THE INFLUENCE OF EXPECTATIONS ON PROCEDURAL JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS AND OUTCOMES

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ABSTRACT

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Recent justice research has suggested that expectations influence procedural justice perceptions and outcomes. Within the justice literature, justice expectations are hypothesized to play three different roles in influencing justice perceptions and outcomes. Shapiro and Kirkman's (2001) model of expectations suggests that expectations directly influence procedural justice perceptions, which, in turn, influence outcomes (e.g., commitment, satisfaction). Brockner, Ackerman, and Farichild (2001a) suggest that expectations play a moderating role in the relationship between procedural justice perceptions and outcomes. The third perspective suggests that procedural elements expectations moderate the relationship between procedural elements perceptions and process fairness (Van den Bos, Vermunt, and Wilke, 1996; Greenberg, Eskew, & Miles, cited in Brockner et al, 2001a). The first goal of the current paper was to clarify the role that procedural justice expectations play in influencing justice perceptions and outcomes. In Study 1 (N=225), I manipulated participants' procedural justice expectations of a resume screening process. In Study 2 (N=626), I examined students' expectations and justice perceptions in a classroom setting. A second goal was to clarify the antecedents of procedural justice expectations. Study 1 and 2 examined the relationships of positive and negative affectivity and power distance and procedural justice expectations, and Study 2 also examined the relationships between direct and indirect experiences and procedural justice expectations.

The results of both studies provided weak support for Shapiro and Kirkman's (2001) model in which procedural justice expectations directly influence procedural justice perceptions, which, in turn, influence outcomes. Partial support was found for the third model in which procedural elements expectations moderate the relationship between procedural elements perceptions and process fairness. Both studies also shed light on the potential antecedents of procedural justice expectations and values. Positive affectivity, power distance, and past experiences were all related to procedural justice expectations. The results of Study 2 also indicated that past experiences had more or less of influence on procedural justice expectations depending on their source. The results are discussed in relation to existing justice theory and research. In addition, I also discuss future directions, limitations of the current studies, and practical implications.

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INTRODUCTION

The area of social justice has received a great deal of attention within the field of psychology. Justice is the study of fairness of allocation decisions as well as the processes by which the decisions are made. Within the justice literature, researchers have examined the factors that influence how people react to events such as courtroom trials (Tyler, 1984a, 1988), water shortages (Tyler & Degoey, 1995), organizational downsizing (Brockner, Konovsky, Cooper-Schneider, Folger, Martin, & Bies, 1994), and performance appraisal (Dulebohn & Ferris, 1999). Recent research suggests that justice perceptions are most appropriately conceptualized along four dimensions - distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational – and that these four dimensions play an important role in influencing a variety of outcomes (e.g., Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, and Ng, 2001; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).

Justice researchers have recently begun to examine factors that may moderate the relationship between justice perceptions and outcomes. Factors such as culture (Brockner et al., 2001a; Brockner et al., 2001b; Lam, Schaubroeck, & Aryee, 2002), gender (Brockner & Adsit, 1986; Greenberg & McCarty, 1990), and organizational commitment (Brockner, Tyler, & Cooper-Schneider, 1992) have been shown to moderate justice relationships. In addition to these moderators, Brockner et al. (2001a) suggest that legitimacy beliefs may play a moderating role in the relationship between procedural justice elements and outcomes. They suggest that prior to an event, people develop beliefs about the legitimacy of procedural elements in the current event. Brockner et al. suggest that legitimacy is a combination of what people think will happen (i.e., expectations) and what people believe should happen (values). Brockner et al.'s view is

that legitimacy beliefs make justice elements more or less important to individuals during an event. For example, the more a person comes to expect and value fair procedures, the more likely they will react negatively to an event where the procedures are not fair. Although some research (e.g., Brockner et al., 2001a; Brockner et al., 2001b; Lam et al., 2002) suggests that legitimacy beliefs may act as a justice moderator, more research is needed to better understand their role in influencing justice-related perceptions and outcomes.

In addition to the work by Brockner et al. (2001a), Shapiro and Kirkman (2001) have also begun to assess the influence of expectations on justice perceptions. They suggest that expectations may directly influence justice perceptions and consequently outcomes. This idea, coined "anticipatory injustice," is the notion that people may have expectations about being treated unfairly. Anticipatory injustice is based on the idea that in times of uncertainty, employees are likely to anticipate the treatment that they will receive. Despite the intuitive appeal of Shapiro and Kirkman's (2001) work, almost no research exists which directly tests the influence of expectations on justice perceptions (see Shapiro & Kirkman, 1999; Van den Bos et al., 1996; Greenberg et al., cited in Brockner et al, 2001a; Gilliland, 1994, for exceptions).

Research from a wide variety of social phenomena such as self-fulfilling prophecies (e.g., Miller & Turnbull, 1986), placebo effects (e.g., Ross & Olson, 1981, 1982), and self-efficacy beliefs (e.g., Bandura, 1982) suggests that expectations play a role in how people perceive events. In addition to the research in social psychology, research in I/O psychology suggests that expectations may have important influences on work-related situations. For example, expectations are central to the idea of

psychological contracts. Research has found that when one party in a contract feels that their expectations are not being met, that party will react negatively in terms of satisfaction, commitment, productivity, etc. (see Robinson & Rousseau, 1994 for a review). Expectations are also central to the role that realistic job previews (RJPs) play in forming newcomers' attitudes in an organization (Wanous, Poland, Premack, & Davis, 1992; Wanous, 1977). Interview researchers have also shown that the interviewer's expectations of a candidate can influence their subsequent behavior towards the candidate (Dougherty, Turban, & Callender, 1994).

Although research suggests that expectations may influence a variety of attitudes, behaviors, and outcomes, little is known about their influence on justice perceptions. An exception to this statement is Lind and colleagues' Fairness Heuristic Theory (see Lind, 2001 for a review), which does mention expectations as an influence on justice perceptions. Fairness Heuristic Theory suggests people constantly face the dilemma of choosing between the needs of social groups in which one belongs and self-interested needs. In choosing between these needs, people use fairness as a heuristic for deciding how much they can trust others (i.e., the value of supporting group needs). Lind argues that people maintain this fairness heuristic until an event significantly deviates from their expectations. Thus, this theory suggests that individuals' early impressions of fairness shape their expectations, which, in turn, are used to evaluate whether actual experiences are consistent with the fairness judgment or heuristic.

The work by Brockner et al. (2001a) and Shapiro and Kirkman (2001a) also incorporate expectations in into their models of justice perceptions. Brockner et al. (2001a) suggest that legitimacy beliefs (i.e., a combination of expectations and values)

have a moderating effect on the procedural justice elements to outcomes relationship, whereas Shapiro and Kirkman (2001) discuss expectations as having an indirect influence on outcomes via a direct influence on justice perceptions. Both viewpoints incorporate the role of expectations into models of justice perceptions and their influence on outcomes, but they suggest different avenues of influence. As both views have limited empirical support, more research is needed to understand if either or both viewpoints are correct.

If expectations play a significant role in justice relationships, it is important for researchers to understand the mechanisms through which they have an influence. Do expectations belong in models of justice perceptions? If so, do expectations have either an indirect or moderating role in influencing justice perceptions and outcomes or both roles? As Brockner et al.'s (2001a) focus is on procedural justice and Shapiro and Kirkman's (2001) anticipatory injustice beliefs are conceptually applicable to any type of justice perception (i.e., procedural, distributive, interpersonal, and informational), I chose to focus on the procedural justice dimension in the current study. Procedural justice examines the fairness of the processes by which decisions are made (Greenberg, 1990). Thus, the primary goal of the current paper is to assess the influence of expectations on perceptions of procedural justice. In order to accomplish this goal, I will examine the models of justice expectations by Shapiro and Kirkman (2001) and Brockner et al. (2001a) (Figures 1 and 2, respectively).

The current paper will begin by examining Shapiro and Kirkman's (2001) model of anticipatory injustice. Next, I will examine Brockner et al.'s (2001a) model of legitimacy beliefs and discuss how their ideas regarding legitimacy beliefs are related to

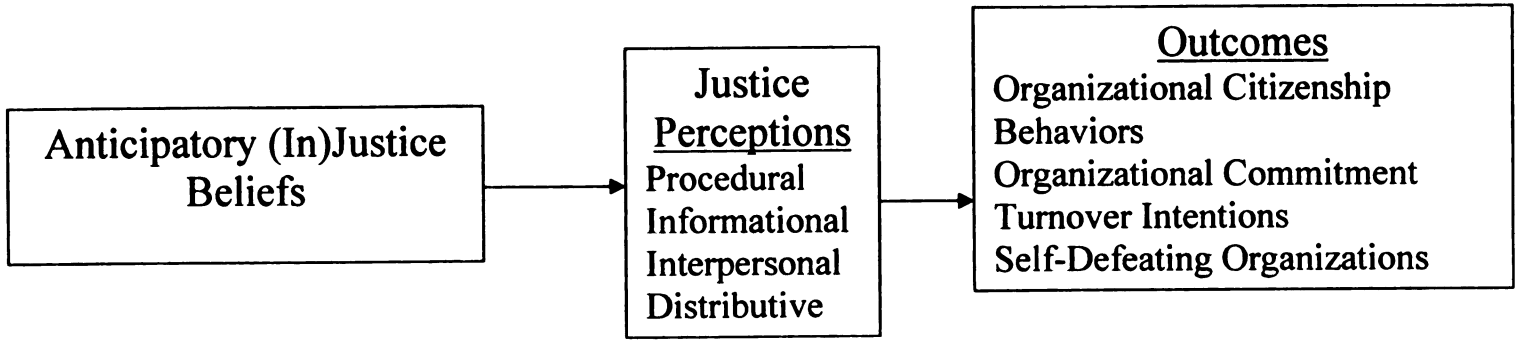

Figure 1. Shapiro and Kirkman (2001) Model

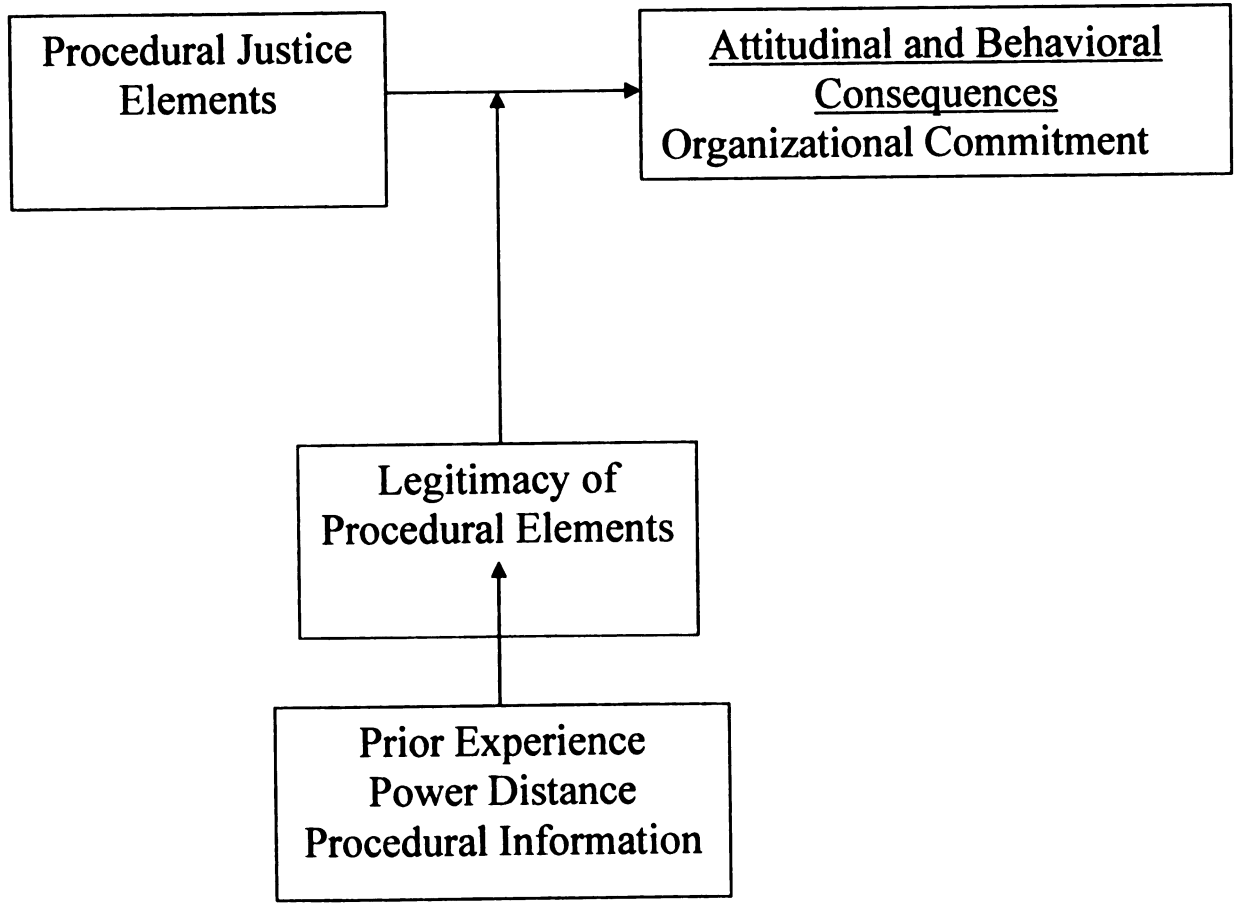

Figure 2. Brockner, Ackerman, and Fairchild (2001a) Model

the idea of anticipatory injustice described by Shapiro and Kirkman (2001). I will also discuss the psychological research on expectancies in order to better understand their role in influencing procedural justice perceptions. Finally, I will proceed to hypothesize a number of factors that likely influence an individual's procedural justice expectations.

Shapiro and Kirkman Model

Shapiro and Kirkman's (2001) model of expectations suggests that expectations may directly influence justice perceptions. Anticipatory injustice is based on the idea that individuals attempt to anticipate how unfairly they will be treated as a consequence of uncertainty in the organization. Shapiro and Kirkman suggest that this type of negative expectation can have a number of negative consequences both to the individual and the organization. One of the potential consequences of negative expectations may be the greater likelihood of perceiving unfair treatment. Employees who expect to be treated unfairly may view their treatment during an event (e.g., a performance appraisal) as unfair, regardless of the treatment by the organization. Thus, expectations may be expected to directly influence employees' fairness perceptions, which, in turn, may influence their organizational commitment, job satisfaction, etc.

Shapiro and Kirkman (2001) also suggest that expectations of one type of justice (e.g., distributive) may influence perceptions of other types of justice (e.g., procedural). This potential consequence suggests that expectations may influence general perceptions beyond those relevant to the type of injustice a person has experienced. Thus, a person who expects that the selection procedures may be unfair may be more likely to perceive that the process was unfair as well as the interpersonal treatment they received.

Shapiro and Kirkman (2001) posit that the end consequence of negative expectations may be self-defeating organizational behavior and, consequently, self-defeating organizations. In a study examining anticipatory injustice, Shapiro and Kirkman (1999) suggested that anticipation of distributive injustice is related to employee resistance, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions. Thus, Shapiro and Kirkman concluded that employees who expect to be treated unfairly may create an unproductive environment. The result of an employee's withdrawal from the organization (either physically or mentally) may create a group norm in which other employees also withdraw from the organization. This idea is not new to the I/O literature as researchers have found that employees' absences can be influenced by the perception that absence is part of the group norm (Harrison & Shaffer, 1994; Markham & McKee, 1995).

To test the notion of anticipatory injustice, Shapiro and Kirkman (1999) surveyed employees who were recently part of a move to self-managing work teams. Of central interest to the current paper, Shapiro and Kirkman include measures of anticipation of distributive injustice, perceptions of procedural justice, resistance to change, organizational commitment, turnover intentions, and organizational citizenship behaviors. Although, as noted above, they suggest that their results support the relationship between anticipatory injustice and work-related outcomes, two issues make it erroneous to conclude support for the model presented in Figure 1. The first issue with their study is that the measure of anticipation of distributive injustice used is not a clean measure of anticipatory injustice. Shapiro and Kirkman note that their measure of anticipation of distributive injustice asked employees "how concerned they are about the fairness of their

pay, promotions, and job assignments in the new team environment" (p. 55). From my perspective, the measure they used is a "concern about new team environment" versus a measure about anticipatory injustice. A conceptually clean measure of anticipation of distributive injustice would include items such as "I expect that my pay will not be fair in the new team environment" or "I anticipate that promotions will not be fair in the new team environment." It seems plausible that an employee can be concerned about the new team environment and have either high or low expectations concerning how they will be treated.

Another problem with Shapiro and Kirkman's (1999) study is that they did not test the model in Figure 1; instead, they tested the direct influence of their anticipation of distributive justice measure on their individual level outcomes (i.e., resistance to change, organizational commitment, turnover intentions, and organizational citizenship behaviors). Thus, a more correct test of their model would have been a test of the mediating role of fairness perceptions in the anticipatory injustice to outcomes relationship. They did include a measure of fairness perceptions, but it was focused on procedural fairness, not distributive fairness. They used their procedural fairness measure as a potential moderator between anticipation of distributive injustice and outcomes as suggested by previous research (see Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996, for a review). In order to provide direct support for the model in Figure 1, research needs to be conducted in which measures of fairness expectations, fairness perceptions, and outcomes are measured. Research with these measures will be able to test the mediating role of fairness perceptions in the expectations to outcomes relationship.

Gilliland (1994) examined expectations in the context of selecting participants for a paid employment opportunity. After the experimenter explained the selection test and procedures, participants rated their expectations of being hired for the job. Gilliland found that hiring expectations were positively related to distributive and procedural fairness perceptions for selected participants and were negatively related to distributive and procedural fairness perceptions for rejected participants. In addition, hiring expectations were more positively related to recommendation intentions for selected participants compared to rejected participants. Gilliland also found that hiring expectations had a main effect on recommendation intentions such that higher expectations were associated with more positive recommendation intentions. Although Gilliland's measure concerned hiring expectations rather than justice expectations, the results suggest that expectations may play a direct role in influencing justice perceptions.

Although little research has been conducted on justice expectations and perceptions, a great deal of research has shown that expectations influence perceptions as well as behaviors (see Miller & Turnbull, 1986; Higgins & Bargh, 1987; Olson, Rose, & Zanna, 1996 for reviews). In addition, research strongly supports the influence of procedural justice perceptions on a variety of outcomes (e.g., Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt et al. 2001; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Given the evidence from social psychology which indicates expectations influence perceptions and the evidence from I/O psychology indicating procedural justice perceptions influence a variety of outcomes, I predict that procedural justice expectations will influence procedural justice perceptions, which will, in turn influence outcomes.

Hypothesis 1: Procedural justice expectations will directly influence procedural justice perceptions, which will, in turn, influence outcomes (satisfaction, commitment, withdrawal intentions, recommendation intentions).

Brockner et al. Model

Brockner et al. (2001a) argue that legitimacy beliefs are formed prior to events. Legitimacy is a perception of "how things are done around here" and "tacit endorsement of that perception." (p. 185). Thus, legitimacy is a combination of what people think will happen` (expectations) and what they believe should happen (values). Brockner et al. suggest that factors such as experience and culture may influence the degree to which individuals consider procedural justice elements to be legitimate.

Despite the fact that Brockner et al.'s (2001a) notion of legitimacy includes both values and expectations, I chose to focus on the expectations component of legitimacy for a number of reasons. One reason for this choice is the competing influences of expectations presented by Brockner et al. (2001a) and Shapiro and Kirkman (2001). Another reason is that Brockner et al. (2001a) discuss the role of both values and expectations and how they may interact, but end up providing only general questions for future researchers to examine. Brockner et al. ask 1) Are expectations and values equal components of legitimacy beliefs or is one more influential?, and 2) In what manner do expectations and values combine (additive or multiplicative) to influence legitimacy? Brockner et al.'s paper does not provide evidence on which to base any firm predictions as to how values and expectations will combine/interact to influence justice relationships. Finally, Mueller and Wynn (2000) examined distributive justice values across U.S., South Korean, and Kenyan individuals and found that distributive justice is highly valued

across cultures and shows little variance. Although Mueller and Wynn found this pattern of results for distributive justice values, it is unclear what pattern may exist for procedural justice values. Because of these issues, I will include a measure of procedural justice values that parallels the measures of procedural justice elements and process fairness expectations, but leave the issue of the influence of values on procedural justice perceptions and outcomes as a general research question.

Brockner et al.'s (2001a) discussion of the expectation construct is conceptually indistinct from Shapiro and Kirkman's (2001) idea of anticipatory injustice. Shapiro and Kirkman define anticipatory (in)justice as people's expectations concern perceiving justice or injustice in an event. Brockner et al. (2001a) similarly suggest that their expectations component is a measure of what a person anticipates regarding (un)fair treatment. Thus, in both models, people anticipate how (un)fairly they will be treated. As the models suggest different avenues by which expectations may influence justice perceptions, the question becomes what role do expectations play in influencing justice perceptions? The current paper attempts to address provide evidence to answer this question.

Brockner et al. (2001a) examined prior experience with procedural elements as a factor that may moderate justice relationships. Brockner et al. examined employees who were in the midst of an organizational layoff. To examine the moderating influence of legitimacy beliefs, they measured the presence of notification of layoffs and how adequate and clear the explanations were. In addition, they measured the past history of these elements (i.e., notification of layoffs and the adequacy and clarity of the explanations) within the organization. Their results showed that the more present these

procedural elements were in the past, the more likely layoff survivors had lower organizational commitment in response to the perception that these elements were not present in the current downsizing. Thus, the more past experience legitimized procedural elements, the more negative reactions employees had to them not being present in the current situation.

Brockner and colleagues (2001b) conducted a series of studies to examine the influence of power distance on the relationship between the procedural element of voice and a number of outcomes. Brockner and colleagues' first two studies were scenario-based and manipulated the amount of voice participants had in the situation. In both studies, they found that the voice manipulation had a greater influence on organizational commitment for participants in a lower power distance culture (i.e., the United States) versus higher power distance cultures (i.e., China and Mexico). In their third study, Brockner and colleagues asked participants to recall a recent dispute with another person. The results indicated that the relationship between amount of voice and satisfaction with the resolution of the dispute was more positive for a lower power distance culture (i.e., Germany) than a higher power distance culture (i.e., Hong Kong). In all three studies, Brockner and colleagues measured individuals' power distance levels and compared interactions based on the culture-level indicators with those based on individuals' power distance standings. They found that the interactions of individuals' power distance and voice were significant and washed out the interactions based on culture-level indicators. Thus, it is power distance differences that account for the interactions rather than the broad notion of culture. In their fourth study, Brockner and colleagues asked a group of Chinese employees to rate the amount of voice they have in the workplace as well as their

organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and intention to remain with the organization. Consistent with their other results, Brockner and colleagues found that perceived voice was more strongly related to organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and intention to remain with the organization for those employees low in power distance. The results of all four studies strongly suggest that factors that influence the legitimacy of voice (i.e., power distance beliefs) interact with procedural elements (i.e., voice) to influence a variety of outcomes.

Lam et al. (2002) examined the moderating role of power distance and individualism in the relationship between justice perceptions and outcomes. Lam et al. surveyed employees of a large multinational organization located in the United States and China. Employees were asked to complete surveys that measured their perceptions of distributive and procedural justice within the organization as well as their job satisfaction, individualism, and power distance. In addition, supervisors provided information as to each employee's job performance and absenteeism. Lam et al.'s results showed that power distance, but not individualism, moderated the relationship between distributive and procedural justice and job satisfaction, performance, and absenteeism. The moderated relationship was such that the relationship between justice perceptions and the outcomes were stronger for those low on power distance. These results suggest that those low in power distance expect to be treated fairly regardless of the characteristics of the situation, whereas those high in power distance expect that they may be treated unfairly by their supervisor(s).

While examining the results of the Brockner et al. (2001a, 2001b) and Lam et al. (2002) studies, I found two key issues that need to be addressed. The first is that

although the studies by Brockner and colleagues (2001a, 2001b) and Lam et al. (2002) allegedly test the model presented in Brockner et al. (2001a) (see Figure 2), more accurate depictions of the model underlying their empirical studies are presented in Figures 3 and 4, respectively. The studies provide support for the moderating role of power distance, past presence of procedural elements and individualism, but they do not directly test the moderating role that legitimacy beliefs play in the procedural justice elements to outcomes relationship. I could find no research which directly tests the moderating role of legitimacy beliefs in the procedural justice elements to outcomes relationship. In order to test the moderating role of legitimacy beliefs, research needs to test a model linking factors such as power distance, experience, and individualism to legitimacy beliefs, which, in turn, moderate the relationship between procedural justice elements and outcomes.

The second issue I noted while reviewing the measures used in these studies is the distinction between measures of procedural elements used in both studies and measures of procedural fairness perceptions. Research suggests that people use the presence or absence of procedural elements to form procedural fairness perceptions (Van den Bos et al., 1996; Greenberg et al., cited in Brockner et al., 2001a). Van den Bos et al. (1996) conducted research to examine the role of expectations in the formation of justice perceptions. Van den Bos et al. manipulated expectations in two experiments by telling participants that they should expect voice in the task, they should not expect voice, or nothing about providing voice. Half of all participants were then given an opportunity to provide voice related to the task. In both experiments, Van den Bos et al. found that

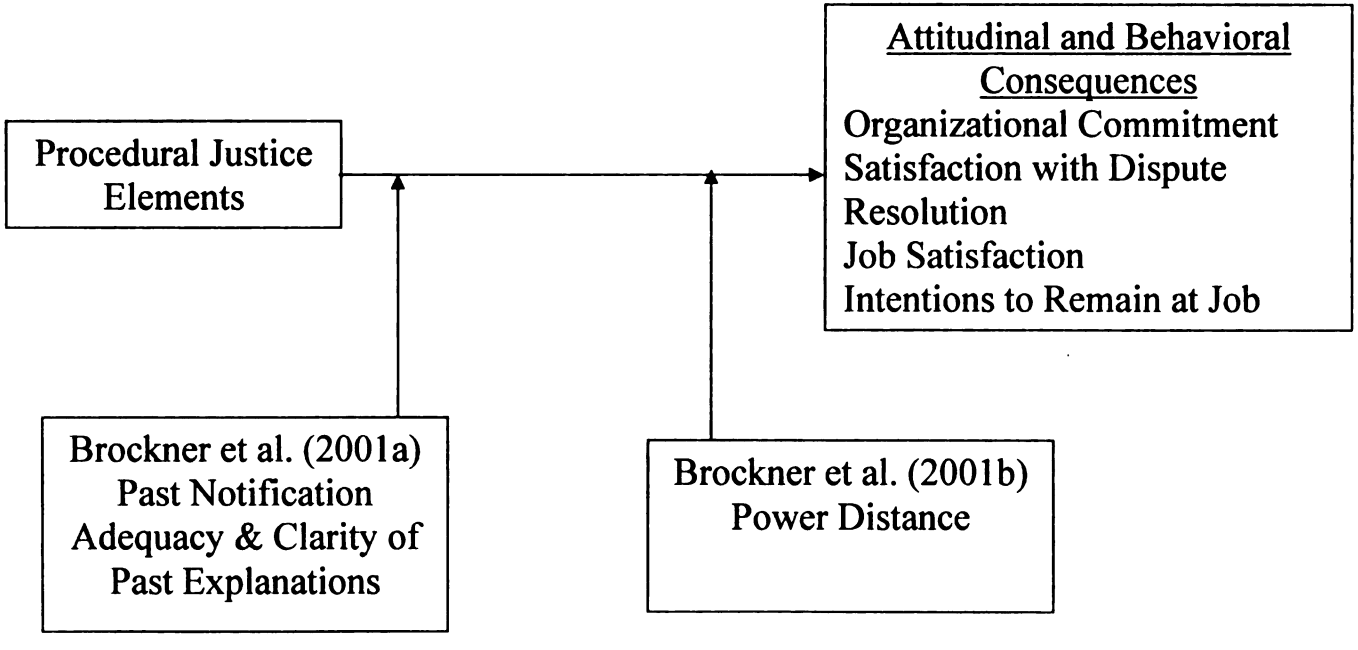

Figure 3. Model Tested by Brockner et al. (2001a) and Brockner et al. (2001b)

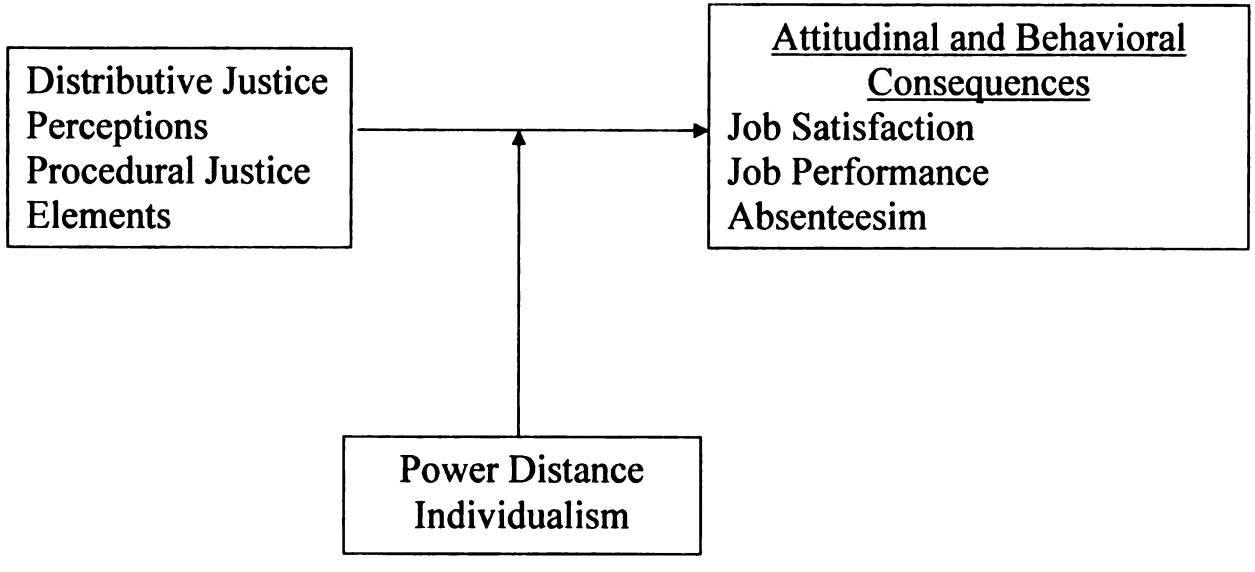

Figure 4. Model Tested by Lam et al. (2002)

providing voice lead to more positive fairness perceptions when participants either expected voice or expected nothing. Of importance is the finding that for those participants who expected no voice, those who subsequently received it rated the procedures as less fair than those who did not receive it. In their second experiment, Van den Bos et al. also found that for those participants who expected no voice, those who subsequently received it performed worse on the task than those who did not receive voice. The findings from both experiments suggest that expectations of procedural justice elements influence the formation of procedural justice perceptions. As Van den Bos et al. note, "we may conclude that what is considered fair depends in part on what is expected" (p. 423).

