the procedures used with customers based on accurate information?	1	2	3	4	5	6
8) Are customers able to appeal the outcome arrived at by those procedures?	1	2	3	4	5	6
9) Does your organization communicate all the necessary information to customers?	1	2	3	4	5	6
10) Does your organization make time to explain procedures thoroughly to customers?	1	2	3	4	5	6
11) Does your organization provide reasonable explanations for those procedures?	1	2	3	4	5	6
12) Does your organization show concern for the rights of customers?	1	2	3	4	5	6
13) Does your organization treat customers with kindness and consideration?	1	2	3	4	5	6
14) Does your organization consider the viewpoints of customers?	1	2	3	4	5	6

Counterproductive Work Behavior Measure

<b>During the last 3 months, how often have you done each of the following things on your present job:</b>	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
1) Purposely wasted your employer's materials/supplies	1	2	3	4	5
2) Daydreamed rather than did your work	1	2	3	4	5
3) Complained about insignificant things at work	1	2	3	4	5
4) Told people outside the job what a lousy place you work for	1	2	3	4	5
5) Purposely did your work incorrectly	1	2	3	4	5
6) Came to work late without permission	1	2	3	4	5
7) Stayed home from work and said you were sick when you weren't	1	2	3	4	5
8) Purposely damaged a piece of equipment or property	1	2	3	4	5
9) Purposely dirtied or littered your place of work	1	2	3	4	5
10) Stolen something belonging to your employer	1	2	3	4	5
11) Purposely worked slowly when things needed to get done	1	2	3	4	5
12) Refused to take on an assignment when asked	1	2	3	4	5
13) Purposely came late to an appointment or meeting	1	2	3	4	5
14) Failed to report a problem so it would get worse	1	2	3	4	5
15) Taken a longer break than you were allowed to take	1	2	3	4	5
16) Purposely failed to follow instructions	1	2	3	4	5
17) Left work earlier than you were allowed to	1	2	3	4	5
18) Took supplies or tools home without permission	1	2	3	4	5
19) Tried to look busy while doing nothing	1	2	3	4	5
20) Put in to be paid for more hours than you worked	1	2	3	4	5

Task Performance Measure

<i>Would your customers say that you:</i>	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
1) Discuss their needs with them?	1	2	3	4	5
2) Influence them with information rather than pressure?	1	2	3	4	5
3) Offer products that are best suited to their problems?	1	2	3	4	5
4) Try to find out what kind of products/services would be most helpful?	1	2	3	4	5
5) Answer questions about products/services as correctly as possible?	1	2	3	4	5
6) Try to bring a customer with a problem together with a product that helps them solve that problem?	1	2	3	4	5
7) Give them an accurate expectation of what the product will do for them?	1	2	3	4	5
8) Try to figure out what their needs are?	1	2	3	4	5

Organizational Citizenship Behavior Measure (Civic Virtue & Conscientiousness)

<p><b>The following statements concern behaviors that are related to your job but are <u>not required</u> by your organization.</b></p> <p><i>During the past 3 months, how often do you:</i></p>	Never	Very Rarely	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Very Frequently	Always
1) Tell outsiders good news about the company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2) Stand up to protect the reputation of the company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3) Make constructive suggestions to improve the operation of the company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4) Actively participate when in company meetings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5) Arrive to work early and start immediately	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6) Focus on doing your best possible job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7) Comply with company rules and procedures even when nobody is watching and no evidence can be traced	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8) Not mind taking on challenging customers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9) Self-study to increase the quality of work outputs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Personal Justice Measure

<p><b>These questions relate to how your organization generally treats you.</b></p> <p><i>To what extent:</i></p>	To a Small Extent					To a Large Extent
	1	2	3	4	5	6
1) Is your pay fair?	1	2	3	4	5	6
2) Is the process used to determine your pay fair?	1	2	3	4	5	6
3) Does your organization treat you fairly?	1	2	3	4	5	6

Social Desirability Measure

<p><b>The following statements are about your general attitudes and behaviors. Please indicate whether the statements below are True or False. There are no right or wrong answers.</b></p>		
1) I have never intensely disliked anyone.	T	F
2) No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a good listener.	T	F
3) I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake.	T	F
4) I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable.	T	F
5) I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own.	T	F
6) I have never felt that I was punished without cause.	T	F
7) I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.	T	F



## Demographic Information

- 1) What is your age?  
\_\_\_\_\_ years
- 2) What is your gender?
  - a. Male
  - b. Female
- 3) What is the highest level of education you have completed?
  - a. High school or less
  - b. Diploma
  - c. Bachelors
  - d. Masters
  - e. Doctorate
- 4) In what country are you currently employed as a customer service agent?  
\_\_\_\_\_
- 5) What is your racial/ethnic heritage?
  - a. White/Anglo or European
  - b. Black/African
  - c. Hispanic/Latino
  - d. Asian, Pacific Islander, Middle Eastern
  - e. Aboriginal
  - f. Bi-racial or multi-racial
  - g. Other  (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_
- 6) What is the name of your organization? \_\_\_\_\_
- 7) Approximately, how many employees work for your organization?
  - a. Less than 50
  - b. 51 to 100
  - c. 101 to 500
  - d. More than 500

- 8) What is your official job title? \_\_\_\_\_
- 9) How many years have you been working as a service agent? \_\_\_\_\_
- 10) How many years have you been working for your present organization? \_\_\_\_\_
- 11) How many hours per week do you work for the current organization? \_\_\_\_\_
- 12) What type of organization do you work for?
- a. Restaurant
  - b. Hotel
  - c. Retail
  - d. Bank
  - e. Other  (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_
- 13) If you answered “Retail” to the question above, what type of retail does your organization specialize in? \_\_\_\_\_
- 14) If you answered “Restaurant” to the question above, what type of restaurant is your organization? \_\_\_\_\_

<i>Approximately, how often are you a customer at:</i>	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often
hotels?	1	2	3	4
banks?	1	2	3	4
restaurants?	1	2	3	4
retail stores?	1	2	3	4

Do you have any comments on the questions you encountered in this survey?

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Please enter your email address for a chance to win \$100 dollars cash.

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Please check this box if you would be willing to be contacted via email to participate in another online survey in the future.

**Thank-you for your participation!**

“Submit” Survey Button