The second study, Greenberg et al. (cited in Brockner et al., 2001a), presented participants with a scenario describing students who either should and would have some control over the grading process for a class or students who should not and would not have control over the grading process (high and low legitimacy conditions, respectively). Participants were then told that the professors either did (high process control) or did not (low process control) give students some control over the grading process. Greenberg et al. found that process control had more of an influence on perceptions of the professor's fairness in the high than the low legitimacy condition.

The implications of these results are that researchers may be incorrect in assuming that a person views a process as "unfair" when the person does not perceive the presence of certain procedural elements in a situation. For example, if a person expects certain elements (e.g., consistency, lack of bias) to be present in a promotion system and does not perceive them to be present when he/she is in the process, he/she may form very

different procedural justice perceptions than someone who does not expect that these same elements will be present in the promotion system.

Instead of providing support for the model presented in Figure 2 (as suggested by Brockner et al., 2001a), these results suggest that the moderating relationship presented in Figure 5 is a more accurate assessment of Van den Bos et al's (1996) and Greenberg et al.'s (cited in Brockner et al., 2001a) findings. The model presented in Figure 5 suggests that expectations play a moderating role between the link of procedural elements and procedural justice perceptions; procedural elements will have a stronger influence on procedural justice perceptions for those people who hold higher expectations for the procedural elements. As Brockner et al. (2001a, 2001b) and Lam et al. (2002) only include measures that tap whether procedural elements are present or not, we can not know if expectations have their influence on the relationship between procedural elements and procedural fairness perceptions (Figure 5) or if they influence the procedural fairness perceptions to outcomes relationship (Figure 2). Both studies assume that overall measures of process fairness perceptions and presence of procedural elements are the same and may be ignoring a potentially useful distinction that would help clarify how procedural justice perceptions are formed and the role of procedural justice expectations in this process. Additionally, in order for practitioners to effectively manage justice perceptions in their organization, they need to know where to focus their efforts. Should organizations focus their efforts solely on providing people with as fair a process as possible or should some efforts also be made to create a set of expectations of the procedural elements people will and will not encounter?

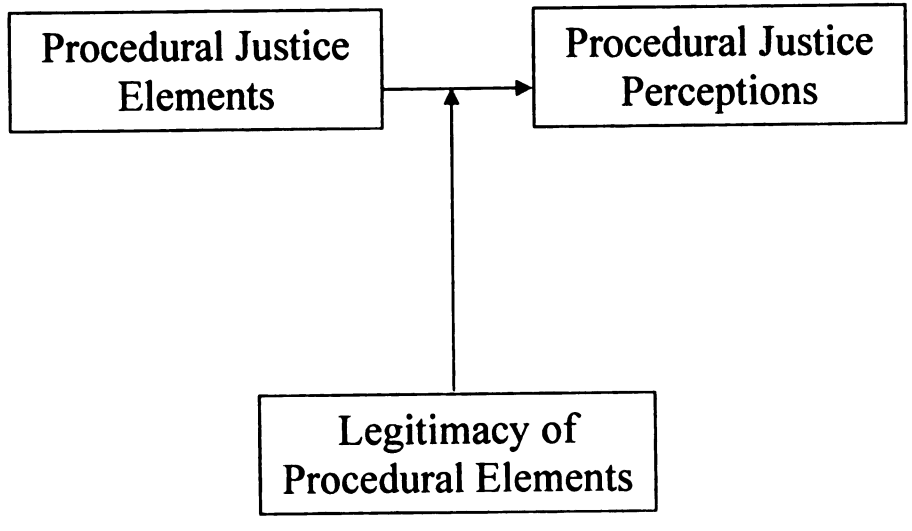

Figure 5. Models Tested by Van den Bos, Vermunt, and Wilke (1996) and Greenberg, Eskew, and Miles (cited in Brockner et al, 2001a)

Given the number of issues surrounding Brockner et al.'s (2001a) model, it is unclear exactly what to expect concerning procedural justice expectations. As a result of this confusion, I plan to measure the presence of procedural elements, perceptions of process fairness, expectations of procedural elements, expectations of process fairness, and outcomes. By including all of these measures, I will be able to address the myriad of issues raised by Brockner et al.'s model and determine where expectations have an influence on justice perceptions and outcomes. Based on issues noted above, I will hypothesize competing hypotheses as to where expectations serve as a moderator.

Hypothesis 2a: Procedural justice expectations will moderate the relationship between procedural justice perceptions and outcomes (satisfaction, commitment, withdrawal intentions, recommendation intentions). The relationship between procedural justice perceptions and outcomes will be stronger when people expect procedural justice to be present in the situation.

Hypothesis 2b: Procedural elements expectations will moderate the relationship between procedural elements perceptions and process fairness perceptions. The relationship between procedural elements perceptions and process fairness perceptions will be stronger when people expect those elements to be present in the situation.

Although both Brockner et al's (2001a) and Shapiro and Kirkman's (2001) research incorporate expectations into the relationship between justice elements and outcomes, neither model incorporates much of what has been learned from the research in social psychology. The next section provides a more in-depth discussion of the factors that may influence how expectations are formed and the situations in which expectations

may have an influence on perceptions and outcomes. The next section should provide justice researchers with a better understand of the role of expectations in justice models.

Expectations in Psychology

Expectations have played a consistent role within social psychology for many years (see Miller & Turnbull, 1986; Higgins & Bargh, 1987; Olson et al., 1996 for reviews). Within the expectations literature, a number of researchers have attempted to clarify the types of expectancies people may have as well as the factors that may affect when they will influence perceptions and/or behavior (Jones, Schwartz, & Gilbert, 1984; Higgins & Bargh, 1987; Olson et al., 1996; Swann & Ely, 1984; Rothbart & Park, 1986; Higgins & King, 1981). Olson et al. (1996) provide a review of expectancies within the field of social psychology. Olson et al. define expectancies as beliefs about future events and suggest that investigators interested in determining the source of expectancies are really asking about the sources of beliefs.

Olson et al. (1996) suggest that expectancies may vary on four key characteristics (certainty, accessibility, explicitness, and importance). The first is the *certainty* with which the expectancy is held. They suggest that an expectancy's certainty may be increased via direct experience, consensus information from other people, its accessibility, and past experiences of its confirmation. The second dimension is an expectancy's *accessibility* or the "likelihood that an expectancy will be activated and used in relevant situations" (p. 215). Accessibility is thought to be influenced by its frequency of activation, recency of activation, the importance of the expectancy, and past disconfirmations of the expectancy. The third dimension is the *explicitness* of an expectancy (i.e., implicit vs. explicit). Olson et al. suggest explicit expectancies are

"common in interpersonal settings, where interactants may form hypotheses about the traits of others" (p. 216). In addition to interpersonal settings, Olson et al. suggest that a number of other factors may make an expectancy explicit. They suggest that expectancies become explicit when, for example, we are required to prepare for an event (e.g., a performance appraisal meeting). In addition, directly asking people about their expectancies, the importance of an expectancy, and past experiences of disconfirmation may also make an expectancy explicit. Implicit expectancies are most factual pieces of information that people assume about the world and likely make up most of the expectancies we have. Implicit expectancies are such things as the sun rising in the morning, touching a hot stove leads to burns, etc. The final dimension on which expectancies may vary are their *importance*. Olson et al. hypothesize that an expectancy's importance may be influenced by its relevance to important needs of the person and/or its implications for other expectancies (e.g., an expectancy of a group has implications for expectancies of its members).

These properties are suggested to account for possible differences in the degree to which people allow their expectancies to influence their attitudes, perceptions, and behaviors. For example, if someone is certain of their expectancy that his parents will treat him poorly, he may be more likely to perceive that his parents treated him poorly, despite their actual behaviors. If that same person is only slightly certain that his parents will treat him poorly, he may actually see that they their behaviors towards him are positive. Thus, the stronger people's expectancies are via their certainty, accessibility, explicitness, and/or importance, the stronger the expectancies' influence on people's attitudes, perceptions, and behaviors.

The importance of understanding the types of properties on which expectancies may vary stems from research that shows when expectancies have more or less of an influence on perceptions and behavior (Jones et al., 1984; Swann & Ely, 1984; Fiske, Beattie, & Milberg, cited in Higgins & Bargh, 1987; Irving & Meyer, 1994). As noted above, Jones et al.'s (1984) findings suggest that the source of expectancy, and thus the strength of expectancy, affects the influence of expectancies on perceptions.

Swann and Ely (1984) provide evidence that people take the strength of expectancies into account when judging social information. Similar to Olson et al. (1996), Swann and Ely (1984) suggest that certainty helps people to determine which expectations should relied upon more than others. In their study, Swann and Ely manipulated the certainty of each interviewer's expectancies by telling her that information about the candidate she would be interviewing was either highly consistent or inconsistent across raters who had previously interviewed the candidate. The results confirmed their hypothesis by showing that although those interviewers with more certain expectancies probed candidates for more confirming evidence to support their expectancy, interviewers with less certain expectancies probed candidates equally for confirming and disconfirming evidence. Thus, the certainty of the expectancy appears to influence people's desire to either maintain consistency with the expectancy or abandon it in favor of new, behavioral evidence.

Irving and Meyer (1994) conducted a meta-analysis to determine support for the met expectations hypothesis. They were interested in determining whether new employees' organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions were influenced by a) the degree to which expectations existing before a new job were met by

the job after a period of time (i.e., the met expectations hypothesis), b) individual's expectations before the new job, and/or c) the experiences individuals had during their time on the job. Irving and Meyer's study was another way of addressing the issue of expectancy strength. In other words, would we expect job experiences to influence outcomes more than expectations or the difference between the two variables? Their results provided the most support for a main effect of experiences on the three outcomes (organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions). Expectations had a consistent non-significant influence on the outcomes measures. Irving and Meyer's results point to the importance of experience in helping to shape their work-related attitudes versus the expectations that employees hold about the organization.

Olson et al.'s (1996) review also suggests that expectancies may arise from three major sources: from direct personal experience with objects, from indirect experience via communicating with others, and from other beliefs (causal attributions). Expectancies based on direct experience are those that we learn over time through interacting with our environment. For example, a person may learn that ice is cold by touching ice cubes; thus, he/she would have first hand knowledge on which to base his/her expectancies of future encounters with ice. Expectancies based on indirect experience are those that we learn via social means. These sources of knowledge are important in forming expectancies, so we can learn much more information than that for which we are able to directly interact with the stimulus. It is probably better that we learn that stoves are hot, rather than having to touch one in order to learn an expectancy about touching hot stoves.

Within the justice literature, a number of researchers have also suggested that expectations may be influenced by past experiences (e.g., Brockner et al., 1994; Brockner

et al., 2001a; Shapiro & Kirkman, 2001; Mitrano, 1997; Davidson & Friedman, 1998 Gilliland & Steiner, 2001; Olson et al., 1996). As noted earlier, Brockner et al.'s (2001a) results suggested that the past presence of procedural elements influenced the legitimacy that layoff survivors assigned to fair treatment during a current layoff. Mitrano (1997) found that employees formed justice expectations based partly on past experiences they had within the organization and their careers more generally. Davidson and Friedman (1998) found that Black employees had more negative past experiences with justice in the workplace compared to Whites and consequently had more negative expectations of being treated fairly in the future. Based on the above findings, I predict that direct, procedural justice experiences and indirect, procedural justice experiences will be related to procedural justice expectations. In particular, I suggest that direct and indirect experiences will be positively related to procedural justice expectations.

Hypothesis 3a: Direct procedural justice experiences will be related to procedural justice expectations such that more positive direct experiences will be associated with more positive procedural justice expectations.

Hypothesis 3b: Indirect procedural justice experiences will be related to procedural justice expectations such that more positive indirect experiences will be associated with more positive procedural justice expectations.

The third source of expectancies suggested by Olson et al. (1996) is other beliefs. This source of expectancies helps people to build on their knowledge of other objects to infer what the new situation may hold. For example, I may know a dog is mean because it has tried to bite numerous people. Thus, I am using my existing belief about the dog to form an expectancy of how it will act it the future (i.e., it will be mean to other people).

Although other beliefs are a potential influence on expectancies, Olson et al. (1996) do not clearly separate this source from the past experiences that have given rise to these beliefs. We gather knowledge either directly or through social means, so how are other beliefs distinct from experience? Based on the lack of support given for this source, I chose not to include it as a potential influence on procedural justice expectations.

Olson et al. (1996) suggest that expectancies formed from direct personal experiences should be generally stronger than those not based on direct experience. Expectancies based on direct experience are thought to be more accurate and trustworthy compared to expectancies based on other sources. Although not necessarily indirect, expectancies based on other beliefs may not be as strong as those based on direct experience. Jones et al. (1984) conducted a study that varied the source of expectancy. Half of the subjects received expectancy information from someone who knew the person, and the other half from the person themselves. Jones et al. found that reputation-based expectancies were overridden by behavioral evidence, but that direct expectancies had an equal influence to behavioral evidence in influencing perceptions of the person.

The differential influence of direct vs. indirect experiences on the formation of beliefs and perceptions extends across multiple domains. Within the justice literature, Lind, Kray, and Thompson's (1998) research also suggests that direct experiences influence justice perceptions more than indirect experiences. Lind et al. (1998) exposed participants to a situation in which three group members were denied voice in a computer business task either once each or to a situation in which only one group member received all three instances of injustice. Their results showed that group members reacted more negatively to the situation when they each experienced an incident of injustice than when

only another team member experienced three instances of injustice. Thus, direct experiences were more influential on participants' perceptions than indirect experiences.

Tyler (1980, 1984) has also examined the influence of direct vs. indirect experience on the judged risk of crime victimization. Tyler (1984) conducted a series of studies to determine what aspects of a crime influence victims' subsequent fear of crime and crime-prevention behavior. In two studies, Tyler surveyed recent victims of a crime. In Study 1, Tyler found that the informativeness and affect related to the experienced crime significantly influenced victim's fear of crime. In Study 2, Tyler found that affect related to the experienced crime influenced victim's reported crime-prevention behavior. Tyler's third study asked undergraduate participants to read about another person's experience with a crime and provide their reactions to it. Similar to the first two studies, Tyler found that the informativeness and affect related to the crime influenced participants' fear of crime and reported crime-prevention behavior. Given that directly experienced crimes are more likely to provide useful information and to create strong affective reactions, it follows that direct experiences will influence perceptions of risk of crime victimization more than indirect experiences.

Tyler (1980) gathered data from interviews and telephone surveys regarding people's experience with crime and their crime-related judgments and behaviors. Tyler found that direct experiences with crime had a larger influence than indirect experiences on personal judgments of vulnerability to crimes. Despite this result, Tyler also found that indirect experiences with crime had a larger influence than direct experiences on judgments of the base rate of crime. Tyler noted that these results suggest that the relative impact of direct vs. indirect experience may depend on the outcome being

examined. Although Tyler makes this suggestion, most of the evidence concerning direct vs. indirect experiences leads me to hypothesize that that direct experiences will have a stronger influence than indirect experiences on procedural justice expectations.

Hypothesis 4: Direct procedural justice experiences will be more strongly related to procedural justice expectations than will indirect procedural justice experiences.

Additional Factors Influencing Expectations

In addition to the factors noted above in Hypotheses 3a (past, direct experiences) and 3b (past, indirect experiences), researchers have suggested a number of other factors that may influence procedural justice expectations (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Ball, Trevino, & Sims, 1993, 1994; Brockner et al., 2001b; Lam et al., 2002). Unfortunately, few researchers have actually conducted research to support what variables should and should not be considered as influences on justice expectations (see Mitrano, 1997 for an exception). Although there may be many influences on expectations (e.g., race, gender, age), I will focus on a subset of variables that have received some empirical support and/or those that I would expect to influence procedural justice expectations. Next, I will discuss the influence of positive and negative affectivity (PA/NA) and power distance (PD) on procedural justice expectations.

Positive and Negative Affectivity

Another factor which may more generally pre-dispose people to expect fair or unfair treatment is their negative affectivity (NA). People high in NA are described as "distressed and upset and have a negative view of self" and those low in negative affectivity are "relatively content and secure and satisfied with themselves" (p. 465)

(Watson & Clark, 1984). Watson and Clark further note that NA is a more general negative condition accompanied by such states as anger, scorn, revulsion, sadness, and a sense of rejection. Thus, people high in NA are expected to respond negatively to events despite the situational factors.

Ball and colleagues (1993) conducted a study in which they asked employees to recall a recent disciplinary event and the rate their reactions and the perceived characteristics of the event (e.g., negative demeanor, subordinate control, explanation, privacy, arbitrariness, and harshness). They found that NA was related to justice perceptions, intentions to turnover, organizational commitment, and trust of and satisfaction with their supervisor. The results of a path analysis indicated influence of NA on the outcomes was via the employees' perceptions of the disciplinary event. In a similar study Ball and colleagues (1994) found that NA was related to the perceived harshness of the event.

Folger and Konovsky (1989) examined the role of NA in reactions to employees' pay raises. They found that NA was significantly related to employees' organizational commitment, trust in supervisor, and the perceived fairness associated with the feedback given during the pay raise process. Similar to the Ball et al. studies (1993, 1994), these results suggest that NA may have an important influence on how people form justice perceptions. High NA people may always expect to treated unfairly, so they may consequently perceive unfair treatment no matter what efforts an organization takes to increase fairness.

Hypothesis 5: Negative affectivity will be negatively related to procedural justice expectations.

Although the research noted above deals with NA, I decided to examine another variable from the mood literature (i.e., positive affectivity, PA). Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1988) define PA as "the extent to which a person feels enthusiastic, active and alert" (p. 1063). Some research finds negligible correlations between PA and NA (e.g., Diener, Larsen, Levine, & Emmons, 1985; Watson et al., 1988) and other research finds that PA and NA are moderately correlated (e.g., Brenner, 1975; Diener & Emmons, 1984). Zevon and Tellegen (1982) suggest that "if we define emotions as aroused-engaged states, then Positive and Negative Affect are best characterized as *descriptively bipolar* but *affectively unipolar* dimensions" (p. 112). Research has shown that PA is useful for predicting a variety of outcomes such as social activity, depression, and general distress and dysfunction (Watson et al., 1988). Thus, PA appears to be another factor that may influence individual's general outlook on life and may consequently influence individual's procedural justice expectations.

Hypothesis 6: Positive affectivity will be positively related to procedural justice expectations.

Power Distance

Brockner et al. (2001a) suggest that there may be both proximal and distal influences on legitimacy beliefs. Distal influences are thought to be those based on historical or cultural norms. Hofstede's (1980) power distance (PD) concept is useful for attempting to understand the types of cultural differences that may influence procedural justice expectations. As mentioned earlier, Brockner et al. (2001b) and Lam et al. (2002) examined individual-level measures of power distance as a moderator of the relationship between justice elements and outcomes. Their results suggest a stronger relationship

between procedural elements and outcomes for people low in power distance compared to those high in power distance. Thus, people low in power distance may expect procedural elements/justice to be present more than those high in power distance.

Hypothesis 7: Power distance will be negatively related to procedural justice expectations.

Studies Overview

Study 1. The purpose of Study 1 was to provide a test of the role of expectations as a mediator (Hypothesis 1) a moderator of the procedural justice perceptions to outcomes relationship (Hypothesis 2a), or a moderator of the procedural justice elements and process fairness perceptions relationship (Hypothesis 2b) in a controlled lab setting. In this study, I manipulated procedural justice expectations. Additionally, I included measures of negative and positive affectivity and power distance as tests of Hypotheses 5-7, respectively. Study 1 was conducted in the context of a resume screening process.

Study 2. The purpose of Study 2 was to provide an additional test of the role of procedural justice expectations as a direct influence on procedural justice perceptions (Hypothesis 1), a moderator of the procedural justice perceptions to outcomes relationship (Hypothesis 2a), or a moderator of the procedural justice elements and process fairness perceptions relationship (Hypothesis 2b). Study 2 also examines the influence of past, direct experiences (Hypothesis 3a), past, indirect experiences (Hypothesis 3b), Negative Affectivity (Hypothesis 5), Positive Affectivity (Hypothesis 6), and Power Distance (Hypothesis 7). Finally, Study 2 includes a test of the relative influence of past, direct experiences versus past, indirect experiences on procedural

justice expectations (Hypothesis 4). Study 2 was conducted in the context of class grading procedures.

STUDY 1 METHODS

Participants. 225 participants were recruited from introductory psychology classes at a large Midwestern University. Participants were either given course credit or extra credit for their participation in the study. The average age of the sample was 20 years. The sample was 54% Female, 85% White, 8% African American, and 3% Hispanic, 3% Asian, and 1% American Indian.

Design. The design of the Study 1 was a between subjects design in which I manipulated participants' expectations of procedural fairness (Fair and Unfair). As the expectation manipulation was read verbally to participants, I randomly assigned each session to an expectation condition.

Procedure. After signing the consent form (Appendix A), participants were told that the experiment was intended to provide the researchers with their perceptions of a selection process used by a local organization (Appendices B and C). Participants were given a description of the organization and told that their job was to evaluate the fairness of the resume screening process. Participants were told that they would review the hiring manager's resume and a number of resumes. In addition, the experimenter told participants that they would be provided with the resume screening decisions for the candidates. The experimenter then gave participants the expectation manipulation checks (Appendix D). After completing the manipulation checks, the experimenter gave candidates the hiring manager's resume, candidates' resumes, and the resume screening decisions to review (Appendix E). After 10 minutes of reviewing the information, the

experimenter asked participants to provide their ratings of process fairness and outcome fairness associated with the selection process as well as their organizational commitment and recommendation intentions (Appendix F). Next, the experimenter gave participants a questionnaire containing the positive and negative affectivity measure, the power distance measure, and demographics (Appendix G). Finally, the experimenter gave participants a debriefing as to the purpose of the study (Appendix H).

Expectation Manipulation. In order to create different expectations across conditions, I created two manipulations that while similar in nature connoted either positive (Fair) or negative (Unfair) information regarding fairness practices within the organization.

> Fair Expectation. In the current experiment, your job is to evaluate the quality of the process that the hiring manager uses to make decisions at the resume screening step only. Organization X's evaluation of the hiring manager's selection practices stems from a desire to insure that the resume screening process is as efficient as possible. One challenge to maintaining a quality resume screening process is the **small** potential for hiring managers to use inconsistent and/or biased practices. **Fortunately**, research has found that hiring managers using a resume screening process similar to that in Organization X **do not** engage in these unfair practices. In addition, the current manager **has not** been accused of using inconsistent and/or personal biases in the resume screening process during his tenure as hiring manager. Finally, the director of hiring for the entire organization (i.e., the hiring manager's boss) **frequently** provides her hiring managers with training to prevent the use of unfair practices in the resume screening process. Because of the **small** potential for unfair practices in the resume screening process such as the one used by Organization X, I would like you to review the candidates' resumes and provide me with your perceptions of the resume screening process.

> Unfair Expectation. In the current experiment, your job is to evaluate the quality of the process that the hiring manager uses to make decisions at the resume screening step only. Organization X's evaluation of the hiring manager's selection practices stems from a desire to insure that the resume screening process is as efficient as possible. One challenge to maintaining a quality resume screening process is the **significant** potential for hiring managers to use inconsistent and/or biased practices. **Unfortunately**, research has found that hiring managers using a resume screening process similar to that in Organization

> X **engage** in these unfair practices. In addition, the current manager **has been** accused of using inconsistent and/or personal biases in the resume screening process during his tenure as hiring manager. Finally, the director of hiring for the entire organization (i.e., the hiring manager's boss) **rarely** provides her hiring managers with training to prevent the use of unfair practices in the resume screening process. Because of the **significant** potential for unfair practices in the resume screening process such as the one used by Organization X, I would like you to review the candidates' resumes and provide me with your perceptions of the resume screening process.

Resumes. The twelve candidate resumes used in this study were adopted from Horvath and Ryan (2003). Table 1 contains the characteristics of the twelve resumes. Of the twelve resumes, I selected an equal number of males and females. In order to assess the influence of expectations, I needed to create resumes that were moderate in qualifications since resumes at the extremes (i.e., highly qualified and highly unqualified) would likely be judged similarly despite individuals' expectations. Thus, I selected 1 highly qualified and 2 highly unqualified resumes from Horvath and Ryan. Additionally, I modified 9 of the remaining resumes to make them moderate in quality compared to the extreme candidates (i.e., the highly qualified and unqualified resumes). In total, 7 of the twelve candidates were selected (1 highly qualified and 6 moderately qualified candidates).

In addition to creating resumes moderate in quality, I also wanted to put some information in the resumes that would allow for variation in perceptions of fairness due to expectations. To create ambiguity regarding process fairness, 4 of the 6 selected resumes were created to have similar characteristics as the hiring manager (e.g., activities, religion, political affiliation), but were created to be similarly qualified as candidates who did not share these characteristics. I created these resumes in this fashion so that

Table 1

Study 1 Resume Characteristics

Candidate Name	Resume Quality	Selection Decision	Similarities to Hiring Manager
Sara Franks	High	Select	
Brent Hawks	Low	Reject	Gender
Janet McClellan	Low	Reject	
Christopher Grano	Moderate	Select	Gender, Religion, School
Victoria Niles	Moderate	Select	Activities, Majors, Past Jobs
Jonathan Reyner	Moderate	Select	Gender, Politics, Past Jobs
Michael Smythe	Moderate	Select	Gender, Activities, Religion
Richard Snead	Moderate	Reject	Gender
Ellen VanBuren	Moderate	Reject	
Mary Hirsch	Moderate	Reject	
Wayne Jameson	Moderate	Select	Gender
Laura Mercier	Moderate	Select	

participants in the negative expectation condition would perceive these similarities as evidence of unfairness, whereas participants in the positive expectations would not perceive these similarities as evidence of unfairness. To make sure that participants in both conditions did not see these as unfair, I only incorporated a few similarities in these resumes.

Pilot Experiments.

Expectation Manipulation

To ensure that individuals would perceive the expected difference between the fair and unfair expectation manipulation, I ran 112 people through a pilot experiment testing the manipulation. After agreeing to participate in the pilot study (Appendix I), participants were told they would review the selection procedures used by an organization and provide their perceptions of them (Appendices J and K). After completing the expectation measures, the experimenter gave participants a debriefing (Appendix L).

In order to check the effect of manipulating individual's expectations, I administered two expectations measures after the manipulation. One measure contained four items that assessed individuals' expectations of an overall fair resume screening process (e.g., "I expect that the resume screening process will be fair"). The second measure assessed participants' expectations of procedural justice elements in the resume screening process (e.g., "The resume screening procedures were applied consistently"). These measures were given after the experimenter read a description of the organization, the position being selected, their task, and the expectation manipulation.

Demographics were not collected in this study because one of the first pilot participants suggested that collecting such information influenced his and may influence other participants' manner in which they judged their expectations of the scenario. The pilot participant stated that asking demographic information did not seem necessary given the task, so he thought that he may be expected to fill out the measure differently than others. Despite not collecting demographic information, participants in the pilot study were taken from the same sample as the main study; thus, they are likely comparable in demographics to the main study.

Throughout the piloting, I made minor adjustments to the wording in order to better fit the manipulation. The adjustments did not appear to strengthen the manipulation, but did provide a clearer framing of the situation for participants. Overall, the results indicated a significant difference between the fair and unfair expectation conditions for both the elements and process fairness manipulation checks ($F(1,111)=4.28$, $p<.05$; $F(1,111)=6.15$, $p<.05$, respectively). The results indicated that although there were significant differences between the groups, the scale average for both the elements and process fairness measures in the unfair expectation condition were still above the midpoint of the scale (3.58 and 3.29, respectively). The results also indicated that the wording changes did not change participants' expectations for procedural elements or process fairness ($F(2,111)=1.28$, $p=.28$; $F(2,111)=.28$, $p=.76$, respectively).

Resume Creation

To make sure that individuals would perceive the quality of resumes as I intended, 31 participants were asked to review and then rate the quality of the 12 resumes. After agreeing to participate in the pilot study (Appendix M), participants were told they would

review resumes of candidates who recently went through a resume screening process used by an organization and provide their perceptions of quality of the resumes. After reviewing the resumes and completing the quality and resume rankings (Appendix N), the experimenter gave participants a debriefing (Appendix O). Similar to the first pilot study, demographics were not collected for this pilot study. Participants in the pilot study were taken from the same sample as the main study; thus, they are likely comparable in demographics to the main study.

The results of the second pilot study indicated that participants perceived one highly qualified resume, nine moderately qualified resumes, and two minimally qualified resumes. The results were consistent for both the resume quality ratings and the candidate ranking data.

Measures. All measures except Positive and Negative Affectivity utilized a five point Likert-type scale with anchors of 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree.* Positive and Negative Affectivity utilized a five point Likert-type scale with anchors of 1 = *very slightly or not al all* to 5 = *extremely.*

Positive and Negative Affectivity. Positive and Negative affectivity was measured using Watson et al.'s (1988) PANAS (Positive and Negative Affectivity Scales) scales. The PANAS scales consist of two 10-item measures, each of which consists of either positive (e.g., interested, proud, inspired) or negative (e.g., distressed, jittery, nervous) mood descriptors. Watson et al. have shown the PANAS scales to be only slightly correlated (average = -.19), have high reliabilities (alphas >.80, test-retest ~ .70), and show reasonable construct validity.

Power Distance. Individual's beliefs in the acceptability of power differences was measured using six items adopted from Lam et al. (2002). An example item is "People should not express disagreements with their superiors."

Procedural Elements Expectations. Individuals' expectations of procedural justice in the grading process was measured by adapting the procedural justice scale developed by Colquitt (2001). Colquitt's procedural justice scale was designed to measure procedural justice perceptions, so I modified the items to tap individuals' expectations of procedural justice (four items; e.g., "I expect that the resume screening procedures will be applied consistently"). In addition, Colquitt's procedural justice scale is designed so it can be adapted to specific situations (e.g., hiring, layoffs, etc.). Since the current study was conducted in a resume screening context, all questions referenced the resume screening process.

Process Fairness Expectations. Participants' expectations of process fairness was measured by adapting Gilliland's (1994) measure. This four-item measure measures individuals' expectations of an overall fair resume screening process. An example item is "I expect that the resume screening process will be fair."

Procedural Elements Perceptions. Individuals' perceptions of procedural justice in the resume screening process was measured by adapting the procedural justice scale developed by Colquitt (2001). Colquitt's procedural justice scale was modified to fit perceptions of the resume screening process. Four items were used to assess procedural justice in the resume screening process (e.g., "The resume screening procedures were applied consistently").

Process Fairness Perceptions. Perceptions of the overall fairness of the process was measured using four items by adopting Gilliland's (1994) of process fairness. An example item is "I feel the resume screening process was fair."

Outcome fairness. Participants' perceptions of outcome fairness were measured using four items from Gilliland (1994). An example item is "I feel the selection outcomes were fair."

Organizational Commitment. Brockner (2001b) created two measures of organizational commitment as a proxy for individuals' satisfaction with a change process. Thus, I adopted four items from two separate organizational commitment measures created by Brockner et al. (2001b) and created two additional items. An example item is "I would be motivated to work for this organization."

Recommendation Intentions. Three items were taken from Bell, Wiechmann, and Ryan (2003a) to assess participants' intentions to recommend the organization to others. An example item is "I would recommend this organization to others."

STUDY 1 RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics

Means, standard deviations, intercorrelations, and reliabilities of the measures are in Table 2. In order to clarify the nature of my measures, I ran a series of factor analyses and principal components analyses using both an orthogonal and oblique rotation. As all analyses produced similar results, I will only present the results of the principal components analyses (PCA) using an oblique rotation. I ran a PCA for the PANAS items and found that a two-factor solution explained 52% of the variance. The results also indicated that all items loaded highly (>.50) onto their hypothesized factors and had

Table 2

Study 1 Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Age	19.67	2.76	----										
2. Gender	1.60	.62	.00	----									
3. Black-White Dummy Code	.08	.27	.10	.18**	----								
4. Other-White Dummy Code	.07	.26	.01	.07	-.08	----							
5. Expectation Condition	.49	.50	-.02	-.02	.11	-.06	----						
6. PJ Expectations[a]	3.52	.74	.03	.03	.00	-.08	.24**	(.90)					
7. Justice Perceptions	3.20	.69	-.11†	-.02	-.09	-.03	.01	.22**	(.93)				
8. Intentions	3.18	.59	-.02	-.01	-.05	-.09	.09	.29**	.69**	(.90)			
9. Positive Affectivity	3.37	.72	-.07	.10	.01	-.07	.01	.17**	.08	.11	(.90)		
10. Negative Affectivity	2.02	.71	-.15*	.05	-.02	.05	.03	-.11	.00	-.09	.05	(.89)	
11. Power Distance	2.10	.63	-.02	-.05	.13†	-.01	-.07	-.03	-.01	.00	-.12†	.11†	(.69)

Note: N= 225. For Expectation condition: 0=Unfair, 1=Fair. For both Dummy Codes: 0=White, 1=Minority Group. For Gender: 1=Male, 2=Female. Reliabilities are presented in the diagonal in parentheses.

[a] Procedural Justice Expectations. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

negligible cross-loadings (<.30) on the other factor; thus, I created separate Positive Affectivity and Negative Affectivity scale. The Positive and Negative Affectivity scales both had high reliabilities (.90 and .89, respectively).

A separate PCA was conducted for the power distance items. Results indicated that two factors (each with three items) accounted for 55% of the variance. The first factor appeared to tap overall beliefs about power differentials, and the second factor contained items that referenced power differentials with respect to instructors. The results indicated that two items in the second factor had low loadings on both factors and that a third item had moderate loadings on the both factors. I then conducted another PCA, but dropped the two items that had poor loadings on either factor. The results indicated that one-factor accounted for 53% of the variance and that all of the items had moderate loadings (>.40) on the factor. Based on these results, I created a four-item measure of power distance. The coefficient alpha for this scale (.69) was lower than expected, but was still near the accepted level of .70.

Next, I conducted a PCA with the procedural elements expectations and process fairness expectations items. I did not include the procedural elements perceptions, process fairness perceptions, outcome fairness perceptions, organizational commitment, and recommendation intentions measures in the analysis, as they were separated by the time participants reviewed the resumes (i.e., 10 minutes) and were conceptually distinct from the two expectations measures. The results for the expectations items indicated a one-factor solution accounted for 59% of the variance and all items loaded at least moderately (>.40) on the factor. I created a procedural justice expectations measure based on these results, and it had a reliability of .90.

Finally, I conducted a PCA with the procedural elements perceptions, process fairness perceptions, outcome fairness perceptions, organizational commitment, and recommendation intentions items. I ran this PCA in order to determine if participants distinguished between the perceptions measures and those meant to tap their commitment to and intentions regarding the organization. Results indicated a two-factor solution that accounted for 58% of the variance. The results indicated that, overall, the procedural elements perceptions, process fairness perceptions, and outcome fairness perceptions loaded onto one factor and the organizational commitment and recommendation intentions items loaded onto a second factor. One commitment item (i.e., "I trust this hiring manager") and one intention item (i.e., "I would recommend others apply to this organization") loaded slightly higher on the justice perceptions factor than the intentions factor. Despite this result, I thought their content more accurately represented the intentions factor, so I created the intentions measure using these items and those from the second factor. I created the justice perceptions measure using the procedural elements perceptions, process fairness perceptions, and outcome fairness perceptions items. Both the justice perceptions and intentions measures had high reliabilities (.93 and .90, respectively).

Manipulation Check

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to test the effectiveness of the expectation manipulation. The results indicated that the procedural justice expectations measure was significantly different between conditions ($F(1,224)=13.58$, $p<.01$). As expected, participants in the Fair condition had higher procedural justice expectations than participants in the Unfair condition (3.70 vs. 3.34, respectively). Although the

manipulation produced significant differences in expectations, the size of the effect was rather small (d=.49). These results suggest that participants may not have had enough experience with this type of process to form stronger expectations. Instead, participants appeared to base their expectations on the general premise that these types of processes are at least somewhat fair.

Hypothesis 1: Mediation

I tested Hypothesis 1 (i.e., Procedural justice expectations will directly influence justice perceptions, which will, in turn, influence intentions) using Baron and Kenny's (1986) test of mediation. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), mediation is supported by a) a significant relationship of procedural justice expectations and justice perceptions, b) a significant relationship between justice perceptions and intentions, and c) either a non-significant relationship (full mediation) or a change in the degree of relationship (partial mediation) between procedural justice expectations and intentions when justice perceptions are controlled.

Table 3 shows the first condition of mediation was not supported as the expectation condition is not related to justice perceptions. Given the lack of support for mediation using the expectation condition as the IV, I decided to further explore the possibility of mediation using the procedural justice expectations measure. Table 4 shows that the first two steps are supported as procedural justice expectations are significantly related to justice perceptions (β=.21) and justice perceptions are significantly related to intentions (β=.68). The final step supported partial mediation as the relationship between procedural justice expectations and intentions decreased when

Table 3

Mediated Regression Results: Regressing Justice Perceptions on Expectation Condition

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Justice Perceptions			
1. Age	-.11	.03	.03
Gender	.03		
Black-White Dummy Code	-.10		
Other-White Dummy Code	-.03		
Positive Affectivity	.07		
Negative Affectivity	-.03		
Power Distance	.03		
2. Expectation Condition	.03	.00	.03

Note: N=218. DV = dependent variable. For Expectation condition: 0=Unfair, 1=Fair. For both Dummy Codes: 0=White, 1=Minority Group. For Gender: 1=Male, 2=Female. Significance based on two-tailed t-tests. All coefficients are from the final step of the model with all variables entered.

Table 4

Mediated Regression Results: Regressing Justice Perceptions and Intentions on Procedural Justice Expectations

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Justice Perceptions			
1. Age	-.11†	.03	.03
Gender	.02		
Black-White Dummy Code	-.09		
Other-White Dummy Code	-.02		
Positive Affectivity	.04		
Negative Affectivity	-.00		
Power Distance	.02		
2. Procedural Justice Expectations	.21**	.04**	.07*
DV: Intentions			
1. Age	.05	.03	.03
Gender	.03		
Black-White Dummy Code	-.00		
Other-White Dummy Code	-.06		
Positive Affectivity	.06		
Negative Affectivity	-.07		
Power Distance	.04		
2. Justice Perceptions	.68**	.45**	.48**
DV: Intentions			
1. Age	-.03	.03	.03
Gender	.03		
Black-White Dummy Code	-.07		
Other-White Dummy Code	-.07		
Positive Affectivity	.06		
Negative Affectivity	-.06		
Power Distance	.05		
2. Procedural Justice Expectations	.27**	.07**	.10**

Note: N=218. DV = dependent variable. For Expectation condition: 0=Unfair, 1=Fair. For both Dummy Codes: 0=White, 1=Minority Group. For Gender: 1=Male, 2=Female. Significance based on two-tailed t-tests. All coefficients are from the final step of the model with all variables entered.

† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 4 (cont.)

Mediated Regression Results: Regressing Justice Perceptions and Intentions on Procedural Expectations

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Intentions			
1. Age	.04	.03	.03
Gender	.02		
Black-White Dummy Code	-.00		
Other-White Dummy Code	-.05		
Positive Affectivity	.04		
Negative Affectivity	-.06		
Power Distance	.04		
2. Justice Perceptions	.66**	.45**	.48**
3. Procedural Justice Expectations	.13*	.02*	.50*

Note: N=218. DV = dependent variable. For Expectation condition: 0=Unfair, 1=Fair. For both Dummy Codes: 0=White, 1=Minority Group. For Gender: 1=Male, 2=Female. Significance based on two-tailed t-tests. All coefficients are from the final step of the model with all variables entered.

† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

controlling for justice perceptions (β=.27 to β=.13), but remained significant ($p<.05$). These results provide partial support for Hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 2a: Moderation

I tested Hypothesis 2a (i.e., Procedural justice expectations will moderate the relationship between justice perceptions and intentions) with moderated regression analyses using both the expectation condition and procedural justice expectations measure. The results in Table 5 indicated that neither the interaction of the expectation condition and justice perceptions measure nor the interaction of the procedural justice expectations and justice perceptions measures were significant; thus, Hypothesis 2a was not supported. The largest predictor of intentions in both models was justice perceptions, which is not surprising given previous justice research. Results also indicated that both the expectation condition and expectations measure were significant in their respective regression equations. These results suggest that people with higher expectations may be more likely to react positively to the situation, regardless of their perceptions of the process.

Hypothesis 2b: Moderation

In order to test Hypothesis 2b (i.e., Procedural elements expectations will moderate the relationship between procedural elements perceptions and process fairness perceptions), I had to re-organize some of the measures used in the above analyses. As noted above, the procedural elements expectations and process fairness expectations measures loaded onto a single factor (i.e., procedural justice expectations). In addition, the procedural elements perceptions and process fairness perceptions measures loaded onto a single factor (i.e., justice perceptions). If Hypothesis 2b is correct, I expect the

Table 5

Moderated Regression Results: Regressing Intentions on Interaction of Expectation Condition and Justice Perceptions and Interaction of Procedural Expectations and Justice Perceptions

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Intentions			
1. Age	.06	.03	.03
Gender	.04		
Black-White Dummy Code	-.02		
Other-White Dummy Code	-.05		
Positive Affectivity	.06		
Negative Affectivity	-.08		
Power Distance	.05		
2. Expectation Condition	.10*	.47**	.50**
Justice Perceptions	.65**		
3. Expectation Condition X Perceptions	.05	.00	.50**
DV: Intentions			
1. Age	.04	.03	.03
Gender	.02		
Black-White Dummy Code	-.01		
Other-White Dummy Code	-.05		
Positive Affectivity	.04		
Negative Affectivity	-.06		
Power Distance	.03		
2. Procedural Justice Expectations	.13*	.47**	.50**
Justice Perceptions	.66**		
3. Expectations Measure X Perceptions	-.03	.00	.50**

Note: N=218. DV = dependent variable. For Expectation condition: 0=Unfair, 1=Fair. For both Dummy Codes: 0=White, 1=Minority Group. For Gender: 1=Male, 2=Female. Significance based on two-tailed t-tests. All coefficients are from the final step of the model with all variables entered.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

relationship between the procedural elements perceptions and process fairness perceptions measures to be stronger for both participants in the Fair condition and for participants with higher procedural elements expectations. To test Hypothesis 2b, I used the original expectations measures (i.e., procedural elements and process fairness expectations) and perceptions measures (i.e., procedural elements and process fairness perceptions and outcome fairness perceptions) described in the Methods section. Results (Table 6) indicated that the interaction of the expectation condition and procedural elements perceptions measure added a significant albeit a small amount of variance to the prediction of process fairness perceptions (ΔR^2=.01; $\Delta F(1,207)$=3.88, p = .05). To clarify the nature of the interaction, I ran a partial correlation for each condition where I partialled out all of the variables in Step 1 of the regression equation in Table 6. The results indicated that the correlation between the procedural elements perceptions and process fairness perceptions was exactly two times higher for participants in the Unfair condition than for participants in the Fair condition (r = .46 and .23, respectively). This result is contrary to that predicted in Hypothesis 2b.

The results also indicated that outcome fairness perceptions significantly related to process fairness perceptions, which is consistent with previous research. In addition, non African-American participants rated the process as less fair than White participants. Negative affectivity was also related to process fairness perceptions such that the more participants generally view situations negatively, the less process fairness they perceived in the resume screening process. Finally, power distance was positively related to process fairness perceptions; thus, the more accepting participants are of power differences between people, the more they perceived the resume screening process as fair.

Table 6

Moderated Regression Results: Regressing Process Fairness Perceptions on Interaction of Expectation Condition and Procedural Elements Perceptions and Interaction of Procedural Elements Expectations and Procedural Elements Perceptions Measures

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Process Fairness Perceptions			
1. Age	-.02	.71**	.71**
Gender	.03		
Black-White Dummy Code	-.03		
Other-White Dummy Code	-.08*		
Positive Affectivity	.03		
Negative Affectivity	-.07*		
Power Distance	.11**		
Outcome Fairness Perceptions	.62**		
2. Expectation Condition	.02	.04**	.75**
Procedural Elements Perceptions	.37**		
3. Expectation Condition X Perceptions	-.10†	.01†	.76**
DV: Process Fairness Perceptions			
1. Age	-.01	.71**	.71**
Gender	.05		
Black-White Dummy Code	-.02		
Other-White Dummy Code	-.08*		
Positive Affectivity	.04		
Negative Affectivity	-.08*		
Power Distance	.11**		
Outcome Fairness Perceptions	.61**		
2. Procedural Elements Expectations	-.06	.04**	.75**
Procedural Elements Perceptions	.32**		
3. Elements Expectations X Perceptions	.00	.00	.75**

Note: N=218. DV = dependent variable. For Expectation condition: 0=Unfair, 1=Fair. For both Dummy Codes: 0=White, 1=Minority Group. For Gender: 1=Male, 2=Female. Significance based on two-tailed t-tests. All coefficients are from the final step of the model with all variables entered.

† $p = .05$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Predictors of Procedural Justice Expectations

To test Hypotheses 5-7, I regressed the procedural justice expectations measure on the individual differences measures (i.e., negative and positive affectivity and power distance). The results in Table 7 indicated that, as a set, the individual difference measures were not related to procedural justice expectations. The only individual difference that was related to procedural justice expectations was positive affectivity (β=.16). The positive relationship indicated that the more a person tends to view situations in a positive manner, the more they expected the resume screening process would be fair. These results provide support for Hypothesis 6. The results for negative affectivity and power distance were not significant; thus Hypotheses 5 and 7 were not supported.

Table 7

Hierarchical Regression Results: Regressing Procedural Justice Expectations on Individual Differences and Demographics

Predictor/Step	β	R^2
DV: Procedural Justice Expectations		
1. Age	.03	.05
Gender	.06	
Black-White Dummy Code	-.02	
Other-White Dummy Code	-.07	
Positive Affectivity	.16*	
Negative Affectivity	-.11	
Power Distance	.04	

Note: N=218. DV = dependent variable. For both Dummy Codes: 0=White, 1=Minority Group. For Gender: 1=Male, 2=Female. Significance based on two-tailed t-tests.
† $p = .05$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

STUDY 1 DISCUSSION

The results of Study 1 provide partial support for the influence of procedural justice expectations on intentions via justice perceptions as suggested by Shapiro and Kirkman (2001). Partial mediation was supported using the procedural justice expectations measure. These results suggest that people's expectations may influence their fairness perceptions regardless of the characteristics of the situation.

Although I found partial mediation using the procedural justice expectations manipulation check measure, I did not find mediation using the expectation manipulation. This result may be due to the fact that although the procedural justice expectations manipulation check differed across conditions, the effect size was rather small (η^2=.06). It appears that the numerous statements in the manipulation suggesting the resume screening process would be fair or unfair did not influence participants' procedural justice expectations enough so that the expectation condition accurately represented participants as having fair and unfair procedural justice expectations, respectively.

I also found no support for the moderating influence of procedural justice expectations on the relationship between justice perceptions and intentions as hypothesized by Brockner and colleagues (2001a). I did find some support for the moderating influence of procedural elements expectations on the relationship between perceptions of procedural elements and process fairness perceptions. Although some support was found for this hypothesis, it was not as I predicted. Procedural elements perceptions and process fairness perceptions were more strongly related in the Unfair than Fair condition. One explanation may be that the instructions in the Unfair condition

more strongly attuned participants to fairness issues than the instructions did in the Fair condition. Participants in the Fair condition may have been more likely to judge the process as fair, regardless of the presence or not of the procedural elements. Regardless of the nature of the interaction, the significance of the interaction suggests that procedural justice expectations play a role in the formation of procedural justice perceptions.

Results also support the influence of positive affectivity (r=.16), but not negative affectivity or power distance, on procedural justice expectations. As predicted, the more a person tends to view situations in a positive manner, the more they expected the resume screening process would be fair. This result suggests that what people expect in terms of procedural fairness may be determined by relatively stable aspects of personality that are likely to transfer across situations. Thus, regardless of what an organization may tell its employees, people may expect to be treated fairly/unfairly based on how they tend to approach and/or view situations.

The results of Study 1 should be considered in light of some potential limitations. First, although the manipulation produced significant differences in expectations, the condition did not predict justice perceptions even though the manipulation check measure did. Although the manipulation produced significant differences in expectations, the size of the effect was rather small (d=.49). As suggested earlier, these results may indicate that participants may not have had enough experience with this type of process to form stronger expectations. Instead, people who have no experience in a situation may tend to base their expectations on the general feelings regarding how fair similar processes tend to be. A related limitation may be the generalizability of the findings from Study 1. In a situation where participants are part of the process, expectations may function differently

or have less of an influence than other factors not present in a lab setting. Thus, differences in either amount of experience or level of involvement in the process may affect how expectations influence procedural justice perceptions.

In order to address these limitations, Study 2 was conducted using an applied sample. Study 2 was intended to provide another test of the hypotheses in Study 1. Study 2 also was intended to provide a test of additional factors thought to influence procedural justice expectations.

STUDY 2 METHODS

Participants. Participants were recruited from introductory psychology classes at a large Midwestern university. Participants received extra credit for their participation in the study. 626 participants completed the first survey. The average age of the initial sample was 21 years. This sample was 75% Female, 82% White, 9% African American, 3% Asian, and 3% Hispanic. 510 participants (i.e., 81% of the initial sample) completed the second survey. The average age of the sample completing both surveys was 21 years. This sample was 75% Female, 83% White, 9% African American, 3% Asian, and 3% Hispanic.

In order to ensure that participants were paying attention during the both surveys, a five-item carelessness scale (see Appendix P) was used in the first survey and four of the carelessness items were used in the second survey. After the data was collected, it was clear that participants did not respond "Strongly Agree" to all items and that this result may be due to the subjective nature of some of the questions. For example, the statement "Grass is green" is correct, but grass may also be blue, red, etc. For other items (e.g., "The moon orbits Earth"), the answer was more objective and responses to the

contrary were more indicative of carelessness. Given the fact that most items were at least partially true, I decided to use a cutoff that reflected participants who, on average, agreed with each item. As I used a 1 to 5 Likert scale for the five carelessness items, I decided to use a cut-off of 20 for the first scale and 16 for the second scale. Using the cut-off for the first scale, I dropped 42 people from the initial sample to be used in analyses assessing the relationship between individual differences and procedural justice expectations and values; thus, I had 584 participants for these analyses. From the sample of 510 people who completed both surveys, I excluded 68 people whose scores were either below 20 on the first carelessness scale or below 16 on the second carelessness scale. Finally, nine people did not have a grade for their first test, so they were not included in the analyses. Thus, 433 people were used for the mediation vs. moderation analyses.

Procedure. During the first two weeks of class, students were asked to participate in a study examining their perceptions of the current Psychology class they were taking. Students interested in participating were directed to a website where they completed a consent form (Appendix Q) and the first survey. The first survey included the procedural justice elements expectations measure, process fairness expectations measure, procedural justice elements values measure, process fairness values measure, participants' past experiences in classes, positive and negative affectivity, power distance beliefs, class commitment, class intentions, and demographics. In addition, a technical computer experience measure was included to help assess the prevalence of common method variance.

After their first examination, participants were sent an email containing a link to the second web-based survey. The second survey included measures of procedural justice elements, process fairness perceptions, class satisfaction, class commitment, class intentions, and recommendation intentions. After completion of the study, participants were given a debriefing as to the purpose of the study (Appendix R).

Measures. All measures except Positive and Negative Affectivity utilized a five point Likert-type scale with anchors of 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree.* Positive and Negative Affectivity utilized a five point Likert-type scale with anchors of 1 = *very slightly or not al all* to 5 = *extremely.* A complete list of the following measures is provided in Appendix P. The measures of positive and negative affectivity, power distance, procedural elements expectations, process fairness expectations, procedural elements perceptions, process fairness perceptions, outcome fairness perceptions, and recommendation intentions are the same used in Study 1, but I made wording modifications to fit the context of Study 2 (i.e., class grading procedures).

Pre-test measures

Past Experiences. Four measures were used to assess different aspects of participants' fairness-related experiences. The degree to which participants have directly experienced procedural fairness in their previous classes was measured using four items adopted from Bell, Wiechmann, and Ryan (2003a). An example item is "In my previous classes, grading has usually been conducted in a fair manner."

The degree to which participants have indirectly experienced procedural fairness regarding classes was measured using four items created by the researcher. These items attempt to tap instances of procedural fairness learned via social means versus direct

experience by participant. An example item is "I usually hear that people's class work is graded fairly."

The degree to which participants have information regarding the fairness of their class was measured using four items created by the researcher. An example item is "I have heard that this class (i.e., PSY X) uses fair grading procedures."

The degree to which participants have information regarding the fairness of their instructor was measured using four items created by the researcher. An example item is "I have heard that this instructor (i.e., the one for PSY X) uses fair grading procedures."

Procedural Elements Values. The extent to which participants value procedural justice elements was assessed by modifying the procedural justice elements scale. An example item is "I value that the procedures will be applied consistently." Bell et al. (2003a) found an alpha of .79 for this measure. Principal components analysis of the Bell et al. data supported the distinction between procedural elements values and expectations; thus, although these concepts are related, individuals are able to distinguish between the values and expectations attached to procedural justice elements.

Process Fairness Values. The value participants attach to process fairness was measured by adapting the process fairness expectations measure. An example item is "I value that the grading process is fair."

Technical Computer Experience. The amount of in-depth computer experience that individuals have with computers (e.g., knowledge of LANs, reading computer magazines) was measured using six items from Potosky and Bobko (1998). An example item is "I know what an operating system is." Wiechmann and Ryan (2003) found an alpha of .79 for this measure.

Pre- and Post-Test Measures

Class Commitment. Individuals' initial commitment to the class was measured using nine items taken from Allen and Meyer's (1990) 24-item measure of affective, continuance, and normative commitment. To reduce the length of the original measure, I selected the best three items from each scale in terms of its loadings on the primary factor, cross-loadings on the other two factors, and relevance to a classroom setting. For the first survey, I included the three-item continuance commitment and normative commitment measures, but did not include the three-item affective commitment measure as its items reference aspects of commitment that would likely only develop with significant exposure to the class. The second survey contained all three three-item factors of commitment (i.e., continuance, normative, and affective commitment).

Class Intentions. Five items were adopted from Bell et al.'s (2003a) measure of class intentions. This measure assesses the degree to which participants are likely to remain active in their class, and was originally created to parallel measures of withdrawal intentions. An example item is "I intend to attend lectures."

Carelessness. Five items were written to assess the degree to which participants were paying attention to the items. The five carelessness items were interspersed throughout the rest of the above measures. The items were written to be basic, factual items that only participants who were not paying attention would not agree with. An example item is "The moon orbits Earth."

Post-test only measures

Class Satisfaction. Individuals' overall satisfaction with the class was measured using six items adapted from Agho, Price, and Mueller (1992). An example item is "I feel fairly well satisfied with this class."

STUDY 2 RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics

Means, standard deviations, intercorrelations, and reliabilities of the measures are in Table 8. Similar to Study 1, I ran a series of factor analyses and principal components analyses using both an orthogonal and oblique rotation. As all analyses produced similar results, I will only present the results of the principal components analyses (PCA) using an oblique rotation.

For the Survey 1 items, I conducted a separate PCA for each of the individual difference measures (i.e., power distance, PANAS, past experience), the set of expectations and values measures (i.e., procedural elements expectations, procedural elements values, process fairness expectations, and process fairness values), and the set of intentions and commitment measures (i.e., class intentions, continuance commitment, and normative commitment). For the Survey 2 items, I conducted separate PCAs for the perceptions measures (i.e., procedural elements perceptions, process fairness perceptions, and outcome fairness perceptions) and for the outcome measures (i.e., class satisfaction, class intentions, recommendation intentions, continuance commitment, normative commitment, and affective commitment). The final list of measures and their items is located in Appendix S.

Table 8

Study 2 Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Age (T1)	20.92	3.05	----						
2. Gender (T1)	1.75	.44	-.04	----					
3. African American Dummy Code (T1)	.09	.29	.08*	.06	----				
4. Other Racial Group Dummy Code (T1)	.08	.27	.04	-.02	-.09*	----			
5. Direct Experience (T1)	3.84	.59	.01	.03	-.08*	-.04	(.77)		
6. Positive, Indirect Experience (T1)	3.62	.57	-.05	-.01	-.02	-.12**	.25**	(.45)	
7. Negative, Indirect Experience (T1)	3.51	.83	-.09*	-.06	.00	.03	-.30**	-.06	(.75)
8. Positive, Class Information (T1)	3.79	.74	-.07	.02	.02	-.05	.11**	-.02	-.18**
9. Negative, Class Information (T1)	3.40	.65	-.05	.07	.01	-.07	-.05	.10*	-.10*
10. Positive Affectivity (T1)	3.47	.59	.02	.11*	-.02	-.04	.04	.06	-.02
11. Negative Affectivity (T1)	1.95	.64	-.11*	.05	-.09*	.02	-.14**	-.05	.08
12. Power Distance (T1)	2.14	.48	.01	-.08	.07	-.01	-.13**	-.04	.04
13. Class Intentions (T1)	4.37	.56	.08*	.11*	.03	-.02	.07	.01	-.01
14. Continuance Commitment (T1)	3.11	.94	.16**	-.03	.04	.06	-.07	-.03	.12**
15. Normative Commitment (T1)	2.30	.66	.03	-.02	.04	.10*	-.05	-.02	-.04
16. Procedural Justice Expectations (T1)	4.35	.46	.00	.02	-.02	.02	.18**	.01	.10*
17. Procedural Justice Values (T1)	4.31	.50	.03	-.01	-.11**	-.06	.21**	-.02	.07
18. Voice Expectations\Values (T1)	3.97	.52	-.01	.01	.12**	-.04	-.01	-.04	.13**
19. Technical Computer Experience (T1)	2.84	.78	-.05	-.31**	.06	.04	-.01	.10*	.07
20. Procedural Justice Perceptions (T2)	3.91	.52	.06	-.04	.10	-.08	.19	.09	.04

Note: T1=Time 1 survey; T2= Time 2 survey. For both Dummy Codes: 0=White, 1=Minority Group. For Gender: 1=Male, 2=Female. Test Grade based on 100-point scale. Reliabilities are presented in the diagonal in parentheses. T1: N=582; T2: N=434.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 8 (cont.)

Study 2 Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Outcome Fairness Perceptions (T2)	3.71	.87	.04	-.01	.10	-.14**	.19**	.10*	-.05
22. Test Grade (T2)	76.36	12.81	.04	-.06	-.16**	-.09	.23**	.04	.05
23. Affective Reactions (T2)	3.27	.75	-.07	-.05	.06	.04	.01	.05	.00
24. Class Intentions (T2)	4.21	.59	.06	.08	.08	.04	.11*	.10*	-.03
25. Continuance Commitment (T2)	3.14	.96	.11*	-.02	-.03	.09	-.13**	-.03	.09
26. Normative Commitment (T2)	2.39	.71	-.04	-.03	.04	.06	-.07	-.01	-.02

Note: T1=Time 1 survey; T2= Time 2 survey. For both Dummy Codes: 0=White, 1=Minority Group. For Gender: 1=Male, 2=Female. Test Grade based on 100-point scale. Reliabilities are presented in the diagonal in parentheses. T1: N=582; T2: N=434.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 8 (cont.)

Study 2 Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations

Variable	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Age (T1)									
2. Gender (T1)									
3. African American Dummy Code (T1)									
4. Other Racial Group Dummy Code (T1)									
5. Direct Experience (T1)									
6. Positive, Indirect Experience (T1)									
7. Negative, Indirect Experience (T1)									
8. Positive, Class Information (T1)	(.91)								
9. Negative, Class Information (T1)	.31**	(.84)							
10. Positive Affectivity (T1)	.01	.10*	(.85)						
11. Negative Affectivity (T1)	-.07	-.04	-.02	(.86)					
12. Power Distance (T1)	-.09*	.00	-.06	.11**	(.56)				
13. Class Intentions (T1)	.07	.07	.30**	-.03	-.09*	(.75)			
14. Continuance Commitment (T1)	-.13**	-.06	-.05	.00	.06	-.06	(.67)		
15. Normative Commitment (T1)	.05	.02	.10*	.06	.18**	.05	.04	(.51)	
16. Procedural Justice Expectations (T1)	.08	.02	.16**	-.04	-.19**	.29**	.02	-.10*	(.92)
17. Procedural Justice Values (T1)	.04	-.04	.10*	.02	-.17**	.24**	.01	-.17**	.65**
18. Voice Expectations\Values (T1)	.04	.07	.19**	-.03	-.11*	.24**	.05	-.10*	.46**
19. Technical Computer Experience (T1)	-.05	.00	-.02	-.07	.05	-.11*	.00	-.02	-.01
20. Procedural Justice Perceptions (T2)	-.20**	.06	.09	-.09	-.11*	.06	-.18**	.00	.30**

Note: T1=Time 1 survey; T2= Time 2 survey. For both Dummy Codes: 0=White, 1=Minority Group. For Gender: 1=Male, 2=Female. Test Grade based on 100-point scale. Reliabilities are presented in the diagonal in parentheses. T1: N=582; T2: N=434.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 8 (cont.)

Study 2 Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations

Variable	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
21. Outcome Fairness Perceptions (T2)	-.07	.00	.08	-.08	-.13**	.02	-.12*	-.03	.10*
22. Test Grade (T2)	-.03	-.04	.06	.03	-.11*	.05	-.09	-.08	.09
23. Affective Reactions (T2)	-.07	.04	.14**	-.04	.04	.15**	-.08	.12*	.06
24. Class Intentions (T2)	-.03	.05	.18**	.06	-.04	.59**	.01	.09	.16**
25. Continuance Commitment (T2)	.12*	-.04	-.11*	.04	-.02	-.02	.52**	-.03	-.01
26. Normative Commitment (T2)	.01	.01	.03	.04	.22**	.04	-.01	.59**	-.06

Note: T1=Time 1 survey; T2= Time 2 survey. For both Dummy Codes: 0=White, 1=Minority Group. For Gender: 1=Male, 2=Female. Test Grade based on 100-point scale. Reliabilities are presented in the diagonal in parentheses. T1: N=582; T2: N=434.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 8 (cont.)

Study 2 Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations

Variable	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
1. Age (T1)									
2. Gender (T1)									
3. African American Dummy Code (T1)									
4. Other Racial Group Dummy Code (T1)									
5. Direct Experience (T1)									
6. Positive, Indirect Experience (T1)									
7. Negative, Indirect Experience (T1)									
8. Positive, Class Information (T1)									
9. Negative, Class Information (T1)									
10. Positive Affectivity (T1)									
11. Negative Affectivity (T1)									
12. Power Distance (T1)									
13. Class Intentions (T1)									
14. Continuance Commitment (T1)									
15. Normative Commitment (T1)									
16. Procedural Justice Expectations (T1)									
17. Procedural Justice Values (T1)	(.90)								
18. Voice Expectations\Values (T1)	.45**	(.77)							
19. Technical Computer Experience (T1)	-.01	.00	(.77)						
20. Procedural Justice Perceptions (T2)	.27**	.25**	.05	(.87)					

Note: T1=Time 1 survey; T2= Time 2 survey. For both Dummy Codes: 0=White, 1=Minority Group. For Gender: 1=Male, 2=Female. Test Grade based on 100-point scale. Reliabilities are presented in the diagonal in parentheses. T1: N=582; T2: N=434.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 8 (cont.)

Study 2 Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations

Variable	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
21. Outcome Fairness Perceptions (T2)	.13**	.10*	.01	.54**	(.88)				
22. Test Grade (T2)	.21**	.06	-.04	.30**	.53**	----			
23. Affective Reactions (T2)	.10*	.08	.02	.37**	.39**	.28**	(.93)		
24. Class Intentions (T2)	.11*	.11*	-.12*	.05	-.01	.05	.27**	(.67)	
25. Continuance Commitment (T2)	-.07	.00	.05	-.28**	-.23**	-.16**	-.33**	.00	(.74)
26. Normative Commitment (T2)	-.06	-.11*	-.05	-.03	.03	.00	.21**	.04	.12*

Note: T1=Time 1 survey; T2= Time 2 survey. For both Dummy Codes: 0=White, 1=Minority Group. For Gender: 1=Male, 2=Female. Test Grade based on 100-point scale. Reliabilities are presented in the diagonal in parentheses. T1: N=582; T2: N=434.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 8 (cont.)

Study 2 Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations

Variable	26
21. Outcome Fairness Perceptions (T2)	
22. Test Grade (T2)	
23. Class Satisfaction (T2)	
24. Class Intentions (T2)	
25. Continuance Commitment (T2)	
26. Normative Commitment (T2)	(.54)

Note: T1=Time 1 survey; T2= Time 2 survey. For both Dummy Codes: 0=White, 1=Minority Group. For Gender: 1=Male, 2=Female. Test Grade based on 100-point scale. Reliabilities are presented in the diagonal in parentheses. T1: N=582; T2: N=434.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

First, I conducted a PCA analysis using the procedural elements expectations and values measures and the process fairness expectations and values measures. Initial results indicated that three factors accounted for 58% of the variance. Results indicated that similar to Study 1, most of the procedural elements expectations and process fairness expectations loaded onto a single factor; thus, these measures were combined into an overall procedural justice expectations measure. One process fairness expectations item (i.e., "Overall, I expect that I will be dissatisfied with the way people are graded in this class.") was dropped from the procedural justice expectations measure due to its low loading compared to the rest of the expectations items. The results also indicated that the value items that referenced the same aspects of justice as the first factor loaded onto a single factor; thus, these measures were combined into an overall procedural justice values measure. One process fairness values item (i.e., "Overall, I value not being dissatisfied with the way people are graded in this class.") was dropped from the procedural justice values measure due to its low loading compared to the rest of the values items. The results also indicated that the three items on the procedural elements expectations and procedural elements values scales that referenced the amount of voice in the grading process (i.e., "I expect [value] that I will be able to express my views and feelings during the grading process," I expect [value] that I will have influence over the scores arrived at by the grading process," and "I expect [value] that I will be able to appeal the scores arrived at by the grading procedures.") comprised a third factor; thus, I created a voice expectations/values measure. The three values and expectations measures all had acceptable reliabilities (>.70).

Next, I conducted a PCA of the past experiences items (i.e., direct and indirect experiences, class information, and instructor information). The PCA indicated a five-factor solution that accounted for 72% of the variance. The four items that referenced direct experiences with fairness in past classes loaded onto one factor, so I created a direct experience measure. Results also indicated that the four items referencing indirect experiences of fairness loaded onto two separate factors. The two items referencing indirect, positive experiences comprised one factor and the two items referencing indirect, negative experiences comprised a second factor; thus, I created separate measures for both the positive and negative aspects of indirect experiences. Finally, results indicated that although participants did not distinguish between information regarding the class and instructor, they did distinguish between positive and negative information. Similar to the indirect experience measures, I created a four-item positive, class information and a four-item negative, class information measure. In examining the positive and negative factors for both class information and indirect experiences, the results supported these factors as being substantive and not method-based. If these factors were due to the presence of negatively worded items, I would have expected an overall negatively worded factor. Instead, the results supported multiple negative factors that cut across content areas. In other words, the indirect, negative experience items loaded onto a separate factor from the negative, class information items. Given this result and the initial removal of participants who were carelessly responding, these results are not suggestive of poorly worded items or the nature of the sample (Schmitt & Stults, 1985). Across all of the experience measures, the only experience measure that did not

have an acceptable reliability (>.70) was the positive, indirect experiences measure (.45). This is not surprising given the measure is comprised of only two items.

A separate PCA was conducted for the power distance scale. Results indicated that two factors accounted for 50% of the variance. I examined the two factors, but could not determine the source of the second factor; thus, I ran a second PCA, which forced a one-factor rotated solution. Five of the six items loaded moderately on the factor (between .40 and .70), but one item ("Students at a university should pay high respect to their instructors") had an extremely low loading (.21), so was dropped from the scale. The five-item power distance scale had a poor reliability (.56), which was surprising given the high alpha (.88) in the original source from which it was adopted and its higher alpha in Study 1 (.69). It may be that changing the context of the items did not make sense to students as much as it did to the employees for whom it was originally created.

A PCA also was conducted for the class intentions and commitment items. PCA results indicated that a three-factor solution accounted for 59% of the variance. The results indicated that each item loaded onto its intended factor, so three three-item measures were created (i.e., continuance commitment, normative commitment, and class intentions). Although the class intentions measure had an acceptable reliability (.75), the two commitment measures had low reliabilities. The continuance commitment measure was only slightly below the accepted level (.67), but the normative commitment measure was significantly below .70 (i.e., .51). The reliabilities for each factor in Allen and Meyer's study were much higher, but their reliabilities were based on the original 24-item commitment scale (i.e., three eight-item facets of commitment).

Next, I ran a PCA for the 20 Positive and Negative Affectivity items. Two factors accounted for 45% of the variance. Each item loaded onto the appropriate factor; thus, a ten-item Positive Affectivity and ten-item Negative Affectivity measure was created. Both measures had high reliabilities (.85 and .86, respectively).

The final PCA for the Survey 1 items was for the six-item technical computer experience measure. One factor explained 47% of the variance and the item loadings were all moderate to high. The technical computer experience measure had an alpha of .77.

The next PCA I conducted was for the items on the second survey. A PCA of the procedural elements perceptions, process fairness perceptions, and outcome fairness perceptions items indicated that a two-factor solution that accounted for 57% of the variance. I found that the procedural elements perceptions and process fairness perceptions measures loaded onto a single factor and the perceived outcome fairness items loaded onto a second factor; thus, I created an overall procedural justice perceptions measure and an outcome fairness perceptions measure. Both the procedural justice perceptions and outcome fairness perceptions measures had high reliabilities (.87 and .88, respectively).

Next, I conducted a PCA of all the outcome measures (i.e., class satisfaction, class commitment, class intentions, and recommendation intentions). The results indicated that a four-factor solution accounted for 59% of the variance. The first factor appeared to represent an affective component of students' reactions to their class. The six class satisfaction items, three recommendation intentions items, and the three affective commitment items all loaded onto this first factor. Given this result, I combined these

items into an affective reactions measure. The results also indicated the four class intentions items, the three continuance commitment items, and the three normative commitment items loaded onto separate factors; thus, I created separate class intentions, continuance commitment, and normative commitment measures. The items across the four factors all had moderate to high loadings on their respective factors and low cross-loadings on the other factors. The coefficient alphas for the outcome measures were: affective reactions (.93), class intentions (.67), continuance commitment (.74), and normative commitment (.54).

In summary, most measures on Surveys 1 and 2 were above or near the generally accepted level for reliability (.70). The positive, indirect experience, power distance, and normative commitment (both Survey 1 and 2 measures) measures had poor reliabilities compared to the rest of the measures and the reliability rule of thumb. Given the reliabilities for these three measures, all subsequent results highlighting these measures should be considered with these reliabilities in mind.

Analysis Overview

In this section, I will briefly overview the analysis plan for testing Hypotheses 1, 2a, and 2b. In STEP 1 of all analyses, I decided to enter the Time 1 commitment and intentions measures (i.e., class intentions, continuance commitment, and normative commitment). I then entered the demographic and individual difference measures in STEP 2 of all analyses. All variables after STEPS 1 and 2 were entered according to Baron and Kenny's (1986) method of testing mediation or the standard method for testing interactions in regression. The order of variables I used in STEPS 1 and 2 was used so that I could provide a more stringent test of the relationships between the demographic

and individual difference measures and the outcome of interest. The Time 1 commitment and intentions measures were included in the study as they paralleled some of the outcomes measures at Time 2, but were not variables that I had identified as potential correlates of expectations and perceptions.

Hypothesis 1: Mediation

Similar to Study 1, I used the Baron and Kenny (1986) method of testing the relationship between procedural justice expectations and outcomes as mediated by procedural justice perceptions. Table 9 shows that the first condition of mediation was met as procedural justice expectations were significantly related to procedural justice perceptions (β=.24). Table 10 contains the results of Baron and Kenny's second condition necessary for mediation (i.e., a significant relationship between the mediating variable and the dependent variable) for the four outcome variables. The results indicated that procedural justice perceptions were significantly related to affective reactions (β=.22) and continuance commitment on the second survey (β=-.14). Given these results, I regressed these two outcome variables onto procedural justice expectations to test the third step of mediation. Table 11 shows that procedural justice expectations did not significantly relate to either of the two outcomes that survived the second step. The mediation results for procedural justice values (Tables 12 and 13) and voice expectations/values (Tables 14 and 15) were identical to those using the procedural justice expectations measure.

Table 9

Mediated Regression Results – STEP 1: Regressing Procedural Justice Perceptions on Procedural Justice Expectations

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Procedural Justice Perceptions			
1. Class Intentions (Time 1)	-.04	.03**	.03**
Continuance Commitment (Time 1)	-.13**		
Normative Commitment (Time 1)	.02		
2. Gender	-.03	.11**	.14**
Age	.03		
African American Dummy Code	.07†		
Other Racial Group Dummy Code	.01		
Direct Experience	.05		
Positive, Indirect Experience	.02		
Negative, Indirect Experience	.10*		
Positive, Class Information	-.13**		
Negative, Class Information	.03		
Positive Affectivity	.01		
Negative Affectivity	-.03		
Power Distance	.02		
3. Outcome Fairness Perceptions	.47**	.22**	.36**
Test Grade	.01		
4. Procedural Justice Expectations	.24**	.05**	.41**

Note: N= 433. DV = dependent variable. For both Dummy Codes: 0=White, 1=Minority Group. β is the standardized regression coefficient and significance levels are based on two-tailed t-tests. Increments for variables entered at the ΔR^2 significance levels are based on F tests for that step.

† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 10

Mediated Regression Results – STEP 2: Regressing Class Outcomes on Procedural Justice Perceptions

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Affective Reactions			
1. Class Intentions (Time 1)	.12**	.04**	.04**
Continuance Commitment (Time 1)	.00		
Normative Commitment (Time 1)	.11*		
2. Gender	-.03	.03	.07**
Age	-.12**		
African American Dummy Code	.04		
Other Racial Group Dummy Code	.11**		
Direct Experience	-.13**		
Positive, Indirect Experience	.03		
Negative, Indirect Experience	-.04		
Positive, Class Information	-.02		
Negative, Class Information	.02		
Positive Affectivity	.07†		
Negative Affectivity	-.03		
Power Distance	.10*		
3. Outcome Fairness Perceptions	.24**	.18**	.25**
Test Grade	.15**		
4. Procedural Justice Perceptions	.22**	.03**	.28**

Note: N= 433. DV = dependent variable. For both Dummy Codes: 0=White, 1=Minority Group. β is the standardized regression coefficient and significance levels are based on two-tailed t-tests. Increments for variables entered at the ΔR^2 significance levels are based on F tests for that step.

† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 10

Mediated Regression Results – STEP 2: Regressing Class Outcomes on Procedural Justice Perceptions (cont.)

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Class Intentions			
1. Class Intentions (Time 1)	.57**	.36**	.36**
Continuance Commitment (Time 1)	.04		
Normative Commitment (Time 1)	.04		
2. Gender	.03	.02	.38**
Age	.02		
African American Dummy Code	.06		
Other Racial Group Dummy Code	.05		
Direct Experience	.05		
Positive, Indirect Experience	.07†		
Negative, Indirect Experience	-.03		
Positive Class Information	.02		
Negative Class Information	.01		
Positive Affectivity	.01		
Negative Affectivity	.07†		
Power Distance	.01		
3. Outcome Fairness Perceptions	-.09	.00	.38**
Test Grade	.07		
4. Procedural Justice Perceptions	.04	.00	.38**

Note: N= 433. DV = dependent variable. For both Dummy Codes: 0=White, 1=Minority Group. β is the standardized regression coefficient and significance levels are based on two-tailed t-tests. Increments for variables entered at the ΔR^2 significance levels are based on F tests for that step.

† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 10

Mediated Regression Results – STEP 2: Regressing Class Outcomes on Procedural Justice Perceptions (cont.)

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Continuance Commitment			
1. Class Intentions (Time 1)	.04	.28**	.28**
Continuance Commitment (Time 1)	.48**		
Normative Commitment (Time 1)	-.04		
2. Gender	-.02	.03	.31**
Age	.07†		
African American Dummy Code	-.04		
Other Racial Group Dummy Code	.00		
Direct Experience	-.05		
Positive, Indirect Experience	.04		
Negative, Indirect Experience	.01		
Positive, Class Information	.02		
Negative, Class Information	.00		
Positive Affectivity	-.08†		
Negative Affectivity	.03		
Power Distance	-.09*		
3. Outcome Fairness Perceptions	-.07	.02**	.33**
Test Grade	-.05		
4. Procedural Justice Perceptions	-.14**	.01**	.34**

Note: N= 433. DV = dependent variable. For both Dummy Codes: 0=White, 1=Minority Group. β is the standardized regression coefficient and significance levels are based on two-tailed t-tests. Increments for variables entered at the ΔR^2 significance levels are based on F tests for that step.

† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 10

Mediated Regression Results – STEP 2: Regressing Class Outcomes on Procedural Justice Perceptions (cont.)

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Normative Commitment			
1. Class Intentions (Time 1)	.03	.35**	.35**
Continuance Commitment (Time 1)	-.04		
Normative Commitment (Time 1)	.59**		
2. Gender	.00	.04*	.39**
Age	-.08*		
African American Dummy Code	.02		
Other Racial Group Dummy Code	.04		
Direct Experience	-.07		
Positive, Indirect Experience	.01		
Negative, Indirect Experience	-.01		
Positive, Class Information	.03		
Negative, Class Information	.01		
Positive Affectivity	-.03		
Negative Affectivity	-.01		
Power Distance	.15**		
3. Outcome Fairness Perceptions	.09	.01*	.40**
Test Grade	.06		
4. Procedural Justice Perceptions	-.06	.00	.40**

Note: N= 433. DV = dependent variable. β is the standardized regression coefficient and significance levels are based on two-tailed t-tests. Increments for variables entered at the ΔR^2 significance levels are based on F tests for that step.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 11

Mediated Regression Results – STEP 3: Regressing Affective Reactions and Continuance Commitment On Procedural Justice Expectations

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Affective Reactions			
1. Class Intentions (Time 1)	.12*	.04**	.04**
Continuance Commitment (Time 1)	-.03		
Normative Commitment (Time 1)	.11*		
2. Gender	-.04	.03	.07**
Age	-.11*		
African American Dummy Code	.05		
Other Racial Group Dummy Code	.12**		
Direct Experience	-.11*		
Positive, Indirect Experience	.03		
Negative, Indirect Experience	-.01		
Positive, Class Information	-.05		
Negative, Class Information	.03		
Positive Affectivity	.08†		
Negative Affectivity	-.03		
Power Distance	.10*		
3. Outcome Fairness Perceptions	.34**	.18**	.25**
Test Grade	.15**		
4. Procedural Justice Expectations	.01	.00	.25**

Note: N= 433. DV = dependent variable. β is the standardized regression coefficient and significance levels are based on two-tailed t-tests. Increments for variables entered at the ΔR^2 significance levels are based on F tests for that step.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 11

Mediated Regression Results – STEP 3: Regressing Affective Reactions and Continuance Commitment On Procedural Justice Expectations (cont.)

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Continuance Commitment			
1. Class Intentions (Time 1)	.08	.28**	.28**
Continuance Commitment (Time 1)	.49**		
Normative Commitment (Time 1)	-.04		
2. Gender	-.02	.03	.31**
Age	.07		
African American Dummy Code	-.05		
Other Racial Group Dummy Code	.00		
Direct Experience	-.06		
Positive, Indirect Experience	.04		
Negative, Indirect Experience	.00		
Positive, Class Information	.04		
Negative, Class Information	-.01		
Positive Affectivity	-.08†		
Negative Affectivity	.04		
Power Distance	-.09*		
3. Outcome Fairness Perceptions	-.14**	.02**	.33**
Test Grade	-.05		
4. Procedural Justice Expectations	-.02	.00	.33**

Note: N= 433. DV = dependent variable. β is the standardized regression coefficient and significance levels are based on two-tailed t-tests. Increments for variables entered at the ΔR^2 significance levels are based on F tests for that step.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 12

Mediated Regression Results – STEP 1: Regressing Procedural Justice Perceptions on Procedural Justice Values

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Procedural Justice Perceptions			
1. Class Intentions (Time 1)	-.03	.03**	.03**
Continuance Commitment (Time 1)	-.12**		
Normative Commitment (Time 1)	.03		
2. Gender	-.03	.11**	.14**
Age	.03		
African American Dummy Code	.08†		
Other Racial Group Dummy Code	.02		
Direct Experience	.08†		
Positive, Indirect Experience	.02		
Negative, Indirect Experience	.12**		
Positive, Class Information	-.14**		
Negative, Class Information	.03		
Positive Affectivity	.02		
Negative Affectivity	-.04		
Power Distance	.00		
3. Outcome Fairness Perceptions	.48**	.22**	.36**
Test Grade	-.02		
4. Procedural Justice Values	.19**	.03**	.39**

Note: N= 433. DV = dependent variable. β is the standardized regression coefficient and significance levels are based on two-tailed t-tests. Increments for variables entered at the ΔR^2 significance levels are based on F tests for that step.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 13

Mediated Regression Results – STEP 3: Regressing Affective Reactions and Continuance Commitment On Procedural Justice Values

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Affective Reactions			
1. Class Intentions (Time 1)	.11*	.04**	.04**
Continuance Commitment (Time 1)	-.03		
Normative Commitment (Time 1)	.11*		
2. Gender	-.04	.03	.07**
Age	-.11*		
African American Dummy Code	.05		
Other Racial Group Dummy Code	.12**		
Direct Experience	-.11*		
Positive, Indirect Experience	.03		
Negative, Indirect Experience	-.01		
Positive, Class Information	-.05		
Negative, Class Information	.03		
Positive Affectivity	.08†		
Negative Affectivity	-.03		
Power Distance	.10*		
3. Outcome Fairness Perceptions	.34**	.18**	.25**
Test Grade	.15**		
4. Procedural Justice Values	.05	.00	.25**

Note: N= 433. DV = dependent variable. β is the standardized regression coefficient and significance levels are based on two-tailed t-tests. Increments for variables entered at the ΔR^2 significance levels are based on F tests for that step.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 13

Mediated Regression Results – STEP 3: Regressing Affective Reactions and Continuance Commitment On Procedural Justice Values (cont.)

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Continuance Commitment			
1. Class Intentions (Time 1)	.04	.28**	.28**
Continuance Commitment (Time 1)	.50**		
Normative Commitment (Time 1)	-.05		
2. Gender	-.02	.03	.31**
Age	.07†		
African American Dummy Code	-.05		
Other Racial Group Dummy Code	.00		
Direct Experience	-.06		
Positive, Indirect Experience	.03		
Negative, Indirect Experience	.00		
Positive, Class Information	.03		
Negative, Class Information	-.01		
Positive Affectivity	-.08†		
Negative Affectivity	.04		
Power Distance	-.09*		
3. Outcome Fairness Perceptions	-.14**	.02**	.33**
Test Grade	-.04		
4. Procedural Justice Values	-.04	.00	.33**

Note: N= 433. DV = dependent variable. β is the standardized regression coefficient and significance levels are based on two-tailed t-tests. Increments for variables entered at the ΔR^2 significance levels are based on F tests for that step.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 14
Mediated Regression Results – STEP 1: Regressing Procedural Justice Perceptions on Voice Expectations/Values

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Procedural Justice Perceptions			
1. Class Intentions (Time 1)	-.02	.03**	.03**
Continuance Commitment (Time 1)	-.14**		
Normative Commitment (Time 1)	.03		
2. Gender	-.03	.11**	.14**
Age	.05		
African American Dummy Code	.04		
Other Racial Group Dummy Code	.00		
Direct Experience	.11*		
Positive, Indirect Experience	.02		
Negative, Indirect Experience	.12*		
Positive, Class Information	-.15**		
Negative, Class Information	.01		
Positive Affectivity	.00		
Negative Affectivity	-.04		
Power Distance	.00		
3. Outcome Fairness Perceptions	.47**	.22**	.36**
Test Grade	.00		
4. Voice Expectations\Values	.21**	.04**	.40**

Note: N= 433. DV = dependent variable. β is the standardized regression coefficient and significance levels are based on two-tailed t-tests. Increments for variables entered at the ΔR^2 significance levels are based on F tests for that step.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 15

Mediated Regression Results – STEP 3: Regressing Affective Reactions and Continuance Commitment on Voice Expectations/Values

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Affective Reactions			
1. Class Intentions (Time 1)	.12**	.04**	.04**
Continuance Commitment (Time 1)	-.03		
Normative Commitment (Time 1)	.11*		
2. Gender	-.04	.03	.07**
Age	-.11*		
African American Dummy Code	.05		
Other Racial Group Dummy Code	.12**		
Direct Experience	-.10*		
Positive, Indirect Experience	.03		
Negative, Indirect Experience	-.01		
Positive, Class Information	-.05		
Negative, Class Information	.03		
Positive Affectivity	.08†		
Negative Affectivity	-.03		
Power Distance	.09*		
3. Outcome Fairness Perceptions	.34**	.18**	.25**
Test Grade	.15**		
4. Voice Expectations/Values	.00	.00	.25**

Note: N= 433. DV = dependent variable. β is the standardized regression coefficient and significance levels are based on two-tailed t-tests. Increments for variables entered at the ΔR^2 significance levels are based on F tests for that step.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 15

Mediated Regression Results – STEP 3: Regressing Affective Reactions and Continuance Commitment on Voice Expectations/Values

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Continuance Commitment			
1. Class Intentions (Time 1)	.04	.28**	.28**
Continuance Commitment (Time 1)	.50**		
Normative Commitment (Time 1)	-.04		
2. Gender	-.02	.03	.31**
Age	.06		
African American Dummy Code	-.04		
Other Racial Group Dummy Code	.01		
Direct Experience	-.06		
Positive, Indirect Experience	.03		
Negative, Indirect Experience	.00		
Positive, Class Information	.04		
Negative, Class Information	.00		
Positive Affectivity	-.08†		
Negative Affectivity	.04		
Power Distance	-.09*		
3. Outcome Fairness Perceptions	-.13**	.02**	.33**
Test Grade	-.05		
4. Voice Expectations\Values	-.04	.00	.33**

Note: N= 433. DV = dependent variable. β is the standardized regression coefficient and significance levels are based on two-tailed t-tests. Increments for variables entered at the ΔR^2 significance levels are based on F tests for that step.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Tables 9, 12, and 14 show that, across all three regressions, a number of other variables were significantly related to procedural justice perceptions in addition to procedural justice expectations, procedural justice values, and voice expectations/values. As expected, outcome fairness perceptions had a large, positive relationship to procedural justice perceptions (average β=.47) . Continuance commitment also showed a significant, negative relationship to procedural justice perceptions (average β=-.13). In the first weeks of class, the more students were committed to the class because of the scarcity of other class alternatives, the less fair they perceived the grading process to be after their first test. Indirect, negative experiences were positively related to procedural justice perceptions (average β=.11), which indicates that the more negative things students have heard about other people experiencing unfair grading procedures, the more students thought their current class' grading procedures were fair. This result is in contrast to the significant, negative relationship between positive, class information and procedural justice perceptions (average β=-.14). The more positive things students heard about their current class from others, the more negative were students' procedural justice perceptions. Both of these results were contrary to what I expected and may signify a reaction to unmet expectations. If a student had heard negative things about other classes, but feels he/she has been treated fairly in his/her current class, he/she may rate the class as more fair. Similarly if a student heard positive things about the class, but feels that he/she has been treated unfairly in his/her current class, he/she may perceive less fairness. Both ideas suggest that met expectations may play an important role in forming procedural justice perceptions.

The African-American dummy code (average β=.07) and direct experiences (average β=.10) were marginally related to procedural justice perceptions in two of the three regression equations. African American students were more likely to rate their current class' grading procedures as fair compared to White students. Additionally, the more direct, positive experiences students have had in the past with grading procedures, the more likely they were to rate their current class' grading procedures as fair.

Hypothesis 2a: Moderation

Table 16 contains the results of testing the interaction of procedural justice expectations and procedural justice perceptions on the four outcome variables. The results indicated that the interaction term was non-significant in all four regressions. The moderation results for procedural justice values (Tables 17) and voice expectations/values (Tables 18) were identical to those using the procedural justice expectations measure. Based on these results, Hypothesis 2a was not supported.

The results indicated that the largest predictors of class intentions, continuance commitment, and normative commitment after students' first test were the same measures as those that were predictive during the first two weeks of the class. For all the equations regressing Time 2 class intentions, continuance commitment, and normative commitment on procedural justice expectations, the parallel Time 1 measures accounted for 95%, 82%, and 88% of the total variance explained by all of the variables in the regression. Although each equation had other variables that did account for significant variance in the outcome, the Time 1 measures were clearly the largest drivers of the parallel Time 2

Table 16

Moderated Regression Results: Regressing Class Outcomes on the Interaction of Procedural Justice Expectations and Perceptions

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Affective Reactions			
1. Class Intentions (Time 1)	.13**	.04**	.04**
Continuance Commitment (Time 1)	.01		
Normative Commitment (Time 1)	.11*		
2. Gender	-.03	.03	.07**
Age	-.12**		
African American Dummy Code	.03		
Other Racial Group Dummy Code	.11**		
Direct Experience	-.12*		
Positive, Indirect Experience	.03		
Negative, Indirect Experience	-.04		
Positive, Class Information	-.02		
Negative, Class Information	.02		
Positive Affectivity	.08†		
Negative Affectivity	-.03		
Power Distance	.09*		
3. Outcome Fairness Perceptions	.23**	.18**	.25**
Test Grade	.15**		
4. Procedural Justice Perceptions	.23**	.03**	.28**
Procedural Justice Expectations	-.04		
5. Perceptions X Expectations	.03	.00	.28**

Note: N= 433. DV = dependent variable. β is the standardized regression coefficient and significance levels are based on two-tailed t-tests. Increments for variables entered at the ΔR^2 significance levels are based on F tests for that step.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 16

Moderated Regression Results: Regressing Class Outcomes on the Interaction of Procedural Justice Expectations and Perceptions (cont.)

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Class Intentions			
1. Class Intentions (Time 1)	.57**	.36**	.36**
Continuance Commitment (Time 1)	.04		
Normative Commitment (Time 1)	.04		
2. Gender	.03	.02	.38**
Age	.01		
African American Dummy Code	.06		
Other Racial Group Dummy Code	.05		
Direct Experience	.05		
Positive, Indirect Experience	.07†		
Negative, Indirect Experience	-.04		
Positive, Class Information	.02		
Negative, Class Information	.01		
Positive Affectivity	.01		
Negative Affectivity	.07†		
Power Distance	.01		
3. Outcome Fairness Perceptions	-.09	.00	.38**
Test Grade	.06		
4. Procedural Justice Perceptions	.04	.00	.38**
Procedural Justice Expectations	.00		
5. Perceptions X Expectations	.03	.00	.38**

Note: N= 433. DV = dependent variable. β is the standardized regression coefficient and significance levels are based on two-tailed t-tests. Increments for variables entered at the ΔR^2 significance levels are based on F tests for that step.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 16

Moderated Regression Results: Regressing Class Outcomes on the Interaction of Procedural Justice Expectations and Perceptions (cont.)

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Continuance Commitment			
1. Class Intentions (Time 1)	.03	.28**	.28**
Continuance Commitment (Time 1)	.48**		
Normative Commitment (Time 1)	-.04		
2. Gender	-.02	.03	.31**
Age	.07†		
African American Dummy Code	-.04		
Other Racial Group Dummy Code	.00		
Direct Experience	-.05		
Positive, Indirect Experience	.04		
Negative, Indirect Experience	.01		
Positive, Class Information	.02		
Negative, Class Information	.00		
Positive Affectivity	-.08†		
Negative Affectivity	.03		
Power Distance	-.09*		
3. Outcome Fairness Perceptions	-.07	.02**	.33**
Test Grade	-.05		
4. Procedural Justice Perceptions	-.14**	.01*	.34**
Procedural Justice Expectations	.01		
5. Perceptions X Expectations	.04	.00	.34**

Note: N= 433. DV = dependent variable. β is the standardized regression coefficient and significance levels are based on two-tailed t-tests. Increments for variables entered at the ΔR^2 significance levels are based on F tests for that step.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 16

Moderated Regression Results: Regressing Class Outcomes on the Interaction of Procedural Justice Expectations and Perceptions (cont.)

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Normative Commitment			
1. Class Intentions (Time 1)	.02	.35**	.35**
Continuance Commitment (Time 1)	-.05		
Normative Commitment (Time 1)	.59**		
2. Gender	.00	.04*	.39**
Age	-.09*		
African American Dummy Code	.02		
Other Racial Group Dummy Code	.04		
Direct Experience	-.08†		
Positive, Indirect Experience	.01		
Negative, Indirect Experience	-.02		
Positive, Class Information	.04		
Negative, Class Information	.01		
Positive Affectivity	-.03		
Negative Affectivity	-.01		
Power Distance	.15**		
3. Outcome Fairness Perceptions	.09	.01†	.40**
Test Grade	.06		
4. Procedural Justice Perceptions	-.08	.00	.40**
Procedural Justice Expectations	.04		
5. Perceptions X Expectations	.04	.00	.40**

Note: N= 433. DV = dependent variable. β is the standardized regression coefficient and significance levels are based on two-tailed t-tests. Increments for variables entered at the ΔR^2 significance levels are based on F tests for that step.

† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 17

Moderated Regression Results: Regressing Class Outcomes on the Interaction of Procedural Justice Values and Perceptions

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Affective Reactions			
1. Class Intentions (Time 1)	.12**	.04**	.04**
Continuance Commitment (Time 1)	.00		
Normative Commitment (Time 1)	.10*		
2. Gender	-.03	.03	.07**
Age	-.12**		
African American Dummy Code	.04		
Other Racial Group Dummy Code	.12**		
Direct Experience	-.13*		
Positive, Indirect Experience	.03		
Negative, Indirect Experience	-.04		
Positive, Class Information	-.02		
Negative, Class Information	.02		
Positive Affectivity	.08†		
Negative Affectivity	-.03		
Power Distance	.10*		
3. Outcome Fairness Perceptions	.24**	.18**	.25**
Test Grade	.15**		
4. Procedural Justice Perceptions	.22**	.03**	.28**
Procedural Justice Values	.01		
5. Perceptions X Values	-.03	.00	.28**

Note: N= 433. DV = dependent variable. β is the standardized regression coefficient and significance levels are based on two-tailed t-tests. Increments for variables entered at the ΔR^2 significance levels are based on F tests for that step.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 17

Moderated Regression Results: Regressing Class Outcomes on the Interaction of Procedural Justice Values and Perceptions (cont.)

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Class Intentions			
1. Class Intentions (Time 1)	.58**	.36**	.36**
Continuance Commitment (Time 1)	.04		
Normative Commitment (Time 1)	.04		
2. Gender	.03	.02	.38**
Age	.02		
African American Dummy Code	.06		
Other Racial Group Dummy Code	.04		
Direct Experience	.05		
Positive, Indirect Experience	.07†		
Negative, Indirect Experience	-.03		
Positive, Class Information	.02		
Negative, Class Information	.00		
Positive Affectivity	.01		
Negative Affectivity	.07†		
Power Distance	.01		
3. Outcome Fairness Perceptions	-.09†	.00	.38**
Test Grade	.07		
4. Procedural Justice Perceptions	.05	.00	.38**
Procedural Justice Values	-.03		
5. Perceptions X Values	.03	.00	.38**

Note: N= 433. DV = dependent variable. β is the standardized regression coefficient and significance levels are based on two-tailed t-tests. Increments for variables entered at the ΔR^2 significance levels are based on F tests for that step.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 17

Moderated Regression Results: Regressing Class Outcomes on the Interaction of Procedural Justice Values and Perceptions (cont.)

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Continuance Commitment			
1. Class Intentions (Time 1)	.04	.28**	.28**
Continuance Commitment (Time 1)	.48**		
Normative Commitment (Time 1)	-.04		
2. Gender	-.02	.03	.31**
Age	.07†		
African American Dummy Code	-.04		
Other Racial Group Dummy Code	.00		
Direct Experience	-.05		
Positive, Indirect Experience	.04		
Negative, Indirect Experience	.01		
Positive, Class Information	.02		
Negative, Class Information	.00		
Positive Affectivity	-.08†		
Negative Affectivity	.04		
Power Distance	-.09*		
3. Outcome Fairness Perceptions	-.08	.02**	.33**
Test Grade	-.04		
4. Procedural Justice Perceptions	-.13**	.01*	.34**
Procedural Justice Values	-.02		
5. Perceptions X Values	.04	.00	.34**

Note: N= 433. DV = dependent variable. β is the standardized regression coefficient and significance levels are based on two-tailed t-tests. Increments for variables entered at the ΔR^2 significance levels are based on F tests for that step.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 17

Moderated Regression Results: Regressing Class Outcomes on the Interaction of Procedural Justice Values and Perceptions (cont.)

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Normative Commitment			
1. Class Intentions (Time 1)	.02	.35**	.35**
Continuance Commitment (Time 1)	-.05		
Normative Commitment (Time 1)	.59**		
2. Gender	.00	.04*	.39**
Age	-.08*		
African American Dummy Code	.02		
Other Racial Group Dummy Code	.05		
Direct Experience	-.07		
Positive, Indirect Experience	.02		
Negative, Indirect Experience	-.02		
Positive, Class Information	.03		
Negative, Class Information	.01		
Positive Affectivity	-.03		
Negative Affectivity	-.02		
Power Distance	.16**		
3. Outcome Fairness Perceptions	.09†	.01†	.40**
Test Grade	.05		
4. Procedural Justice Perceptions	-.08	.00	.40**
Procedural Justice Values	.06		
5. Perceptions X Values	-.01	.00	.40**

Note: N= 433. DV = dependent variable. β is the standardized regression coefficient and significance levels are based on two-tailed t-tests. Increments for variables entered at the ΔR^2 significance levels are based on F tests for that step.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 18

Moderated Regression Results: Regressing Class Outcomes on the Interaction of Voice Expectations/Values and Procedural Justice Perceptions

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Affective Reactions			
1. Class Intentions (Time 1)	.13**	.04**	.04**
Continuance Commitment (Time 1)	.01		
Normative Commitment (Time 1)	.10*		
2. Gender	-.03	.03	.07**
Age	-.12**		
African American Dummy Code	.04		
Other Racial Group Dummy Code	.12**		
Direct Experience	-.13*		
Positive, Indirect Experience	.03		
Negative, Indirect Experience	-.03		
Positive, Class Information	-.02		
Negative, Class Information	.02		
Positive Affectivity	.08†		
Negative Affectivity	-.02		
Power Distance	.09*		
3. Outcome Fairness Perceptions	.24**	.18**	.25**
Test Grade	.15**		
4. Procedural Justice Perceptions	.23**	.03**	.28**
Voice Expectations\Values	-.04		
5. Perceptions X Voice	-.03	.00	.28**

Note: N= 433. DV = dependent variable. β is the standardized regression coefficient and significance levels are based on two-tailed t-tests. Increments for variables entered at the ΔR^2 significance levels are based on F tests for that step.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 18

Moderated Regression Results: Regressing Class Outcomes on the Interaction of Voice Expectations/Values and Procedural Justice Perceptions (cont.)

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Class Intentions			
1. Class Intentions (Time 1)	.58**	.36**	.36**
Continuance Commitment (Time 1)	.04		
Normative Commitment (Time 1)	.03		
2. Gender	.03	.02	.38**
Age	.01		
African American Dummy Code	.07		
Other Racial Group Dummy Code	.05		
Direct Experience	.05		
Positive, Indirect Experience	.07†		
Negative, Indirect Experience	-.03		
Positive, Class Information	.02		
Negative, Class Information	.01		
Positive Affectivity	.01		
Negative Affectivity	.07†		
Power Distance	.01		
3. Outcome Fairness Perceptions	-.09	.00	.38**
Test Grade	.07		
4. Procedural Justice Perceptions	.05	.00	.38**
Voice Expectations\Values	-.03		
5. Perceptions X Voice	.01	.00	.38**

Note: N= 433. DV = dependent variable. β is the standardized regression coefficient and significance levels are based on two-tailed t-tests. Increments for variables entered at the ΔR^2 significance levels are based on F tests for that step.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 18

Moderated Regression Results: Regressing Class Outcomes on the Interaction of Voice Expectations/Values and Procedural Justice Perceptions (cont.)

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Continuance Commitment			
1. Class Intentions (Time 1)	.03	.28**	.28**
Continuance Commitment (Time 1)	.48**		
Normative Commitment (Time 1)	-.04		
2. Gender	-.02	.03	.31**
Age	.08†		
African American Dummy Code	-.04		
Other Racial Group Dummy Code	.01		
Direct Experience	-.05		
Positive, Indirect Experience	.04		
Negative, Indirect Experience	.01		
Positive, Class Information	.02		
Negative, Class Information	.00		
Positive Affectivity	-.08†		
Negative Affectivity	.03		
Power Distance	-.09*		
3. Outcome Fairness Perceptions	-.07	.02**	.33**
Test Grade	-.05		
4. Procedural Justice Perceptions	-.13*	.01*	.34**
Voice Expectations\Values	-.02		
5. Perceptions X Voice	.05	.00	.34**

Note: N= 433. DV = dependent variable. β is the standardized regression coefficient and significance levels are based on two-tailed t-tests. Increments for variables entered at the ΔR^2 significance levels are based on F tests for that step.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 18

Moderated Regression Results: Regressing Class Outcomes on the Interaction of Voice Expectations/Values and Procedural Justice Perceptions (cont.)

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Normative Commitment			
1. Class Intentions (Time 1)	.03	.35**	.35**
Continuance Commitment (Time 1)	-.04		
Normative Commitment (Time 1)	.58**		
2. Gender	.00	.04*	.39**
Age	-.09*		
African American Dummy Code	.02		
Other Racial Group Dummy Code	.05		
Direct Experience	-.07		
Positive, Indirect Experience	.01		
Negative, Indirect Experience	-.01		
Positive, Class Information	.04		
Negative, Class Information	.01		
Positive Affectivity	-.02		
Negative Affectivity	-.01		
Power Distance	.15**		
3. Outcome Fairness Perceptions	.08	.01†	.40**
Test Grade	.06		
4. Procedural Justice Perceptions	-.05	.00	.40**
Voice Expectations\Values	-.05		
5. Perceptions X Voice	.02	.00	.40**

Note: N= 433. DV = dependent variable. β is the standardized regression coefficient and significance levels are based on two-tailed t-tests. Increments for variables entered at the ΔR^2 significance levels are based on F tests for that step.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

measures.

For affective reactions, the results indicated that the most variance (64%) was accounted for by outcome fairness perceptions and the test grade. Higher outcome fairness perceptions and receiving a higher test grade were related to higher affective reactions regarding the class. Independent of the outcome, students' perceptions of the class' grading procedures was also positively related to their affective reactions (β=.23). Finally, class intentions and normative commitment were significantly and positively related to class satisfaction (β=.13 and .11, respectively).

Hypothesis 2b: Moderation

In order to test Hypothesis 2b (i.e., Procedural elements expectations will moderate the relationship between procedural elements perceptions and process fairness perceptions), I had to re-organize some of the measures as I did in Study 1. As I noted earlier, the procedural elements expectations and process fairness expectations measures loaded onto two factors (i.e., procedural justice expectations and voice expectations/values). In addition, the procedural elements perceptions and process fairness perceptions measures loaded onto a single factor (i.e., procedural justice perceptions). If Hypothesis 2b is correct, I expect the relationship between the procedural elements perceptions and process fairness perceptions measures to be stronger for participants with higher procedural elements expectations. To test Hypothesis 2b, I created a three-item voice and a five-item non-voice procedural elements expectations measure. In addition, I created a three-item voice and a five-item non-voice procedural elements perceptions measure to parallel the same elements measured in the two expectations measures. Thus, I created two elements expectations measures, two

elements perceptions measures, and the original four-item process fairness perceptions measure for the current analysis. Thus, I regressed process fairness perceptions onto the main effects of the five-item non-voice procedural elements expectations measure, the five-item non-voice procedural elements perceptions measure, and the interaction of the two measures. In addition, I regressed process fairness perceptions onto the main effects of the three-item voice procedural elements expectations measure, the three-item voice procedural elements perceptions measure, and the interaction of the two measures.

Results indicated that the interaction of the non-voice elements expectations and perceptions measure was significant albeit a small effect (ΔR^2=.01; $\Delta F(1,413)$=6.68, $p <$ .05). To clarify the nature of the interaction, I created high and low procedural elements expectation groups using a median split. Similar to Study 1, I computed partial correlations for each group where I partialled out all of the variables in Steps 1-3 of the regression equation in Table 19. The results indicated that the correlation between the procedural justice elements and process fairness perceptions measure for participants in the high procedural elements expectations group (r = .76) was higher than the same correlation for participants in the low procedural elements expectations group (r = .54). This interaction is consistent with that predicted in Hypothesis 2b.

Predictors of Procedural Justice Expectations and Values

In order to provide a stringent test of the relationship between the set of individual difference variables and procedural expectations proposed in Hypothesis 3a (past, direct experiences), Hypothesis 3b (past, indirect experiences), Hypothesis 5 (Negative

Table 19

Moderated Regression Results: Regressing Process Fairness Perceptions on Procedural Elements and Perceptions

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Process Fairness Perceptions			
1. Class Intentions (Time 1)	-.05	.04**	.04**
Continuance Commitment (Time 1)	-.07*		
Normative Commitment (Time 1)	-.01		
2. Gender	.00	.11**	.15**
Age	.02		
African American Dummy Code	.05†		
Other Racial Group Dummy Code	.01		
Direct Experience	-.03		
Positive, Indirect Experience	-.03		
Negative, Indirect Experience	.02		
Positive, Class Information	-.09**		
Negative, Class Information	-.02		
Positive Affectivity	.02		
Negative Affectivity	.03		
Power Distance	.01		
3. Outcome Fairness Perceptions	.36**	.29**	.44**
Test Grade	.01		
4. Procedural Elements Expectations	.05	.21**	.65**
Procedural Elements Perceptions	.53**		
5. Elements Expectations X Perceptions	.08*	.01*	.66**
DV: Process Fairness Perceptions			
1. Class Intentions (Time 1)	-.01	.04**	.04**
Continuance Commitment (Time 1)	-.12**		
Normative Commitment (Time 1)	.02		
2. Gender	-.03	.11**	.15**
Age	.01		
African American Dummy Code	.04		
Other Racial Group Dummy Code	.00		
Direct Experience	.10*		
Positive, Indirect Experience	-.04		
Negative, Indirect Experience	.10		

Note: N= 433. DV = dependent variable. β is the standardized regression coefficient and significance levels are based on two-tailed t-tests. Increments for variables entered at the ΔR^2 significance levels are based on F tests for that step.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 19

Moderated Regression Results: Regressing Process Fairness Perceptions on Procedural Elements and Perceptions (cont.)

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Process Fairness Perceptions			
Positive, Class Information	-.15**		
Negative, Class Information	-.05		
Positive Affectivity	.01		
Negative Affectivity	.05		
Power Distance	-.01		
3. Outcome Fairness Perceptions	.48**	.29**	.44**
Test Grade	.02		
4. Voice Expectations	.01	.07**	.51**
Voice Perceptions	.28**		
5. Voice Expectations X Perceptions	.05	.00	.51**

Note: N= 433. DV = dependent variable. β is the standardized regression coefficient and significance levels are based on two-tailed t-tests. Increments for variables entered at the ΔR^2 significance levels are based on F tests for that step.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Affectivity), and Hypothesis 6 (Positive Affectivity) and Hypothesis 7 (Power Distance), I entered all of the individual difference measures into a single regression equation. In order to explore the potential influence of the sample demographics on procedural justice expectations, procedural justice values, and voice expectations/values, I entered all available demographics into STEP 1 of the regression equation and then entered all of the individual difference measures in STEP 2.

Procedural Justice Expectations

The results in Table 20 indicate that the demographic variables did not significantly influence procedural justice expectations. Results also supported the relationship between procedural justice expectations and a number of individual difference measures. Direct experiences were positively related to procedural justice expectations (β=.21), which indicates that the more fair the grading procedures have been in people's previous classes, the more they expect fair grading procedures in their current class. Thus, Hypothesis 3a was supported.

Weak support was found for the relationship between indirect experiences and procedural justice expectations. Although positive, indirect experiences did not influence procedural justice expectations (β=-.05), negative, indirect experiences did significantly relate to procedural justice expectations (β=.18). Counter to my prediction, the more instances of unfair grading procedures that people heard from others, the more people expect to have fair grading procedures in their current class. Results also indicated that neither positive nor negative information regarding the class and instructor influenced

Table 20

Hierarchical Regression Results: Regressing Procedural Justice Expectations, Values, and Voice Expectations/Values on Demographics and Individual Differences

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Procedural Justice Expectations			
1. Gender	.04	.00	.00
Age	.00		
African American Dummy Code	.06		
Other Racial Group Dummy Code	.07		
2. Direct Experience	.21**	.12**	.12**
Positive, Indirect Experience	-.05		
Negative, Indirect Experience	.18**		
Positive, Class Information	.06		
Negative, Class Information	.02		
Positive Affectivity	.14**		
Negative Affectivity	.00		
Power Distance	-.16**		
DV: Procedural Justice Values			
1. Gender	-.03	.02*	.02*
Age	.04		
African American Dummy Code	-.08†		
Other Racial Group Dummy Code	-.07†		
2. Direct Experience	.25**	.09**	.11**
Positive, Indirect Experience	-.09*		
Negative, Indirect Experience	.15**		
Positive, Class Information	.04		
Negative, Class Information	-.02		
Positive Affectivity	.09*		
Negative Affectivity	.05		
Power Distance	-.14**		

Note: N=581. DV = dependent variable. For both Dummy Codes: 0=White, 1=Minority Group. Significance based on two-tailed t-tests. All coefficients are from the final step of the model with all variables entered. All variables measured at Time 1.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 20

Hierarchical Regression Results: Regressing Procedural Justice Expectations, Values, and Voice Expectations/Values on Demographics and Individual Differences (cont.)

Predictor/Step	β	ΔR^2	R^2
DV: Voice Expectations/Values			
1. Gender	-.03	.02†	.02†
Age	-.05		
African American Dummy Code	.14**		
Other Racial Group Dummy Code	-.02		
2. Direct Experience	.05	.09**	.07**
Positive, Indirect Experience	-.07		
Negative, Indirect Experience	.16**		
Positive, Class Information	.03		
Negative, Class Information	.07		
Positive Affectivity	.18**		
Negative Affectivity	-.01		
Power Distance	-.11**		

Note: N=581. DV = dependent variable. For both Dummy Codes: 0=White, 1=Minority Group. Significance based on two-tailed t-tests. All coefficients are from the final step of the model with all variables entered. All variables measured at Time 1.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

procedural justice expectations (β=.06 and .02, respectively). Given these results, weak support was found for the relationship of indirect experience (Hypothesis 3b) and procedural justice expectations (i.e., for the negative measure), but not in the hypothesized direction.

Support was found for the relationship between procedural justice expectations and positive affectivity (β=.14), but not for negative affectivity (β=.00). The more people generally approach situations in a positive manner, the more they expect to have fair grading procedures in their current class. Thus, Hypothesis 6, but not Hypothesis 5, was supported.

Finally, results indicated support for the relationship between power distance and procedural justice expectations (β=-.16). As predicted, people higher in power distance beliefs expect to be treated less fair in the current class. Thus, Hypothesis 7 was supported.

Procedural Justice Values

The same regression analysis that was run for procedural justice expectations was also run for procedural justice values (Table 20). Results indicated that the set of demographic variables significantly influenced procedural justice values. Although significant as a set of variables at STEP 1, there were only marginal (i.e., $p<.10$) effects at STEP 2 for two of the demographic variables. The negative beta weights for the Black-White dummy code (β=-.08) and Other-White dummy code (β=-.07) indicate that the African Americans and other non-White races value procedural justice less than Whites.

The results for the regression of procedural justice values on the individual difference measures were largely similar to those for procedural justice expectations.

Direct experiences were positively related to procedural justice values (β=.25), which indicates that the more fair the grading procedures have been in people's previous classes, the more people value fair grading procedures in their current class.

Unlike the results for procedural justice expectations, both positive and negative, indirect experiences were significantly related to procedural justice values (β=-.09 and .15, respectively). The results for both variables were contrary to my prediction. The more instances of fair grading procedures that people heard from others, the less people valued having fair grading procedures in their current class. Additionally, the more instances of unfair grading procedures that people heard from others, the more people valued having fair grading procedures in their current class. Although post-hoc, one possible explanation for both findings may be that people tend to de-value or value aspects of fairness that are generally present or absent, respectively, in other situations. If other people have generally experienced fair grading procedures, a person may not believe those aspects to be as important as if they have had negative experiences.

Similar to procedural justice expectations, results indicated that neither positive nor negative information regarding the class and instructor influenced procedural justice values (β=.04 and -.02, respectively).

Similar to the results for procedural justice expectations, support was found for the relationship between procedural justice values and positive affectivity (β=.09), but not for negative affectivity (β=.05). The more people generally approach situations in a positive manner, the more they value having fair grading procedures in their current class.

Finally, results indicated support for the relationship between power distance and procedural justice values (β=-.14). People higher in power distance beliefs place less value on being treated fairly in their current class.

Voice Expectations/Values

The results for the voice expectations/values (Table 20) indicated that the set of demographic variables were marginally related to voice expectations/values (p=.05). At STEP 2, the positive beta weight for the Black-White dummy code (β=.14) indicates that the African Americans expect/value having voice in the grading process more than Whites.

The results for the regression of voice expectations/values indicated that unlike procedural justice expectations and values, direct experiences were not related to voice expectations/values (β=.05). Although positive, indirect experiences did not influence voice expectations/values (β=-.07), negative, indirect experiences did significantly relate to voice expectations/values (β=.16). Counter to my prediction, the more negative things students heard about the class and instructor, the more people expected/valued having a chance to provide some voice in the grading procedures. Similar to the results for procedural justice expectations and values measures, results indicated that neither positive nor negative information regarding the class and instructor influenced voice expectations/values (β=.03 and -.07, respectively).

Results again indicated that positive affectivity was significantly related to

expectation/values (β=.18), but not negative affectivity (β=-.01). The more people generally approach situations in a positive manner, the more they expect/value having voice in the grading procedures.

Finally, results indicated support for the relationship between power distance and voice expectations/values (β=-.11). The higher people are in power distance, the less they expect/value having voice in the grading procedures.

Summary of Procedural Justice Expectations and Values Predictors

Across the three expectations and values measures (i.e., procedural justice expectations, procedural justice values, and voice expectations/values), a number of individual differences had significant relationships to what students expected and valued regarding the grading procedures in their class. Although not hypothesized, African American students placed less value on procedural justice than White students (marginally significant) and had higher expectations/placed more value on having voice in the grading process.

Supporting Hypothesis 3a, direct experiences were positively and significantly related to both procedural justice expectations and values. The more positive experiences with grading procedures that a student has had in the past, the more he/she expected and valued fair grading procedures in his/her current class.

Partial support was found for the relationship between indirect experiences and procedural justice expectations (Hypothesis 3b). Positive, indirect experiences were only related to procedural justice values. Negative, indirect experiences were positively and significantly related to all three measures such that the more negative things a student heard about grading procedures from others, the more the student expected and valued

fair grading procedures in his/her current class and the more he/she expected/valued having voice in the grading process.

Positive affectivity was significantly related to all three measures. The more a student tends to view situations in a positive manner, the more the student expected and valued fair grading procedures in his/her current class and the more he/she expected/valued having voice in the grading process. Finally, power distance was negatively related to all three measures. The more accepting students were of power differentials, the less they expected and valued fair grading procedures in their class and the less they expected/valued having voice in the grading process.

Direct vs. Indirect Experiences

Hypothesis 4 predicted that direct experiences would have a stronger relationship with procedural justice expectations than indirect experiences. Using Cohen and Cohen's (1983, p. 57) formula for dependent correlations, I calculated the difference between the correlations of direct and indirect (positive and negative) experiences and procedural justice expectations. The results indicated that direct experiences were more highly correlated to procedural justice expectations ($r=.17$) than positive, indirect experiences ($r=.00$) ($t(584)=3.28$, $p<.05$), but not negative, indirect experiences ($r=.10$) ($t(584)=1.12$, $p>.05$). These results provide partial support for Hypothesis 4.

I applied the same formula for the difference between direct and indirect (positive and negative) experiences and the procedural justice values. The results indicated that direct experiences were more highly correlated to procedural justice values ($r=.21$) than both positive, indirect ($r=-.02$) ($t(584)=4.74$, $p<.05$) and negative, indirect experiences ($r=.07$) ($t(584)=2.21$, $p<.05$).

Finally, I conducted the same analyses on the difference between direct and indirect (positive and negative) experiences and voice expectations/values. The results indicated that direct experiences were not more highly correlated to voice expectations/values (r=-.01) than positive, indirect experiences (r=-.04) ($t(584)=.70$, $p>.05$). Counter to what I expected, negative, indirect experiences (r=.13) were more highly related to voice expectations/values than were direct experiences (r=-.01) ($t(584)=-2.00$, $p<.05$).

Additional Analysis

Prediction of Study Completion

Logistic regression was conducted to predict participants' completion of the second survey. Recall that of the 626 participants who completed the first survey, 116 failed to complete the second survey. The results in Table 21 indicate that direct experience was positively related to study completion (B=.78); thus, the more positive grading experiences a student had directly experienced in the past, the more likely the student was to complete the second survey. Negative, indirect experience was related to study completion (B=.41) such that the more negative grading experiences a student had heard from others, the more likely the student was to complete the second survey.

Two other variables were marginally related to study completion (i.e., negative, class information and procedural justice expectations). Negative, class information was negatively related to study completion (B=-.47); thus, the fewer negative things a student

Table 21

Logistic Regression of Study Completion on Individual Differences, Test Grade, Procedural Justice Expectations, Values, and Voice Expectations\Values

	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	Wald Chi-Square	Odds Ratio
Class Intentions (Time 1)	.18	.30	.35	1.20
Continuance Commitment (Time 1)	-.23	.17	1.73	.80
Normative Commitment (Time 1)	.35	.25	2.00	1.42
Test Grade	.02	.01	2.40	1.02
Gender	.48	.33	2.14	1.61
Age	-.01	.01	.68	.99
African American Dummy Code	-.50	.47	1.14	.61
Other Racial Group Dummy Code	-.18	.57	.10	.84
Direct Experience	.78	.29	7.32**	2.18
Positive, Indirect Experience	.10	.28	.12	1.10
Negative, Indirect Experience	.41	.20	4.04*	1.51
Positive, Class Information	-.15	.24	.38	.86
Negative, Class Information	-.47	.28	2.81†	.62
Positive Affectivity	.00	.29	.00	1.00
Negative Affectivity	-.30	.24	1.55	.74
Power Distance	.02	.35	.00	1.02
Procedural Justice Expectations	-.88	.49	3.18†	.42
Procedural Justice Values	.33	.43	.59	1.39
Voice Expectations\Values	-.27	.39	.50	.76

Note: Modeling odds of study completion (0=no, 1=yes). Model Chi-square with 19 degrees of freedom is 37.19; $p < .01$.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

heard about their class, the more likely the student was to complete the second survey. Finally, procedural justice expectations were negatively related to study completion (B=-.88). The more negative a student's expectations of the grading process were, the more likely he/she was to complete the second survey.

STUDY 2 DISCUSSION

The results provided mixed support for the influence of procedural justice expectations on outcomes via procedural justice perceptions. Using the Baron and Kenny (1986) method of testing mediation, procedural justice expectations were consistently related to procedural justice perceptions, but none of the four outcome variables. These results were replicated using the procedural justice values and voice expectations/values measures. These results provide weak support for mediation.

The moderating role of procedural justice expectations on the relationship between procedural justice perceptions and outcomes was not supported in any of the interactions using the three expectations and values measures on any of the outcome measures. Partial support was found for the moderating role of procedural elements expectations on the relationship between procedural elements perceptions and process fairness perceptions. The results indicated that, as hypothesized, the relationship between procedural elements perceptions and process fairness perceptions was stronger when students expected those elements to be present than when they did not. This result suggests that researchers should not assume that the presence or absence of procedural elements in a situation necessitates that the perceiver will judge the process as fair or unfair. This result suggests that procedural justice perceptions are, at least in part, formed from expectations that people hold regarding procedural elements.

The results also supported the relationship between a number of individual difference measures and procedural justice expectations and values. In addition, a number of measures were significantly related to procedural justice perceptions beyond the influence of outcome fairness perceptions. Both results suggest that individual

differences deserve a more important role in justice models than they have received to date (Ryan and Ployhart, 2000). The results also suggest that these factors are quite varied and span demographics, experiences, and personality factors.

The results also suggest that the nature of past experiences may influence the impact that they have on procedural justice expectation and values. Partial support was found the notion that direct experiences play a larger role in the formation of procedural justice expectations than information gathered from others. These results support previous research which suggests that direct experiences strengthen aspects of expectations (e.g., certainty, accessibility) that make them more influential than socially transmitted information (Olson et al., 1996; Lind et al, 1998).

GENERAL DISCUSSION

Overall, the results of both studies provide some evidence for the antecedents and consequences of procedural justice expectations and values. Table 22 contains an overview of the hypotheses and the level of support for found each hypothesis. Both Studies 1 and 2 found partial support for influence of justice expectations on outcomes via their influence on procedural justice perceptions as suggested by the work of Shapiro and Kirkman (2001) (Figure 1). In Study 2, the results for mediation using the three procedural justice expectations and values measures provided identical results. Brockner et al.'s (2001a) model (Figure 2) suggested that procedural justice expectations have a moderating effect on the procedural justice perceptions to outcomes relationship. The results for all three procedural justice expectations and values measures did not support

Table 22

Study 1 and 2 Results Summary

Hypothesis	Support for Hypothesis	
	Study 1	Study 2
H1: Procedural justice expectations will directly influence procedural justice perceptions, which will, in turn, influence outcomes.	Partial support	Partial support
H2a: Procedural justice expectations will moderate the relationship between procedural justice perceptions and outcomes.	Not supported	Not supported
H2b: Procedural elements expectations will moderate the relationship between procedural elements perceptions and process fairness perceptions.	Partial support	Partial support
H3a: Direct procedural justice experiences will be related to procedural justice expectations such that the more positive direct experiences will be associated with more positive procedural justice expectations.	**Not tested**	Supported (β=.21)
H3b: Indirect procedural justice experiences will be related to procedural justice expectations such that the more positive indirect experiences will be associated with more positive procedural justice expectations.	**Not tested**	Weak support Negative, indirect exp. (β=.18)
Hypothesis 4: Direct procedural justice experiences will be more strongly related to procedural justice expectations than will indirect procedural justice experiences.	**Not tested**	Partial support Direct (β=.17) - Indir. (β=.00)
H5: Negative affectivity will be negatively related to procedural justice expectations.	Not supported	Not supported
H6: Positive affectivity will be positively related to procedural justice expectations.	Supported (β=.16)	Supported (β=.14)
H7: Power distance will be negatively related to procedural justice expectations.	Not supported	Supported (β=-.16)

Brockner et al.'s model of justice expectations. The mediation and moderation results suggest that procedural justice expectations and values are similar in nature and influence outcomes (i.e., commitment, intentions) via their influence on procedural justice perceptions, not their interaction with procedural justice perceptions.

Although Brockner et al.'s (2001a) moderation model was not supported, both studies provided some evidence that procedural elements expectations moderated the relationship between procedural elements perceptions and process fairness perceptions as suggested by previous research (Van den Bos et al., 1996; Greenberg et al., cited in Brockner et al., 2001a) (Figure 5). Although this set of results suggests that procedural justice expectations and values influence procedural justice perceptions, they do not answer the exact nature of their influence. The current data suggest expectations can directly influence procedural justice perceptions (Figure 1) or can influence the relationship of procedural elements and procedural justice perceptions (Figure 5).

Both studies also shed light on the potential antecedents of procedural justice expectations and values. The results from Study 2 also indicated that past experiences had more or less of influence on procedural justice expectations and values depending on their source. The results also provided further evidence for the similarity of procedural justice expectations and values as the significant predictors were similar across measures. These results provide much needed support to previous justice research which has attempted to understand the types of individual differences that may influence the formation of procedural justice perceptions (e.g., Brockner et al., 1994; Mitrano, 1997; Davidson & Friedman, 1998; Wiechmann & Ryan, 2003).

Mediation

The mixed results for mediation were found across both a lab study in which I manipulated procedural justice expectations and a classroom study in which students' expectations were measured in the first two weeks of their psychology class. In Study 1, I found partial mediation using the procedural expectations measure, but did not find mediation using the expectation condition. In Study 2, I did not find mediation for any of the outcomes using Baron and Kenny's (1986) method.

These results suggest that Shapiro and Kirkman's (2001) notion of anticipatory justice may have significant consequences for organizations. Despite organizations' attempts to manage justice perceptions, employees may still perceive unfairness due to their expectations of the situation. The ultimate outcome may be lower satisfaction, lower commitment, fewer citizenship behaviors, and a greater likelihood of leaving the organization. Given the scant research on anticipatory injustice, more research is needed to understand the exact nature of this effect in organizations. The present research, especially that of Study 2, suggests that expectations of procedural justice vary across individuals and that these expectations may have important consequences.

At a theoretical level, these results provide valuable insight into how procedural justice perceptions are formed. In their recent review of justice research, Gilliland and Chan (2001) note the lack of research attempting to identify and test the mechanisms by which justice perceptions are formed. The results of the current paper suggest that expectations are one such mechanism that may influence the formation of justice perceptions.

This notion should not be surprising given the vast data that supports the role of expectations in influencing a variety of perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors (see Miller

& Turnbull, 1986 and Olson et al., 1996, for reviews). When presented with any situation, people hold a variety of expectations regarding how the situation will unfold and the likely outcome of the situation. One of those expectations is likely to concern how fairly the person believes he/she will be treated. In any situation where people are trying to gain a desired outcome, the involved parties are most likely attuned to anticipating how fair the procedures used to determine the outcome will be. As people are generally biased in favor of confirming their expectations, it follows that they will attend to information that confirms their expectations and ignore information contrary to their expectations. The inability to significantly change participants' expectations in Study 1 may suggest that participants were merely confirming the expectations that they held before the experiment. In other words, participants either used the manipulation to confirm their expectations or ignored the manipulation to keep their pre-existing expectations intact.

The results of the current study have implications for Lind's (2001) Fairness Heuristic Theory. One question that Fairness Heuristic Theory attempts to answer is how justice judgments are formed (Van den Bos, Lind, & Wilke, 2001). Fairness Heuristic Theory suggests that, when encountering a new situation, people attempt to quickly gather fairness information that will allow them to judge whether or not to trust the other party. Although Fairness Heuristic Theory does not explicit state that expectations may play a role in forming justice heuristics, it is quite reasonable to assume that people's expectations may influence the initial justice heuristic that is formed. Fairness Heuristic Theory proceeds to suggest that people maintain this fairness heuristic until an event significantly deviates from their expectations. Though not explicitly stated, the theory

seems to argue that expectations play a major role in influencing justice perceptions. Expectations are likely to help form the initial fairness heuristic and then serve as a basis for judging the fairness of subsequent events until a severe enough deviation from those expectations occurs.

Expectations also have theoretical implications for Folger's (1986) Referent Cognitions Theory (RCT). RCT suggests that people react to events by forming "could," should," and "would" counterfactuals (e.g., simulated events contrary to the facts). The "could" and "should" counterfactuals compare what the decision-maker did to other available, feasible behaviors and to prevailing moral standards, respectively. The "would" counterfactual compares the current state to other potential states by considering relevant social comparisons, expectations, and referent standards. Although RCT pays little attention to expectations, it is likely that expectations play an important role in forming the "would" counterfactual because expectations allow a person to consider what it would have been like to receive alternative (i.e., fair) treatment ("what would have been the expected or anticipated outcome if only…."). The results of the mediation analyses suggest that more research is needed to understand the role of expectations in current justice theories (i.e., Fairness Heuristic Theory and Referent Cognitions Theory).

Moderation

Both studies provided no support for Brockner et al.'s (2001a) model of procedural justice expectations. As Brockner et al.'s model originally included a combination of expectations and values (i.e., legitimacy beliefs), I ran additional analyses to see if an additive or multiplicative combination of these components would add additional variance to the models predicting the outcome measures (i.e., affective reactions, class intentions, continuance commitment, and normative commitment). Neither combination of expectations and values influenced any of the relationships between procedural justice perceptions and the outcome measures. These results are not surprising given a number of findings. First, some support was found for the mediating role that procedural justice expectations appear to play in influencing justice perceptions and outcomes. Both studies provide more support for a mediating vs. moderating role for procedural justice expectations.

Another reason for the non-significant interactions is likely the strong influence that other factors had on the four outcome measures. In Study 2, the largest predictors of three of the four outcomes on the second survey (i.e., class intentions, continuance and normative commitment) were the same measures collected during the first two weeks of class. These results are interesting as they suggest that students' expected involvement and their commitment at the beginning of the semester remain unchanged regardless of what happened over the course of the next month. In these three regressions, neither students' first test grade nor their perceptions of the fairness of the outcome associated with that grade were significantly related to the measures on the second survey.

For affective reactions, the three commitment and intentions measures on the first survey were significantly related to the affective reactions, but less so than the influence of test grade and outcome fairness perceptions. Study 1 also found that the justice perceptions measure was the largest predictor of intentions. The results for affective commitment support the notion that justice perceptions are largely based on self-interest (Thibaut & Walker, 1975; Lind & Tyler, 1988). Self-interest models suggest that people seek justice in order to insure that they obtain desired outcomes. In support of the self-interest model, a number of empirical studies have found that the largest influence on procedural justice perceptions is the event's outcome and how fair people perceive that outcome to be (e.g., Bauer, Maertz, Dolen, & Campion, 1998; Chan, Schmitt, Jennings, Clause, & Delbridge, 1998; Gilliland, 1994; Horvath, Ryan, & Stierwalt, 2000; Kluger & Rothstein, 1993; Ployhart & Ryan, 1997). The fact that the non-affective measures in Study 2 (i.e., class intentions, continuance commitment, and normative commitment) did not produce the same results as the affective reactions suggests that self-interest may function differently in influencing various reactions. Overall, these results suggest that if researchers want to understand what drives justice perceptions and related outcomes (e.g., intentions, satisfaction, commitment), they should attempt to measure: a) individuals' expectations of justice, b) individuals' perceived involvement in the situation, and c) various attitudes, intentions, and behaviors (e.g., satisfaction, intentions to quit, organizational citizenship behaviors) relevant to the context they are examining. Finally, future research would seem to benefit from understanding what predicts these initial intentions and commitment perceptions given their large influence over time on people's subsequent intentions and commitment.

Brockner et al.'s (2001a) model may also be incorrect given the significant interaction of procedural elements expectations and procedural elements perceptions on process fairness perceptions found in both studies. The nature of the significant interaction in Study 2 indicated that the relationship between procedural elements perceptions and process fairness perceptions was stronger for students who expected those elements to be present than for those that did not expect those procedural elements. The nature of the significant interaction in Study 1 was contrary to that hypothesized and found in Study 2. Procedural elements perceptions and process fairness perceptions were more strongly related in the Unfair than Fair condition. As noted earlier, one explanation may be that the instructions in the Unfair condition more strongly attuned participants to determine whether certain elements were present than the instructions did in the Fair condition. In other words, participants in the Unfair condition were lead to believe that they would likely find elements missing; whereas participants in the Fair condition were lead to believe that they would find that these elements would be present. Participants in the Fair condition may have been more likely to think that the procedural elements were present and subsequently judge the process as fair, regardless of the actual presence or not of the procedural elements. Future research should attempt to clarify the exact nature of the interaction.

These results, along with those found in the mediation analyses, provide further support that procedural justice expectations play a role in the formation of justice perceptions and not in the relationship between justice perceptions and outcomes (Van den Bos et al., 1996; Greenberg et al., cited in Brockner et al., 2001a). These results also supplement other research which suggests that other moderators such as explanations

(e.g., Ployhart, Ryan & Bennett, 1999; Tyler & Bies, 1990) and social comparisons (e.g., Grienberger, Rutte, & van Knippenberg, 1997) may influence the process by which procedural justice elements influence procedural justice perceptions.

Predictors of Expectations and Values

The results from both studies support the relationship between a number of individual differences and procedural justice expectations and values. Overall, it appears that both personality-based and experience-based factors are important in understanding procedural justice expectations and values. Two personality-based individual differences (i.e., positive affectivity and power distance) were related to procedural justice expectations as well as procedural justice values and voice expectations/values. The results for positive and negative affectivity provide further support for the distinctiveness of these two factors that is debated in personality psychology. As Zevon and Tellegen (1982) suggest, "if we define emotions as aroused-engaged states, then Positive and Negative Affect are best characterized as *descriptively bipolar* but *affectively unipolar* dimensions" (p. 112). In both Study 1 and 2, positive and negative affectivity were not correlated (.05 and -.01, respectively) and positive affectivity was related to procedural justice expectations, but negative affectivity was not. The non-significant results for negative affectivity are surprising given previous research which supports its relationship to procedural justice perceptions (Ball et al., 1993, 1994; Folger & Konovsky, 1989). Future research should be careful not to use only one of these factors due to the assumption that they are bipolar personality traits.

Power distance was the other personality trait that was related to procedural justice expectations and values, but only in Study 2. This result supports Brockner et

al.'s (2001b) and Lam et al.'s (2002) research that suggests power distance beliefs may be an important variable to incorporate into justice models. One issue with an individual-level power distance measure is that most research regards power distance as a country-level measure. Although most research has considered Hofstede's (1980) four dimensions as country-level variables, a recent meta-analysis by Oyserman, Coon, and Kemmelmeier (2002) indicates significant variance in at least one of Hofstede's (1980) dimensions (i.e., individualism/collectivism) both across countries, as has been typically cited, but also within countries that have been typically been labeled as either individualist or collectivist. Given that cultures high and low in power distance are formed from people who hold those power distance beliefs, it stands to reason that researchers can gain valuable insight into this construct by measuring it at the individual level. Study 2 provides evidence that U.S. students do vary in their power distance beliefs and that these beliefs influence their expectations of how fair the grading procedures will be in the current class. This result along with the significant relationship of positive affectivity and procedural justice expectations suggest that people expect to be treated fairly or not based on factors that are stable over time.

In addition to personality-based influences on expectations and values, Study 2 found support that experience-based measures also influence people's procedural justice expectations and values as suggested by previous justice researchers (e.g., Brockner et al., 1994; Olson et al., 1996; Davidson & Friedman, 1998; Mitrano, 1997; Brockner et al., 2001a; Shapiro & Kirkman, 2001; Gilliland & Steiner, 2001). Both direct and indirect experiences were significantly related to procedural justice expectations and values. The

results for direct experience were consistent with those hypothesized (i.e., a positive relationship), but the results for the indirect experiences measures were unexpected.

Factor analyses indicated that both indirect experiences and class-related information were composed of both positive and negative factors. Although each four-item scale comprised two negatively coded items, the four negatively coded items did not load onto an overall negatively coded item factor. Given this result and the initial removal of participants who were carelessly responding, these results are not suggestive of poorly worded items or the nature of the sample (Schmitt & Stults, 1985). Similar to the results for positive and negative affectivity, these results suggest that positive and negative socially transmitted information may be best characterized as *descriptively bipolar* but *affectively unipolar* dimensions.

The differentiation of positive and negative justice experiences is not a new idea in justice research (Gilliland & Chan, 2001; Gilliland, Benson, & Schepers, 1998; Mikula, 1990). Mikula and colleagues (1990, 1998) have developed a model of injustice and have shown empirically that injustice experiences create different reactions than justice experiences. Gilliland et al.'s (1998) research examined the impact of injustice and justice instances on individual's justice perceptions. Gilliland et al. found that both justice violations and non-violations equally impact justice judgments, but that violations and non-violations interact differently when people have to decide a course of action based on their justice judgments. When deciding a course of action, people use non-violations less in making their decision when the number of justice violations surpasses a certain threshold. Thus, the differentiation of positive and negative justice experiences may be a useful distinction for justice researchers to consider in future research.

Study 2 found that negative, indirect experiences were related to procedural justice expectations and values, but none of the other three indirect experience measures (i.e., positive, indirect experience, positive, class information, and negative, class information) were significantly related to either procedural justice expectations or values. These results suggest that people may give less credence to information that is socially transmitted, whether positive or negative. The results for negative, indirect experiences were contrary to what I hypothesized in that the more negative things a person has heard about grading procedures from others, the more he/she expects and values fair grading procedures in his/her current class. As suggested earlier, this relationship suggests that hearing about negative experiences from other people may polarize people's expectations that they will not be treated the same way as others have been. In other words, people may take the attitude that "Yeah, this happened to other people, but I am not going to let it happen to me in this class." This result suggests it may be beneficial for people to hear about other people's experiences of being treated unfairly. Hearing more information appears to strengthen a person's beliefs that he/she will not receive the same treatment in the future. Given this unexpected result, more research is needed to replicate the distinctiveness of positive and negative social information as well as the nature of the results found for negative, indirect experiences.

Direct vs. Indirect Experiences

The relative influence of direct vs. indirect experiences on procedural justice expectations and values remains an open issue given the results in Study 2. Direct experiences were more highly related to procedural justice expectations than positive, indirect experiences and were more highly related to procedural justice values than both

positive and negative, indirect experiences. These results support previous research which suggests that expectations based on direct experience are more accurate and trustworthy compared to expectations from other sources (Jones et al., 1984; Olson et al, 1996). These results also support Lind et al.'s (1998) research on the influence of direct vs. socially transmitted experiences of injustice on justice perceptions. Lind et al. highlight the large number of justice studies showing that self-interest plays an important role in how people form justice judgments; thus, personal experiences with injustice should have more of an influence on justice judgments than others' experiences of injustice.

Although Study 2 also found a difference between the relationship of direct and negative, indirect experience and voice expectations/values, it was in the opposite direction than I predicted. These results support Lamertz's (2002) research which finds that peers can and do provide important information on which people form justice perceptions. Tyler's (1980) research also found the relative influence of direct and indirect experiences depends on the outcome being measure. Tyler found that direct experiences with crime were more highly related to personal judgments of vulnerability to crimes, but the opposite was true for personal judgments of the base rate of crime. More research is needed to understand the role of source on procedural justice expectations and values.

Overall, these results suggest Olson et al.'s (1996) framework may be useful for clarifying how procedural justice expectations are formed. Olson et al. suggest that the three sources of expectations (i.e., direct personal experience with objects, indirect experience via communicating with others, and other beliefs) provide different information on which an expectation's certainty, accessibility, explicitness, and

importance are based. It appears that direct experiences do not always increase these characteristics compared to indirect experiences. An issue not addressed in the current study is that the relative influence of different sources of social information (i.e., supervisor, peer, media) on people's expectations. For example, a person may discount information heard from an unfamiliar person, but trust information heard from a supervisor.

To better understand when direct vs. indirect experiences will be more highly related to procedural justice expectations, more research is needed to better understand not only the different sources of expectations, but also how much they influence the four characteristics of expectations (i.e., certainty, accessibility, explicitness, and importance). Do direct experiences always influence the certainty of an expectation more than the other two sources of expectations? Does this pattern hold across all four characteristics? What are the implications of the answers to these questions on the relationship between expectations and perceptions? Future expectations research should attempt to understand the weights assigned to different sources of information and how these weights vary across the four characteristics of expectations outlined by Olson et al. (1996).

Limitations

Studies 1 and 2 Limitations

There are potential limitations of both studies that deserve some attention. One potential limitation of both studies was the representativeness of the sample. Both studies were largely young, White college students and Study 2 was also mostly female. Although I ideally would have liked to have had a more diverse sample, there is little research to suggest clear differences in procedural justice expectations or perceptions

based on race, gender, or age (see the following papers for exceptions: Major & Konar, 1984; Brockner & Adsit, 1986; DeMaris & Yang, 1994; Davidson & Friedman, 1998). In the current two studies, only race showed a somewhat consistent influence on procedural justice expectations and perceptions; thus, a more diverse sample may have provided stronger and more consistent results.

Another potential limitation is the generalizability of the findings. Study 1 was conducted in a laboratory setting and manipulated expectations. Although the procedures may have been artificial, I attempted to make the process seem as natural as possible. Participants were simply asked to review a resume screening process and give me their perceptions of the fairness involved. It is hard to conceive how I would be able to ethically manipulate procedural justice expectations outside of a laboratory setting. Study 2 was conducted using a classroom sample, but, for the most part, the results replicated those found in the lab; thus, the same findings replicated across different contexts and provide some support that the results will generalize to other situations. As the goal of both studies was to understand basic processes by which procedural justice expectations influence procedural justice perceptions and outcomes, these results should generalize across any situation in which the same basic processes are occurring. To my knowledge, no justice research exists which suggests that the basic processes underlying the formation of justice perceptions and outcomes differ across contexts. It is conceivable that some of the antecedents of justice expectations and values may differ across contexts, but that question remains open given the infancy of research on justice expectations.

A concern with cross-sectional research is the presence of common method variance (e.g., Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Crampton & Wagner, 1994; Spector, 1987; Williams, Cote, & Buckley, 1989). Although some research suggests that common method variance is not as prevalent as researchers used to think (e.g., Crampton & Wagner, 1994) or that it is rarely severe enough to invalidate research findings (e.g., Doty & Glick, 1998), I examined this issue to see if it may have influenced the data. The fact that the multiple PCAs in Studies 1 and 2 supported multiple factors and, for the most part, those in line with the original measures, suggests that common method variance was not prevalent in either study. If common method variance were prevalent, I would have found single factor solutions for many of the PCA.

Another point that reduces the likelihood of common method variance in Study 2 is that a number of the relationships examined involved variables that were assessed longitudinally, with at least three weeks separating the Survey 1 and 2 measures. Longitudinal designs are considered to be less susceptible than cross sectional designs to common method bias (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Lindell & Whitney, 2001).

Finally, Lindell and Whitney (2001) suggest including a marker variable to estimate the influence of common method variance. The concept is to find variables that are theoretically not related to the criterion of interest in the study. The presence of common method variance is indicated by a significant correlation of the marker variable and the criterion and/or similar correlations of the marker variable and the criterion as the predictors in the study. Lindell and Whitney suggest placing the marker variable between the predictors and criteria. To assess the presence of common method variance in Study 2, I placed a measure of technical computer experience between the expectation measures

and perception measures (i.e., at the end of the first survey) as the key relationship in the current study is between these measures. This marker variable was chosen as it is a self-report in nature, has high reliability (.79), is theoretically susceptible to common method variance, and is theoretically not related to procedural justice expectations or perceptions in the current context. In addition, Wiechmann and Ryan (2003) found a non-significant correlation of .13 between the technical computer experience and procedural justice perceptions measures used in the current study.

In the present study, technical computer experience was weakly correlated with all thirteen Survey 1 and 2 perceptual measures (average $|r| = .04$, range -.12 to .10). The technical computer experience measure was only significantly correlated with the Time 1 and 2 class intentions ($r=-.11$ and -.12) and positive, indirect experience ($r=.10$) measures. In addition, the other perceptual measures in the study showed consistently higher correlations with the other hypothesized measures. If common method variance was a significant factor in the current study, the technical computer experience measure should have been related to the rest of the perceptual measures as highly as the other measures proposed in the hypotheses. The results of including the marker variables provides further evidence that common method variance did not account for the results in Study 2. All evidence suggested that common method variance was not a significant problem in either study and did not play a major role in influencing the results.

Another potential limitation of both studies was the lack of any behavioral outcomes. The only behavioral measure I had in either study was completion of the second survey in Study 2. The results of logistic regression supported the relationship between procedural justice expectations and study completion. Although I was not able

to include students' procedural justice and outcome fairness perceptions in the logistic regression, these results provide some evidence that students' behavior, in addition to their attitudes, are related to their procedural justice expectations. Ideally, I would have included perceptual measures, self-reported intentions, and behavior-based measures in both studies. Given the laboratory setting in Study 1, I had difficulty conceptualizing a feasible behavioral measure that would be related to participants' perceptions of the organization conducting the resume screening process. The difficulties in collecting behavioral data in Study 2 lie in the structure of the classes from which I gathered the data as well as my ability to gain acceptance to collect this type of measure from the instructors. Most of the classes from which I gathered data were large (i.e., > 100), so the instructors did not have the opportunity to assess who was in class on a given day and did not attempt to hand back assignments in a structured manner. To my knowledge, none of the instructors had out-of-class sessions that could be used to gather a behavioral measure. Despite the lack of behavioral measures, I did include measures that were proxies of key outcome variables of importance to organizations (i.e., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, recommendation intentions, and withdrawal intentions). Future efforts should attempt to assess behaviors that are important to organizations such as OCBs, attendance, task performance, and productivity.

Study 1 Limitations

In addition to the potential limitations of both studies, each study had some unique limitations. One potential limitation of Study 1 was that some people did not buy the manipulation, even after repeated suggestions that the process would be fair or unfair. Although I did find that participants' procedural justice expectations significantly

differed across the Fair and Unfair conditions, the significant difference between the means (3.70 and 3.34, respectively) is likely due to the significant power I gained from over 100 participants in each condition. Supplemental analyses indicated that the expectation condition was still not significantly related to outcome perceptions after discarding participants in the Fair and Unfair conditions whose expectations were one standard deviation below and above the manipulation check mean, respectively. Thus, although the manipulation worked in the right direction and was statistically significant, it did not appear to influence procedural justice expectations to a great enough degree.

In hindsight, the failure of the expectation condition should not be surprising given the results of this and other research (e.g., Brockner et al., 1994; Mitrano, 1997; Davidson & Friedman, 1998; Bell, Wiechmann, & Ryan, 2003b) that suggests individual differences are related to procedural justice expectations. Although positive affectivity was significantly related to participants' procedural justice expectations, the measure did not change the relationship between the expectation condition and outcome perceptions. In hindsight, I should have included some measures to parallel those of Study 2. It may be that participants' direct experience with similar selection processes or with organizational hiring processes in general may have helped to predict who would be more susceptible to the manipulation. In addition, measures of indirect, past experiences may have also shed light on the ability to manipulate expectations in a laboratory setting.

Study 2 Limitations

Study 2 was limited by some of the measures' reliabilities. Although a few were slightly below the accepted reliability level (.70), three of the measures (Survey 1 and 2 normative commitment and power distance) had poor reliabilities (.51, .54, and .56,

respectively). Future research should attempt to use Allen and Meyer's (1990) original nine-item normative commitment scale instead of three-item measure I used. The reason for the low reliability of the power distance measure is somewhat confusing given its somewhat acceptable reliability in Study 1 (.69). One reason for the lower reliability for this scale in both studies may be the wording changes I made to fit a school context. Lam et al.'s (2002) original measure referenced power distance beliefs regarding employees and organizations and had a much higher reliability (.88) than that found in either study. It may be that the power distance issues are not as an integral part of academic life; thus, students may have been confused as to the nature of the items. Researchers interested in using Lam et al.'s power distance measure in a context different than that for which it was originally developed should attempt to verify that the measure makes sense to the targeted population.

Future Directions

The current paper attempted to clarify the antecedents and consequences of procedural justice expectations and values. Although the findings from both studies helped to answer some of the questions surrounding procedural justice expectations and values, a number of issues still remain that future research should address. One issue that remains open is the role of procedural justice expectations in the formation of procedural justice perceptions. Some support was found for the notion that what people expect regarding fairness can influence their fairness perceptions. Future research should attempt to replicate the results found in the current studies. More explicitly, do expectations play a direct role in what people perceive or do they attune people to certain procedural elements in the situation? I do not think that these roles exclude each other,

but future research should attempt to assess if one or both of these processes is present in justice-related situations.

Another question of interest is the relationship between procedural justice expectations and values. In Study 2, the relationship between the expectations, values, and voice factors were moderate (average r = .52), but not so high that they constituted the same factor. Nevertheless, these three measures produced almost identical results in most of the analyses. The scale means for the procedural justice expectations, values and voice measures were relatively high (4.35, 4.31, and 3.97 on a five-point scale, respectively), but did vary enough to suggest not all people hold the same values and expectations of being treated fairly. Future research should attempt to further clarify the antecedents of procedural justice expectations and values. It is also of interest to see if the voice factor remains a separate factor across other samples and measures of procedural elements expectations and values. Finally, future research should investigate why these measures function in the same way. Brockner et al.'s (2001a) original notion of legitimacy beliefs included both values and expectations. The results of Study 2 suggest that values and expectations may both legitimize procedural justice. In terms of the moderation results, it may be that expecting and/or valuing procedural elements legitimizes the presence or absence of those elements, so procedural justice perceptions are more influenced by the perceptions that those legitimized elements are present or absent in the situation. For the mediation results, values and/or expectations may legitimize what people will try to confirm in a given situation. If a person does not expect and/or value being treated fairly, he/she may be more likely to confirm the legitimacy belief that he/she were not treated fairly in the situation.

Another question not examined in this study is the relationship between procedural justice expectations and expectations of the other justice dimensions (i.e., distributive, interpersonal, and informational). As research suggests that justice perceptions constitute four dimensions (e.g., Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001), it is likely that people also hold distinct expectations regarding each type of justice. Recent research by Bell et al. (2003b) indicates that, although related, people hold distinct expectations for each type of justice. Bell et al's results also indicate the antecedents of expectations are somewhat different across justice dimensions and that the strongest predictor of each of the four types of justice perceptions are most strongly predicted by their parallel expectations measures. Future research should attempt to incorporate Bell et al.'s results and those of the current study to examine what predicts these different types of expectations. Do individual differences such as positive affectivity and power distance influence all types of justice expectations? Another question of interest is: Do expectations of one type of justice influence other types of justice expectations? That is, if I expect that a selection process will be fair, do I also expect that I will be given adequate information during the process?

Future research may also want to examine whether people hold different justice expectations regarding various stakeholders in a situation. There is some evidence within the justice literature that different dimensions of justice may be more predictive of certain outcomes than others (e.g., Bias & Moag, 1986; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000; Colquitt et al., 2001). Bias and Moag (1986) suggested that interactional and informational justice would be more likely to influence reactions to the person carrying out the process and procedural

justice would be more likely to influence reactions to the employing organization. In addition, Greenberg (1990) and Lind and Tyler (1988) suggested that distributive justice may be more influential on reactions to more specific personal-oriented outcomes such as satisfaction with a pay raise and that procedural justice may be more influential on reactions to more general perceptions of the system carrying out the process. These results suggest that people may have expectations of different aspects of a situation and that these expectations may be more influential on some outcomes than others. Future research that measures more targeted procedural justice expectations and perceptions may increase our ability to differentially predict important outcomes such as commitment, satisfaction, and OCBs. In addition to holding different expectations of different stakeholders, do the expectations of certain stakeholders influence justice perceptions more than those of others? For example, I may expect more out of a long-time co-worker than of a new person in my workgroup. Given this scenario, I may always tend to confirm my expectations that my friend will be fair, but may be more objective in assessing how fair the new person is acting.

Given the significant relationships in Study 2 between direct and indirect experiences and procedural justice expectations, an issue that deserves attention is the cyclical relationship of expectations and perceptions over time. In a given situation, the results of both studies suggest that expectations influence a person's procedural justice perceptions. If that person feels they were treated unfairly, we know that from the aforementioned results that this negative experience will influence the expectations of the process in subsequent situations. Another related question is: Do experiences of justice or injustice have diminishing influences over time on subsequent justice expectations?

These issues suggest that expectations may function differently in new situations vs. situations in which a person has repeated interactions. When a person is new to an event or person, he/she may not have enough experience to have strong expectations, so characteristics of the situation and/or interaction may have more of an impact on procedural justice perceptions. On the other hand, a person's expectations may play an important role in how they form procedural justice perceptions if he/she has had repeated interactions in a particular environment or with a particular person. Future research should attempt to understand how the type of situation (i.e., novel vs. familiar) impacts the relationship between expectations and perceptions.

One question that was indirectly addressed in the current study is the relative influence of expectations versus other factors on procedural justice perceptions. The results of both studies indicated that factors such as outcome fairness perceptions and a person's initial commitment and intentions may be more influential than a person's expectations. Future research should attempt to clarify when expectations are more likely to influence perceptions compared to other factors in the situation. Research from social psychology suggests that the nature of the expectation (i.e., the strength, type, source) and nature of the behavioral evidence may be important factors in determining how expectations influence perceptions and behavior (Jones et al., 1984; Swann & Ely, 1984; Fiske et al., cited in Higgins & Bargh, 1987; Irving & Meyer, 1994). As Higgins and Bargh (1987) state, "people are neither largely 'theory-driven' nor predominantly 'data-driven'; rather, they are continually compelled by the relation between knowledge and events" (p. 387).

Future research should also expand the list of individual differences examined in Studies 1 and 2. The individual differences were selected based on the existing research which links individual differences to justice perceptions, but there are likely other factors that contribute to the formation of justice expectations. Factors such as justice climate (Colquitt, Noe, & Jackson, 2002), Belief in a Just World (see Furnham & Procter, 1989 for a review), and organizational cynicism (Dean, Brandes, & Dharwadkar, 1998) may be additional factors that influence procedural justice expectations.

Practical Implications

If organizations want to manage fairness perceptions, they need to know how these perceptions are formed. The current research suggests that employees' expectations may influence justice perceptions. Unfortunately, the significance of positive affectivity, power distance, and past experiences suggest that some people may be more likely to perceive events as fair or unfair despite the outcome of the event or the process involved. Thus, practically, these results may suggest that not everyone will be happy, no matter what an organization attempts.

Nevertheless, Study 1 provided some evidence that people's expectations can be influenced. If expectations can be influenced, organizations may be able to gain a key foothold in managing fairness perceptions. As both direct and indirect experiences influence expectations, organizations may be able to manage what people expect in their organization by distinguishing their practices from the negative ones that employees' previous employers used and by comparing their practices to the positive ones that employees have encountered in the past. Organizations may also be able to manage justice perceptions by quelling "water cooler" talk that occurs after an event within the

organization. When a negative event occurs within the organization, leaders may be able to manage future expectations by knowing that what people expect may be based, in part, on what they hear from others within the organization.

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APPENDIX A

STUDY 1: INFORMED CONSENT

INFORMED CONSENT

Project Title:	Perceptions, Part Two Study
Investigators' Names:	Darin Wiechmann and Dr. Ann Marie Ryan
Description and Explanation of Procedures:	The study in which you are about to participate investigates students' perceptions of a selection process. You will be asked to review some resumes and evaluate the fairness of the selection process.
Benefits:	Participation in this study requires a total of one-half hour of your time. You will receive 1 extra-credit point for your one-half hour time commitment.
Risks and Discomforts:	None

Thank you for participating in our study! If you have any questions about this study, please contact the investigator (Darin Wiechmann; Room 20 Baker Hall, East Lansing, MI 48824; 353-9166; wiechma2@msu.edu). If you have questions or concerns regarding your rights as a study participant, or are dissatisfied at any time with any aspect of this study, you may contact – anonymously, if you wish – Ashir Kumar, M.D., Chair of the University Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects (UCRIHS) by phone: (517) 355-2180, fax: (517) 432-4503, e-mail: ucrihs@msu.edu, or regular mail: 202 Olds Hall, East Lansing, MI 48824. Your participation in this research is voluntary and you may refuse to participate in certain procedures or answer certain questions or may discontinue the experiment at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are entitled. Your privacy will be protected to the maximum extent allowable by law. Your data will be treated with strict confidence on the part of the investigators. Your data shall not be identifiable in any report of research findings. Once again, this information will be kept completely confidential and will be examined only by the investigators. A copy of this consent form will be available for you to take home. Within three years of participation, a copy of this signed consent form will be provided to you upon request.

Your signature below indicates your voluntary agreement to participate in this study.

_____	_____
Name (please print)	Signature
_____	_____
Student Number	Date

APPENDIX B

STUDY 2: EXPERIMENTER INSTRUCTIONS (FAIR CONDITION)

General Instructions – Fair Expectation Condition

Welcome to the experiment. My name is _____ and I will be your experimenter today. First of all, I would like to ask everyone to turn off all cell phones and pagers, so we are not interrupted during the session.

The purpose of bringing you here today is for you to provide us with your perceptions of a selection process used by a local organization. The organization of which I am speaking sells a variety of office equipment (i.e., printers, desks, chairs, copiers) throughout Michigan. Throughout this study, I will refer to this organization as Organization X. In a move to become more competitive in the marketplace, Organization X recently became interested in the quality of their process for selecting entry-level Technical Writers. These individuals are responsible for working with a team of other Technical Writers on various projects, such as writing the assembly and instruction manuals for their products, and writing some training manuals for current employees regarding how to use their software (such as MSOffice, etc.). Applicants need to have solid communications skills. No previous familiarity with the products is required. The first step in the selection process is a resume screening. After the hiring manager reviews the resumes, he selects which candidates will proceed to the next stage of the selection process. The organization then gives each candidate an extensive and costly test battery, which includes interviews and various ability tests. The final selection decisions for this position are based are a variety of factors measured in the selection process. For the Technical Writer position, the hiring manager currently makes all of the selection decisions in the resume screening step only. Today, your job will be to examine twelve

resumes of candidates who recently went through the resume screening process and your evaluations of the fairness of the procedures used to screen candidates.

Any resume screening process involves some amount of human judgment and thus some room for personal biases and stereotypes to influence a person's decisions. Biases and stereotypes typically arise from a variety of characteristics that differ across people. Factors such as age, gender, ethnicity, activities, hobbies, interests, college attended, place of birth, and values can all influence how we view other people. For example, I attended a private college, so I may be biased to select people for jobs who also attended private colleges. Another example is that sports fans may view those people who like sports as better candidates. A fair resume screening process is never perfect, but does attempt to minimize the influence of these factors on the decisions made.

In the current experiment, your job is to evaluate the quality of the process that the hiring manager uses to make decisions at the resume screening step only. Organization X's evaluation of the hiring manager's selection practices stems from a desire to insure that the resume screening process is as efficient as possible. One challenge to maintaining a quality resume screening process is the small potential for hiring managers to use inconsistent and/or biased practices. Fortunately, research has found that hiring managers using a resume screening process similar to that in Organization X do not engage in these unfair practices. In addition, the current manager has not been accused of using inconsistent and/or personal biases in the resume screening process during his tenure as hiring manager. Finally, the director of hiring for the entire organization (i.e., the hiring manager's boss) frequently provides her hiring managers

with training to prevent the use of unfair practices in the resume screening process. Because of the small potential for unfair practices in the resume screening process such as the one used by Organization X, I would like you to review the candidates' resumes and provide me with your perceptions of the resume screening process.

In order for you to determine the fairness of the hiring manager's resume screening, I will provide you with the hiring manager's resume. By examining his resume, you may be able to detect certain biases, which are influencing the way he carries out the resume screening process. In other words, is he selecting people based on factors other than those that are job-related?

Organization X's goal is to hire the most qualified candidates that they can. For the Technical Writer position, candidates need to have solid communications skills. In addition, grade point average and previous work experiences are two factors that are used to screen out candidates. Thus, these three factors (communication skills, GPA, and previous work experience) are important to consider when evaluating the quality of the resumes.

Does anyone have any general questions about the task that you will be performing today?

First, I would like you to answer a few questions about your perceptions of the resume screening process. Please put your PID in the PID section. While filling out the scantron, please make sure the number of the question you are answering corresponds to the number of the question on the scantron. In addition, please make sure to completely erase your old answer if you decide to change your response.

[Hand out the manipulation check measure and collect when finished.]

Now, I will hand out a copy of the hiring manager's resume and the resumes of twelve recent candidates who went through the resume screening process. In addition, I will also pass out a list of the candidates and the selection decisions made by the hiring manager in the resume screening step. The hiring manager's resume (i.e., the one for Doug Percival) is the first resume in the packet. Your job is CAREFULLY review the hiring manager's resume and candidates' resumes and judge whether the resume screening process is being carried out in a fair manner. After you have CAREFULLY examined all of the resumes, I will ask you to provide your ratings of the fairness of the resume screening process. You will have 10 minutes to review the resumes before making your ratings. Are there any questions?

[Hand out resume packets.]

[After 10 minutes, hand out the reactions questionnaire and collect when finished.]

Now, I would like you to answer the following questions regarding your perceptions of the resume screening process. Please be honest as to how you perceive the fairness of the resume screening process.

[Hand out the final questionnaire and collect when finished.]

Finally, I would like you to answer the following questions regarding your general perceptions of situations and your demographics. Please be honest about how you generally view situations.

Now that we are finished, I will give you a debriefing as to the purpose of the study.

APPENDIX C

STUDY 2: EXPERIMENTER INSTRUCTIONS (UNFAIR CONDITION)

General Instructions-Unfair Expectation Condition

Welcome to the experiment. My name is _____ and I will be your experimenter today. First of all, I would like to ask everyone to turn off all cell phones and pagers, so we are not interrupted during the session.

The purpose of bringing you here today is for you to provide us with your perceptions of a selection process used by a local organization. The organization of which I am speaking sells a variety of office equipment (i.e., printers, desks, chairs, copiers) throughout Michigan. Throughout this study, I will refer to this organization as Organization X. In a move to become more competitive in the marketplace, Organization X recently became interested in the quality of their process for selecting entry-level Technical Writers. These individuals are responsible for working with a team of other Technical Writers on various projects, such as writing the assembly and instruction manuals for their products, and writing some training manuals for current employees regarding how to use their software (such as MSOffice, etc.). Applicants need to have solid communications skills. No previous familiarity with the products is required. The first step in the selection process is a resume screening. After the hiring manager reviews the resumes, he selects which candidates will proceed to the next stage of the selection process. The organization then gives each candidate an extensive and costly test battery, which includes interviews and various ability tests. The final selection decisions for this position are based are a variety of factors measured in the selection process. For the Technical Writer position, the hiring manager currently makes all of the selection decisions in the resume screening step only. Today, your job will be to examine twelve

resumes of candidates who recently went through the resume screening process and your evaluations of the fairness of the procedures used to screen candidates.

Any resume screening process involves some amount of human judgment and thus some room for personal biases and stereotypes to influence a person's decisions. Biases and stereotypes typically arise from a variety of characteristics that differ across people. Factors such as age, gender, ethnicity, activities, hobbies, interests, college attended, place of birth, and values can all influence how we view other people. For example, I attended a private college, so I may be biased to select people for jobs who also attended private colleges. Another example is that sports fans may view those people who like sports as better candidates. A fair resume screening process is never perfect, but does attempt to minimize the influence of these factors on the decisions made.

In the current experiment, your job is to evaluate the quality of the process that the hiring manager uses to make decisions at the resume screening step only. Organization X's evaluation of the hiring manager's selection practices stems from a desire to insure that the resume screening process is as efficient as possible. One challenge to maintaining a quality resume screening process is the significant potential for hiring managers to use inconsistent and/or biased practices. Unfortunately, research has found that hiring managers using a resume screening process similar to that in Organization X engage in these unfair practices. In addition, the current manager has been accused of using inconsistent and/or personal biases in the resume screening process during his tenure as hiring manager. Finally, the director of hiring for the entire organization (i.e., the hiring manager's boss) rarely provides her hiring managers with

training to prevent the use of unfair practices in the resume screening process. Because of the significant potential for unfair practices in the resume screening process such as the one used by Organization X, I would like you to review the candidates' resumes and provide me with your perceptions of the resume screening process.

In order for you to determine the fairness of the hiring manager's resume screening, I will provide you with the hiring manager's resume. By examining his resume, you may be able to detect certain biases, which are influencing the way he carries out the resume screening process. In other words, is he selecting people based on factors other than those that are job-related?

Organization X's goal is to hire the most qualified candidates that they can. For the Technical Writer position, candidates need to have solid communications skills. In addition, grade point average and previous work experiences are two factors that are used to screen out candidates. Thus, these three factors (communication skills, GPA, and previous work experience) are important to consider when evaluating the quality of the resumes.

Does anyone have any general questions about the task that you will be performing today?

First, I would like you to answer a few questions about your perceptions of the resume screening process. Please put your PID in the PID section. While filling out the scantron, please make sure the number of the question you are answering corresponds to the number of the question on the scantron. In addition, please make sure to completely erase your old answer if you decide to change your response.

[Hand out the manipulation check measure and collect when finished.]

Now, I will hand out a copy of the hiring manager's resume and the resumes of twelve recent candidates who went through the resume screening process. In addition, I will also pass out a list of the candidates and the selection decisions made by the hiring manager in the resume screening step. The hiring manager's resume (i.e., the one for Doug Percival) is the first resume in the packet. Your job is CAREFULLY review the hiring manager's resume and candidates' resumes and judge whether the resume screening process is being carried out in a fair manner. After you have CAREFULLY examined all of the resumes, I will ask you to provide your ratings of the fairness of the resume screening process. You will have 10 minutes to review the resumes before making your ratings. Are there any questions?

[Hand out resume packets.]

[After 10 minutes, hand out the reactions questionnaire and collect when finished.]

Now, I would like you to answer the following questions regarding your perceptions of the resume screening process. Please be honest as to how you perceive the fairness of the resume screening process.

[Hand out the final questionnaire and collect when finished.]

Finally, I would like you to answer the following questions regarding your general perceptions of situations and your demographics. Please be honest about how you generally view situations.

Now that we are finished, I will give you a debriefing as to the purpose of the study.

APPENDIX D

STUDY 1: MANIPULATION CHECKS

Please respond to the following questions by filling in the appropriate circle on the scantron sheet. For each question, please use the following scale:

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

IMPORTANT – Make sure that the number of the statement matches the number on the scantron sheet.

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

Procedural Justice Elements Expectations

The following items refer to your expectations about the procedures used by the hiring manager in making selection decisions at the resume screen step. Please answer the following questions using the scale above.

1. I expect that the resume screening procedures will be applied consistently.
2. I expect that the resume screening procedures will be free of bias.
3. I expect that the resume screening procedures will be based on accurate information.
4. I expect that the resume screening procedures will be ethical.

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

Process Fairness Expectations

The following items refer to your expectations about the procedures used by the hiring manager in making selection decisions at the resume screen step. Please answer the following questions using the scale above.

5. I expect that the resume screening process will be fair.
6. I expect that the process used to screen out resumes will be fair.
7. I expect that I will be satisfied with the resume screening process.
8. Overall, I expect that I will feel dissatisfied with the way people are screened out in this resume screening process.

APPENDIX E

STUDY 1: RESUMES

Doug Percival

[address deleted]

EDUCATION:

BA in Sociology and Business, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, 1988
GPA: 3.20

EXPERIENCE:

1986-1988 Research Assistant, Department of Business, University of Michigan
- Conducted literature reviews, copied articles, cataloged articles.
- Served as experimenter for various research studies.

1988-1990 Regional Representative, [Greek Organization]
- Traveled within the Midwest to oversee local chapters.
- Discussed fraternal issues such as local events, rush processes, implications of national policies, etc.

1990-1991 Sales Associate, InfoCorp, Kalamazoo, MI
- Contacted potential customers in order to assess their needs for garden-based products.
- Conducted strategic sales techniques to fulfill clients' needs.

1991-1993 Human Resources Assistant, Organization X, Detroit, MI
- Assisted in interviewing candidates for customer service positions.
- Maintained training database for sales associates.

1993-present Hiring Manger, Organization X, Detroit, MI
- Assesses Organization X's need for Technical Writers.
- Selects associates for Technical Writing positions.
- Maintains training database for Technical Writers.
- Oversees multiple Human Resources Assistants - provides yearly feedback, and schedules weekly duties, and conducts weekly team meetings.

AFFILIATIONS:

Society for Human Resource Management (1988-2002)
Detroit Republicans (1992-2000; Secretary 2000-2002)
First Lutheran Church of Detroit Executive Board (1995-2002)
National Rifle Association (1985-2002)

HOBBIES:

Hunting, Fishing, Camping
Sports – Basketball, Baseball, Football, Hockey
Antique Cars

Sara Franks

[address deleted]

EDUCATION:

BA in English, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, 2002
GPA: 3.57

EXPERIENCE:

1996-1998 Reporter, UT newspaper (The Daily Beacon)

- Investigated city and county government events.
- Conducted interviews with key stakeholders (i.e., local citizens, officials).
- Integrated multiple sources to write daily article.

1999-2002 Technical Writer, Landscaping Associates, Inc. (family business)

- Prepared advertisements and brochures for potential customers.

AFFILIATIONS:

Golden Key National Honors Society (1998-1999)
Omicron Delta Kappa Honors Society (1998-2000)
Forestry Club member (2000-2001)
Intramural Softball team member (2001-2002)

HOBBIES:

Reading
Swimming
Playing the Cello

Janet McClellan

[address deleted]

EDUCATION:

BA in Literature, Eastern Michigan University, 2001
GPA: 2.56

EXPERIENCE:

1999-2001 Delivery person, Detroit Free Press

- Delivered daily newspapers to several neighborhoods
- Collected money from newspaper customers on the route
- Solicited new customers along the route

1997-2000 Cafeteria Employee, EMU Food Services

- Helped prepare and serve food in residence hall cafeterias.
- Performed cleaning and maintenance duties.

AFFILIATIONS:

Circle K member (service society), 1998-2001
EMU Debate Club, 1999-2001

HOBBIES:

Bicycling
Playing in a softball league
Going to concerts

Brent Hawks

[address deleted]

EDUCATION:

BA in Education, Grand Valley State University, 2000
GPA: 2.45

EXPERIENCE:

1996-1998 Store Clerk, Best Buy, Grand Rapids, MI
- Helped customers locate items
- Assisted in store anti-theft security

1998-2000 Sales Clerk, JC Penney Co., Grand Rapids, MI
- Interacted with customers in the shoes department.
- Assisted customers with locating and trying on shoes.

2000-2002 Office Assistant, Smith and Karon Law Firm, Flint, MI
- Performed general office duties.

AFFILIATIONS:

GVSU Collegiate Chorus, 1998-2000
GVSU Student Board Voting Member, 1995-1996

HOBBIES:

Computer programming
Piano playing
Watching sports

Christopher Grano

[address deleted]

EDUCATION:

BA in English, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, 2002
GPA: 3.4

EXPERIENCE:

1999-2001 Web Page Designer, Department of Psychology
- Constructed layout and graphics of the psy.msu.edu web pages.
- Wrote and edited the descriptions of psychology classes, interest groups, faculty, and the application process.

2000–2002 Temporary Employee, Staffing Associates Inc., Ann Arbor, MI
- Worked at various clerical and customer service jobs on a temporary basis.

AFFILIATIONS:

Dean's List Member (1998)
Lutheran Youth Group (2000-2002)
UM Cycling Club (1999-2001)

HOBBIES:

Tennis
Writing poetry
Listening to music

Victoria Niles

[address deleted]

EDUCATION:

BA in Business (Minor in Sociology), Ohio University, 2001
GPA: 3.15

EXPERIENCE:

1997-1998 Counselor, Sunshine Student Center

- Facilitated after school program for children ages 6-12.
- Coordinated activities with other counselor via weekly communication sessions.
- Talked to parents and supervisors regarding children's activities.

1998-2001 Research Assistant, Sociology Department, UT

- Conducted literature reviews and made copies of journal articles at the request of the supervising professor
- Ran subjects for sociology department research experiments

2000-2001 Resident Advisor, Shaw Hall

- Worked with other hall staff members to create a positive living environment for students living in the hall.
- Assisted in writing the Resident Advisor Manual for MSU

AFFILIATIONS:

Member of [Greek Organization], 1997-2001
Keats' Society (English poetry club), 1999-2000

HOBBIES:

Softball, Tennis, Football, Hockey
Computers
Hiking

Jonathan Reyner

[address deleted]

EDUCATION:

BA in Education, DePaul University, 2001
GPA: 3.2

EXPERIENCE:

1996-1998 (summer job) Kitchen Employee, Smarties Café

- Cleaned and set up restaurant before it opened every day
- Washed dishes and cooking instruments
- Occasionally bussed tables

1998-2000 Temarketer, InfoCorp, Evanston, IL

- Contacted individuals to attempt to sell them various lawn care products.

2000-2002 Clerk, DePaul Bookstore

- Ran the cash register
- Took inventory of books, and stocked books and other items
- Prepared technical reports on customer service skills of employees for bookstore managers

AFFILIATIONS:

Habitat For Humanity (1997-2000)
Chicago Young Republicans (1998-2001)

HOBBIES:

Astronomy
Playing the trumpet
Camping

Laura Mercier

[address deleted]

EDUCATION:

BA in Communications, Bowling Green State University, 2002
GPA: 3.05

EXPERIENCE:

1998-1999 Food Service Employee, BGSU
- Prepared and cooked food in residence hall cafeterias
- Assisted in cleaning the kitchen area, dishes, etc.

1999-2001 Intern, Brooks / Cole Publishing Company
- Edited manuscripts of textbooks and novels for publication.
- Wrote correspondence to authors and agents on behalf of the supervising editor.

2000-2002 Front Desk Assistant, Green Hall
- Worked with hall staff to ensure the safety of the residents.
- Answered telephones and residents' questions
- Communicated daily activities to hall residents

AFFILIATIONS:

Volunteer at Toledo Art Museum (Toledo, OH), 1999-2002
Falcon Acapella, 2000-2002

HOBBIES:

Pottery
Jogging
Gardening

Ellen VanBuren

[address deleted]

EDUCATION:

BA in Communications, Michigan State University, 2002
GPA: 3.35

EXPERIENCE:

1996-1998 MSU Parking Attendant, MSU Department of Public Safety
- Worked in parking booths, charging visitors and commuters parking fees

1998-2000 Intern, Office of Public Relations, State of Michigan
- Assisted PR representatives in preparing press releases.
- Assisted PR manager in creating and editing departmental guidelines.
- Performed additional office duties.

2000-2002 Data Entry Operator, Lehman Survey Group, Lansing, MI
- Entered survey responses into spreadsheets

AFFILIATIONS:

Intramural racquetball, 1999-2001
Member of [Greek Organization], 1997-2001

HOBBIES:

Painting
Photography
Movies

Wayne Jameson

[address deleted]

EDUCATION:

BA in Communications, Michigan State University, 2002
GPA: 3.25

EXPERIENCE:

1998-2000 Assistant, MSU Computer Labs

- Maintained computer labs
- Answered questions from students regarding how to operate office software

2000-2002 Reporter for the *State News*

- Researched stories for the daily newspaper.
- Performed in-person and telephone interviews of sources.

AFFILIATIONS:

Dean's List (1998-2000)
Associated Students of Michigan State University (1999-2002)

HOBBIES:

Woodworking
Bowling
Model airplanes

Mary Hirsch

[address deleted]

EDUCATION:

BA in Literature, University of Illinois, Carbondale, 2002
GPA: 3.3

EXPERIENCE:

1998-2000 Library Assistant, UIC Libraries Copy Center

- Worked at the copy desk, assigning copiers and charging students and faculty for copies
- Made sure that copiers had toner and paper

2000-2002 Senior Tutor, Writing Lab

- Helped students write and edit term papers.
- Hired new tutors, and supervised the work of other tutors.

AFFILIATIONS:

UIC Young Authors Club (2000-2002)
Golden Key National Honors Society Member, 1998-2000
Cheerleading squad (1998-2001)

HOBBIES:

Writing
Sculpting
Dancing

Michael Smythe

[address deleted]

EDUCATION:

BA in English, Wright State University, 2000
GPA: 3.35

EXPERIENCE:

1996-2000 (summer job) Food Service Employee, Cedar Point Amusement Park

- Worked at three stands in the park
- Prepared food for guests
- Utilized customer service skills to interact with guests
- Worked on instruction manuals for training new employees in food service procedures

1998-2000 Landscaping Assistant, Gerdeman Enterprises, Dayton, MI

- Mowed and fertilized lawns for homes and businesses
- Distributed mulch, and planted various plants
- Assisted in designing landscapes.

AFFILIATIONS:

Raiders Writing Club, 1999-2000
Intramural Football participant, 1997-2000
Smith Hall President, 1999-2000
Youth Ministry of Dayton, 1998-2000

HOBBIES:

Weight lifting, jogging, kickboxing
Hiking
Car restoration

Richard Snead

[address deleted]

EDUCATION:

BA in English, Western Michigan University, 2001
GPA: 3.1

EXPERIENCE:

1997-2000 Tutor, English Department, WMU
- Helped ENG 101 and ENG 234 students complete term papers.

2000-2002 Smythe Manufacturing, Kalamazoo, MI
- Assisted in preparing various training manuals for jobs within the organization.
- Edited existing technical documents.

AFFILIATIONS:

WMU Dean's List (1996-1998)
WMU Sailing Club, 1997-1999, (President, 1998-1999)

HOBBIES:

Playing the drums in a local band
Karate
Roller Hockey

APPENDIX F

STUDY 1: OUTCOME MEASURES

Please respond to the following questions by filling in the appropriate circle on the scantron sheet. For each question, please use the following scale:

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

IMPORTANT – Make sure that the number of the statement matches the number on the scantron sheet.

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

Process Fairness

The following items refer to the procedures used by the hiring manager in making decisions at the resume screen step. Please answer the following questions using the scale above.

9. I feel the resume screening process was fair.
10. The process used to screen out resumes was fair.
11. I am satisfied with the resume screening process.
12. Overall, I feel dissatisfied with the way people were screened out in this resume screening process.

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

Procedural Justice Elements

The following items refer to the procedures used by the hiring manager in making decisions at the resume screen step. Please answer the following questions using the scale above.

13. The resume screening procedures were applied consistently.
14. The resume screening procedures were free of bias.
15. The resume screening procedures were based on accurate information.
16. The resume screening procedures were ethical.

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

Outcome Fairness

The following items refer to the outcomes of the resume screen step used by the hiring manager. Please answer the following questions using the scale above.

17. Overall, I feel the results of the resume screening were unfair.
18. I feel the selection outcomes were fair.
19. Overall, I am satisfied with the selection outcomes.
20. I am dissatisfied with the selection outcomes.

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

Organizational Commitment

The following items refer to your perceptions of the hiring manager and organization. Please answer the following questions using the scale above.

21. I trust this hiring manager.
22. I would be motivated to work for this hiring manager.
23. I trust this organization.
24. I would be motivated to work for this organization.
25. I would be proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.
26. I would do my best to help this organization.

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

Recommendation Intentions

The following items refer to your intentions concerning this organization. Please answer the following questions using the scale above.

27. I would recommend this organization to others.
28. I would recommend others apply to this organization.
29. I would be hesitant to recommend this organization to anyone I know.

APPENDIX G

STUDY 1: INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AND DEMOGRAPHICS

Please respond to the following questions by filling in the appropriate circle on the opscan sheet. **IMPORTANT** – Make sure that the number of the statement matches the number on the opscan sheet.

Positive and Negative Affectivity

This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then fill in the appropriate answer on your opscan sheet. Indicate to what extent you generally feel this way (that is, how you feel on average). Use the following scale to record your answers.

1 = Very Slightly or not at all **2 = A little** **3 = Moderately** **4 = Quite a bit** **5 = Extremely**

30. interested
31. distressed
32. excited
33. upset
34. strong
35. guilty
36. scared
37. hostile
38. enthusiastic
39. proud
40. irritable
41. alert
42. ashamed
43. inspired
44. nervous
45. determined
46. attentive
47. jittery
48. active
49. afraid

Power Distance

The following items refer to your views on relationships between people. Please answer the questions using the following scale.

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

50. People should not express disagreements with their superiors.
51. People should pay high respect to their superiors.
52. It is all right for superiors to emphasize the symbols that separate them from their subordinates.
53. Powerful people should try to look as powerful as they are.
54. People should consider their superiors as being of a different kind.
55. Other people are a potential threat to one's power and rarely can be trusted.

Demographics

56. What is your gender?
    1= Male
    2=Female

57. What is your ethnic background?
    1=African-American
    2=Hispanic
    3=Asian
    4=American Indian
    5=White

58. What year student are you?
    1=Freshman
    2=Sophomore
    3=Junior
    4=Senior
    5=Graduate or Other

What is your age?

For this question, please put your response in the SECTION boxes on the front side of your scantron form. For example, if you are 18, you would fill in 018 in the SECTION bubbles.

APPENDIX H

STUDY 1: DEBRIEFING FORM

Debriefing for Perceptions, Part Two Study

The study you participated in this semester was designed to understand how people form perceptions of fairness. Researchers have generally assumed that how people are treated can predict how they will react to the situation. The current study attempted to understand more about this relationship by examining some different factors that can affect this relationship. We propose that what people expect can influence the types of reactions that people have in these situations. The idea is that if you expect to be treated fairly, you may be more likely to see the process as fair. On the other hand, if you do not expect to be treated fairly, you may be more likely to see the process as unfair. Thus, our purpose in the current study was to better understand the factors that can influence peoples' perceptions of fairness. Thanks for you participation.

If you any questions or comments, please feel free me at the information listed below:

Darin Wiechmann (517) 353-9166 or wiechma2@msu.edu

APPENDIX I

STUDY 1: INFORMED CONSENT (STRENGTH OF EXPECTANCY PILOT EXPERIMENT)

INFORMED CONSENT

Project Title:	Perceptions Study
Investigators' Names:	Darin Wiechmann and Dr. Ann Marie Ryan
Description and Explanation of Procedures:	The study in which you are about to participate investigates peoples' perceptions selection procedures used by an organization. You will be asked to examine their procedures and provide your perceptions of them.
Benefits:	Participation in this study requires a total of five minutes of your time. You will receive 1 extra-credit point for your five minute time commitment.
Risks and Discomforts:	None

Thank you for participating in our study! If you have any questions about this study, please contact the investigator (Darin Wiechmann; Room 20 Baker Hall, East Lansing, MI 48824; 353-9166; wiechma2@msu.edu). If you have questions or concerns regarding your rights as a study participant, or are dissatisfied at any time with any aspect of this study, you may contact – anonymously, if you wish – Ashir Kumar, M.D., Chair of the University Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects (UCRIHS) by phone: (517) 355-2180, fax: (517) 432-4503, e-mail: ucrihs@msu.edu, or regular mail: 202 Olds Hall, East Lansing, MI 48824. Your participation in this research is voluntary and you may refuse to participate in certain procedures or answer certain questions or may discontinue the experiment at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are entitled. Your privacy will be protected to the maximum extent allowable by law. Your data will be treated with strict confidence on the part of the investigators. Your data shall not be identifiable in any report of research findings. Once again, this information will be kept completely confidential and will be examined only by the investigators. A copy of this consent form will be available for you to take home. Within three years of participation, a copy of this signed consent form will be provided to you upon request.

Your signature below indicates your voluntary agreement to participate in this study.

Name (please print)	Signature
Student Number	Date

APPENDIX J

STUDY 1: STRENGTH OF EXPECTANCY PILOT EXPERIMENT (POSITIVE EXPECTATION CONDITION)

In this experiment, I will be asking you to provide me with your perceptions of a selection process used by a local organization. The organization of which I am speaking sells a variety of office equipment (i.e., printers, desks, chairs, copiers) throughout Michigan. Throughout this study, I will refer to this organization as Organization X. In a move to become more competitive in the marketplace, Organization X recently became interested in the quality of their process for selecting entry-level Technical Writers. These individuals are responsible for working with a team of other Technical Writers on various projects, such as writing the assembly and instruction manuals for their products, and writing some training manuals for current employees regarding how to use their software (such as MSOffice, etc.). Applicants need to have solid communications skills. No previous familiarity with the products is required. The first step in the selection process is a resume screen. After the hiring manager reviews the resumes, he selects which candidates will proceed to the next stage of the selection process. The organization then gives each candidate an extensive and costly test battery, which includes interviews and various ability tests. The final selection decisions for this position are based are a variety of factors measured in the selection process. For the Technical Writer position, the hiring manager currently makes all of the selection decisions in the resume screen step only.

In the current experiment, your job is to evaluate the quality of the process that the hiring manager uses to make decisions at the resume screen step only. Organization X's evaluation of the hiring manager's selection practices in the resume screen step stems from a desire to insure that the resume screen step is useful. One challenge to

maintaining a quality resume screen is the small potential for hiring managers to use inconsistent and/or biased practices. Fortunately, research has found that managers using a resume screen process similar to that in Organization X do not engage in these unfair practices. In addition, the current manager has not been accused of using inconsistent and/or personal biases in the resume screen process during his tenure as hiring manager. Finally, the director of hiring for the entire organization (i.e., the hiring manager's boss) frequently provides her hiring managers with resume screen training to prevent the use of unfair practices. Because of the small potential for unfair practices in the resume screen process such as the one used by Organization X, I would like you to review the candidates' resumes and provide me with your perceptions of the resume screen process.

Given this situation, I would like you to provide me with your expectations that this hiring manager uses fair practices in the resume screen step. The next page consists of a series of questions that ask about your perceptions of the resume screen process used by the hiring manager in Organization X.

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

The following items refer to your expectations about the procedures used by the hiring manager in making selection decisions at the resume screen step. Please answer the following questions using the scale above.

___ 1. I expect that the resume screen procedures will be consistent.
___ 2. I expect that the resume screen procedures will be free of bias.
___ 3. I expect that the resume screen procedures will be based on accurate information.
___ 4. I expect that the resume screen procedures will be ethical.

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

The following items refer to your expectations about the procedures used by the hiring manager in making selection decisions at the resume screen step. Please answer the following questions using the scale above.

___ 1 I expect that the resume screen process will be fair.
___ 2. I expect that the process used to screen out resumes will be fair.
___ 3. I expect that I will be satisfied with the resume screen process.
___ 4. Overall, I expect that I will feel dissatisfied with the way people are screened out in this resume screen process.

APPENDIX K

STUDY 1: STRENGTH OF EXPECTANCY PILOT EXPERIMENT (NEGATIVE EXPECTATION CONDITION)

In this experiment, I will be asking you to provide me with your perceptions of a selection process used by a local organization. The organization of which I am speaking sells a variety of office equipment (i.e., printers, desks, chairs, copiers) throughout Michigan. Throughout this study, I will refer to this organization as Organization X. In a move to become more competitive in the marketplace, Organization X recently became interested in the quality of their process for selecting entry-level Technical Writers. These individuals are responsible for working with a team of other Technical Writers on various projects, such as writing the assembly and instruction manuals for their products, and writing some training manuals for current employees regarding how to use their software (such as MSOffice, etc.). Applicants need to have solid communications skills. No previous familiarity with the products is required. The first step in the selection process is a resume screen. After the hiring manager reviews the resumes, he selects which candidates will proceed to the next stage of the selection process. The organization then gives each candidate an extensive and costly test battery, which includes interviews and various ability tests. The final selection decisions for this position are based are a variety of factors measured in the selection process. For the Technical Writer position, the hiring manager currently makes all of the selection decisions in the resume screen step only.

In the current experiment, your job is to evaluate the quality of the process that the hiring manager uses to make decisions at the resume screen step only. Organization X's evaluation of the hiring manager's selection practices in the resume screen step stems from a desire to insure that the resume screen step is useful. One challenge to maintaining a quality resume screen is the significant potential for hiring managers to use

inconsistent and/or biased practices. Unfortunately, research has found that managers using a resume screen process similar to that in Organization X engage in these unfair practices. In addition, the current manager has been accused of using inconsistent and/or personal biases in the resume screen process during his tenure as hiring manager. Finally, the director of hiring for the entire organization (i.e., the hiring manager's boss) rarely provides her hiring managers with resume screen training to prevent the use of unfair practices. Because of the significant potential for unfair practices in the resume screen process such as the one used by Organization X, I would like you to review the candidates' resumes and provide me with your perceptions of the resume screen process.

Given this situation, I would like you to provide me with your expectations that this hiring manager uses fair practices in the resume screen step. The next page consists of a series of questions that ask about your perceptions of the resume screen process used by the hiring manager in Organization X.

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

The following items refer to your expectations about the procedures used by the hiring manager in making selection decisions at the resume screen step. Please answer the following questions using the scale above.

___ 1. I expect that the resume screen procedures will be consistent.
___ 2. I expect that the resume screen procedures will be free of bias.
___ 3. I expect that the resume screen procedures will be based on accurate information.
___ 4. I expect that the resume screen procedures will be ethical.

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

The following items refer to your expectations about the procedures used by the hiring manager in making selection decisions at the resume screen step. Please answer the following questions using the scale above.

___ 1 I expect that the resume screen process will be fair.
___ 2. I expect that the process used to screen out resumes will be fair.
___ 3. I expect that I will be satisfied with the resume screen process.
___ 4. Overall, I expect that I will feel dissatisfied with the way people are screened out in this resume screen process.

APPENDIX L

STUDY 1: DEBRIEFING FORM (STRENGTH OF EXPECTANCY PILOT EXPERIMENT)

Debriefing for Perceptions Study

The study you participated was designed to pilot some materials for a study that I will be running later this semester. In the current study, I was interested in checking if the background information I gave you lead you to expect that the organization of which I spoke used unfair procedures. My interest is whether peoples' expectations of a situation can influence their perceptions of that situation. Thus, our purpose in the current study was to better understand the factors that can influence peoples' perceptions of fairness. Thanks for you participation.

If you any questions or comments, please feel free me at the information listed below:

Darin Wiechmann (517) 353-9166 or wiechma2@msu.edu

APPENDIX M

STUDY 1: INFORMED CONSENT (CANDIDATE RESUME PILOT EXPERIMENT)

INFORMED CONSENT

Project Title:	Perceptions Study
Investigators' Names:	Darin Wiechmann and Dr. Ann Marie Ryan
Description and Explanation of Procedures:	The study in which you are about to participate investigates peoples' perceptions of some resumes candidates who recently applied to an organization. You will be asked to examine their resumes and provide your perceptions of their quality.
Benefits:	Participation in this study requires a total of one-half hour of your time. You will receive 1 extra-credit point for your one-half hour time commitment.
Risks and Discomforts:	None

Thank you for participating in our study! If you have any questions about this study, please contact the investigator (Darin Wiechmann; Room 20 Baker Hall, East Lansing, MI 48824; 353-9166; wiechma2@msu.edu). If you have questions or concerns regarding your rights as a study participant, or are dissatisfied at any time with any aspect of this study, you may contact – anonymously, if you wish – Ashir Kumar, M.D., Chair of the University Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects (UCRIHS) by phone: (517) 355-2180, fax: (517) 432-4503, e-mail: ucrihs@msu.edu, or regular mail: 202 Olds Hall, East Lansing, MI 48824. Your participation in this research is voluntary and you may refuse to participate in certain procedures or answer certain questions or may discontinue the experiment at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are entitled. Your privacy will be protected to the maximum extent allowable by law. Your data will be treated with strict confidence on the part of the investigators. Your data shall not be identifiable in any report of research findings. Once again, this information will be kept completely confidential and will be examined only by the investigators. A copy of this consent form will be available for you to take home. Within three years of participation, a copy of this signed consent form will be provided to you upon request.

Your signature below indicates your voluntary agreement to participate in this study.

_____	_____
Name (please print)	Signature
_____	_____
Student Number	Date

APPENDIX N

STUDY 1: CANDIDATE RESUME PILOT EXPERIMENT

In this experiment, I will be asking you to provide me with your perceptions of the quality of twelve resumes recently submitted to a local organization. The organization of which I am speaking sells a variety of office equipment (i.e., printers, desks, chairs, copiers) throughout Michigan. Throughout this study, I will refer to this organization as Organization X. In a move to become more competitive in the marketplace, Organization X recently became interested in the quality of their process for selecting entry-level Technical Writers. These individuals are responsible for working with a team of other Technical Writers on various projects, such as writing the assembly and instruction manuals for their products, and writing some training manuals for current employees regarding how to use their software (such as MSOffice, etc.). Applicants need to have solid communications skills. No previous familiarity with the products is required. In their current system, the hiring manager makes all of the selection decisions for the Technical Writer position. The first step in the selection process is a resume screen, which is used to narrow down the number of candidates before who will be given an extensive and costly test battery. Today, your job will be to examine twelve resumes of candidates who recently went through the process and provide your evaluations of the quality of the candidates' resumes.

Organization X's goal is to hire the most qualified candidates that they can. For the Technical Writer position, candidates need to have solid communications skills. In addition, grade point average and previous work experiences are two factors that are used to screen out candidates. Thus, these three factors (communication skills, GPA, and

previous work experience) are important to consider when evaluating the quality of the resumes.

Using the factors I just mentioned, your job is carefully review the candidates' resumes and provide your ratings of the quality of each candidates' resume. In addition, you will then rank order the candidates' resumes to most qualified to least qualified.

Before reviewing the candidates' resumes, please take a minute to re-examine the job description and requirements that Organization X uses to screen out resumes described on the previous page. This is important in making ratings of the quality of the candidates' resumes.

According to the job description and criteria used to select Technical Writers, how qualified do you think the candidate is based on his/her resume?

Please use the following scale to make your rating:

1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------6----------7----------8----------9----------10

definitely not qualified moderately qualified definitely qualified

Candidate	Quality Rating
Names to be filled in	_____
	_____
	_____
	_____
	_____
	_____
	_____
	_____
	_____
	_____
	_____
	_____

Now, I would like you to rank order the candidates from 1 (most qualified) to 12 (least qualified) based on the quality of their resumes. Again, remember to rank candidates according to the job description and criteria used to select Technical Writers. Make sure you use all numbers between 1 and 12.

Candidate	Rank
Names to be filled in	_____
	_____
	_____
	_____
	_____
	_____
	_____
	_____
	_____
	_____
	_____
	_____

This page contains the selection decisions made by the hiring manager (i.e., Doug Percival) in the resume screening step. Beside each candidate's name is the outcome of whether their resume was selected or not to continue in the selection process.

Candidate	Resume Screen Decision
Richard Snead	Not Selected
Janet McClellan	Not Selected
Victoria Niles	Selected
Laura Mercier	Selected
Ellen VanBuren	Not Selected
Sara Franks	Selected
Wayne Jameson	Selected
Michael Smythe	Selected
Mary Hirsch	Not Selected
Jonathan Reyner	Selected
Brent Hawks	Not Selected
Christopher Grano	Selected

Doug Percival

[address deleted]

EDUCATION:

BA in Sociology and Business, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, 1988
GPA: 3.20

EXPERIENCE:

1986-1988 Research Assistant, Department of Business, University of Michigan
- Conducted literature reviews, copied articles, cataloged articles.
- Served as experimenter for various research studies.

1988-1990 Regional Representative, [Greek Organization]
- Traveled within the Midwest to oversee local chapters.
- Discussed fraternal issues such as local events, rush processes, implications of national policies, etc.

1990-1991 Sales Associate, InfoCorp, Kalamazoo, MI
- Contacted potential customers in order to assess their needs for garden-based products.
- Conducted strategic sales techniques to fulfill clients' needs.

1991-1993 Human Resources Assistant, Organization X, Detroit, MI
- Assisted in interviewing candidates for customer service positions.
- Maintained training database for sales associates.

1993-present Hiring Manger, Organization X, Detroit, MI
- Assesses Organization X's need for Technical Writers.
- Selects associates for Technical Writing positions.
- Maintains training database for Technical Writers.
- Oversees multiple Human Resources Assistants - provides yearly feedback, and schedules weekly duties, and conducts weekly team meetings.

AFFILIATIONS:

Society for Human Resource Management (1988-2002)
Detroit Republicans (1992-2000; Secretary 2000-2002)
First Lutheran Church of Detroit Executive Board (1995-2002)
National Rifle Association (1985-2002)

HOBBIES:

Hunting, Fishing, Camping
Sports – Basketball, Baseball, Football, Hockey
Antique Cars

Richard Snead

[address deleted]

EDUCATION:

BA in English, Western Michigan University, 2001
GPA: 3.1

EXPERIENCE:

1997-2000 Tutor, English Department, WMU
- Helped ENG 101 and ENG 234 students complete term papers.

2000-2002 Smythe Manufacturing, Kalamazoo, MI
- Assisted in preparing various training manuals for jobs within the organization.
- Edited existing technical documents.

AFFILIATIONS:

WMU Dean's List (1996-1998)
WMU Sailing Club, 1997-1999, (President, 1998-1999)

HOBBIES:

Playing the drums in a local band
Karate
Roller Hockey

Janet McClellan

[address deleted]

EDUCATION:

BA in Literature, Eastern Michigan University, 2001
GPA: 2.56

EXPERIENCE:

1999-2001 Delivery person, Detroit Free Press

- Delivered daily newspapers to several neighborhoods
- Collected money from newspaper customers on the route
- Solicited new customers along the route

1997-2000 Cafeteria Employee, EMU Food Services

- Helped prepare and serve food in residence hall cafeterias.
- Performed cleaning and maintenance duties.

AFFILIATIONS:

Circle K member (service society), 1998-2001
EMU Debate Club, 1999-2001

HOBBIES:

Bicycling
Playing in a softball league
Going to concerts

Victoria Niles

[address deleted]

EDUCATION:

BA in Business (Minor in Sociology), Ohio University, 2001
GPA: 3.15

EXPERIENCE:

1997-1998 Counselor, Sunshine Student Center

- Facilitated after school program for children ages 6-12.
- Coordinated activities with other counselor via weekly communication sessions.
- Talked to parents and supervisors regarding children's activities.

1998-2001 Research Assistant, Sociology Department, OU

- Conducted literature reviews and made copies of journal articles at the request of the supervising professor
- Ran subjects for sociology department research experiments

2000-2001 Resident Advisor, Gilbert Hall

- Worked with other hall staff members to create a positive living environment for students living in the hall.
- Assisted in writing the Resident Advisor Manual for OU

AFFILIATIONS:

Member of [Greek Organization], 1997-2001
Keats' Society (English poetry club), 1999-2000

HOBBIES:

Softball, Tennis, Football, Hockey
Computers
Hiking

Laura Mercier

[address deleted]

EDUCATION:

BA in Communications, Bowling Green State University, 2002
GPA: 3.05

EXPERIENCE:

1998-1999 Food Service Employee, BGSU
- Prepared and cooked food in residence hall cafeterias
- Assisted in cleaning the kitchen area, dishes, etc.

1999-2001 Intern, Brooks / Cole Publishing Company
- Edited manuscripts of textbooks and novels for publication.
- Wrote correspondence to authors and agents on behalf of the supervising editor.

2000-2002 Front Desk Assistant, Green Hall
- Worked with hall staff to ensure the safety of the residents.
- Answered telephones and residents' questions
- Communicated daily activities to hall residents

AFFILIATIONS:

Volunteer at Toledo Art Museum (Toledo, OH), 1999-2002
Falcon Acapella, 2000-2002

HOBBIES:

Pottery
Jogging
Gardening

Ellen VanBuren

[address deleted]

EDUCATION:

BA in Communications, Michigan State University, 2002
GPA: 3.35

EXPERIENCE:

1996-1998 MSU Parking Attendant, MSU Department of Public Safety
- Worked in parking booths, charging visitors and commuters parking fees

1998-2000 Intern, Office of Public Relations, State of Michigan
- Assisted PR representatives in preparing press releases.
- Assisted PR manager in creating and editing departmental guidelines.
- Performed additional office duties.

2000-2002 Data Entry Operator, Lehman Survey Group, Lansing, MI
- Entered survey responses into spreadsheets

AFFILIATIONS:

Intramural racquetball, 1999-2001
Member of [Greek Organization], 1997-2001

HOBBIES:

Painting
Photography
Movies

Sara Franks

[address deleted]

EDUCATION:

BA in English, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, 2002
GPA: 3.57

EXPERIENCE:

1996-1999 Reporter, UT newspaper (The Daily Beacon)

- Investigated city and county government events.
- Conducted interviews with key stakeholders (i.e., local citizens, officials).
- Integrated multiple sources to write daily article.

1999-2002 Technical Writer, Landscaping Associates, Inc. (family business)

- Prepared advertisements and brochures for potential customers.

AFFILIATIONS:

Golden Key National Honors Society (1998-1999)
Omicron Delta Kappa Honors Society (1998-2000)
Forestry Club member (2000-2001)
Intramural Softball team member (2001-2002)

HOBBIES:

Reading
Swimming
Playing the cello

Wayne Jameson

[address deleted]

EDUCATION:

BA in Communications, Michigan State University, 2002
GPA: 3.25

EXPERIENCE:

1998-2000 Assistant, MSU Computer Labs

- Maintained computer labs
- Answered questions from students regarding how to operate office software

2000-2002 Reporter for the *State News*

- Researched stories for the daily newspaper.
- Performed in-person and telephone interviews of sources.

AFFILIATIONS:

Dean's List (1998-2000)
Associated Students of Michigan State University (1999-2002)

HOBBIES:

Woodworking
Bowling
Model airplanes

Michael Smythe

[address deleted]

EDUCATION:

BA in English, Wright State University, 2000
GPA: 3.35

EXPERIENCE:

1996-2000 (summer job) Food Service Employee, Cedar Point Amusement Park

- Worked at three stands in the park
- Prepared food for guests
- Utilized customer service skills to interact with guests
- Worked on instruction manuals for training new employees in food service procedures

1998-2000 Landscaping Assistant, Gerdeman Enterprises, Dayton, OH

- Mowed and fertilized lawns for homes and businesses
- Distributed mulch, and planted various plants
- Assisted in designing landscapes.

AFFILIATIONS:

Raiders Writing Club, 1999-2000
Intramural Football participant, 1997-2000
Smith Hall President, 1999-2000
Youth Ministry of Dayton, 1998-2000

HOBBIES:

Weight lifting, jogging, kickboxing
Hiking
Car restoration

Mary Hirsch

[address deleted]

EDUCATION:

BA in Literature, University of Illinois, Carbondale, 2002
GPA: 3.3

EXPERIENCE:

1998-2000 Library Assistant, UIC Libraries Copy Center

- Worked at the copy desk, assigning copiers and charging students and faculty for copies
- Made sure that copiers had toner and paper

2000-2002 Senior Tutor, Writing Lab

- Helped students write and edit term papers.
- Hired new tutors, and supervised the work of other tutors.

AFFILIATIONS:

UIC Young Authors Club (2000-2002)
Golden Key National Honors Society Member, 1998-2000
Cheerleading squad (1998-2001)

HOBBIES:

Writing
Sculpting
Dancing

Jonathan Reyner

[address deleted]

EDUCATION:

BA in Education, DePaul University, 2001
GPA: 3.2

EXPERIENCE:

1996-1998 (summer job) Kitchen Employee, Smarties Café
- Cleaned and set up restaurant before it opened every day
- Washed dishes and cooking instruments
- Occasionally bussed tables

1998-2000 Temarketer, InfoCorp, Evanston, IL
- Contacted individuals to attempt to sell them various lawn care products.

2000-2002 Clerk, DePaul Bookstore
- Ran the cash register
- Took inventory of books, and stocked books and other items
- Prepared technical reports on customer service skills of employees for bookstore managers

AFFILIATIONS:

Habitat For Humanity (1997-2000)
Chicago Young Republicans (1998-2001)

HOBBIES:

Astronomy
Playing the trumpet
Camping

Brent Hawks

[address deleted]

EDUCATION:

BA in Education, Grand Valley State University, 2000
GPA: 2.45

EXPERIENCE:

1996-1998 Store Clerk, Best Buy, Grand Rapids, MI
- Helped customers locate items
- Assisted in store anti-theft security

1998-2000 Sales Clerk, JC Penney Co., Grand Rapids, MI
- Interacted with customers in the shoes department.
- Assisted customers with locating and trying on shoes.

2000-2002 Office Assistant, Smith and Karon Law Firm, Flint, MI
- Performed general office duties.

AFFILIATIONS:

GVSU Collegiate Chorus, 1998-2000
GVSU Student Board Voting Member, 1995-1996

HOBBIES:

Computer programming
Piano playing
Watching sports

Christopher Grano

[address deleted]

EDUCATION:

BA in English, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, 2002
GPA: 3.4

EXPERIENCE:

1999-2001 Web Page Designer, Department of Psychology
- Constructed layout and graphics of the psy.um.edu web pages.
- Wrote and edited the descriptions of psychology classes, interest groups, faculty, and the application process.

2000–2002 Temporary Employee, Staffing Associates Inc., Ann Arbor, MI
- Worked at various clerical and customer service jobs on a temporary basis.

AFFILIATIONS:

Dean's List Member (1998)
Lutheran Youth Group (2000-2002)
UM Cycling Club (1999-2001)

HOBBIES:

Tennis
Writing poetry
Listening to music

APPENDIX O

STUDY 1: DEBRIEFING FORM (CANDIDATE RESUME PILOT EXPERIMENT)

Debriefing for Perceptions Study

The study you participated was designed to pilot some materials for a study that I will be running later this semester. In the current study, I was interested in checking if you perceived the resumes as I designed them. My goal in creating these materials was to make some good, mediocre, and poor resumes. I will be using these resumes in an experiment to see if peoples' expectations of a selection process can influence their perceptions of that situation. Thus, our purpose in the current study was to gather some data to help out future study work better. Thanks for you participation.

If you any questions or comments, please feel free me at the information listed below:

Darin Wiechmann (517) 353-9166 or wiechma2@msu.edu

APPENDIX P

STUDY 2: INITIAL MEASURES

Past Experiences

Instructor

I have heard that this instructor (i.e., the one for PSY 236) uses fair grading procedures.
On several occasions, other people have told me that this instructor has given unfair grades. (R)
I usually hear that people's class work is graded fairly by this instructor.
In the past, I have heard about instances of unfair grading procedures by this instructor. (R)

Class

I have heard that this class (i.e., PSY 236) uses fair grading procedures.
On several occasions, other people have told me that they received unfair grades in this class. (R)
I usually hear that people's class work is graded fairly in this class.
In the past, I have heard about instances of unfair grading procedures in this class. (R)

Direct

In my previous classes, grading has usually been conducted in a fair manner.
On several occasions, I have received unfair grades in my classes. (R)
In my experiences, instructors have typically graded me in fair manner.
In general, I would say that the grades I have received in school have been fair and accurate.

Indirect

In the past, people have told me their classes used fair grading procedures.
On several occasions, other people have told me that they received unfair grades. (R)
I usually hear that people's class work is graded fairly.
In the past, I have heard about instances of unfair grading procedures. (R).

Positive and Negative Affectivity

This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then mark the appropriate answer in the space next to that word. Indicate to what extent you generally feel this way, that is, how you feel on average). Use the following scale to record your answers.

1	2	3	4	5
very slightly or not at all	a little	moderately	quite a bit	extremely

_____ interested	_____ irritable
_____ distressed	_____ alert
_____ excited	_____ ashamed
_____ upset	_____ inspired
_____ strong	_____ nervous
_____ guilty	_____ determined
_____ scared	_____ attentive
_____ hostile	_____ jittery
_____ enthusiastic	_____ active
_____ proud	_____ afraid

Power Distance
Students should not express disagreements with their instructors.
Students at a university should pay high respect to their instructors.
It is all right for instructors at a university to emphasize the symbols that separate them from students.
Powerful people should try to look as powerful as they are.
Students should consider instructors as being of a different kind.
Other people are a potential threat to one's power and rarely can be trusted.

Procedural Justice Elements Expectations
I expect that I will be able to express my views and feelings during the grading process.
I expect that I will have influence over the scores arrived at by the grading process.
I expect that the grading procedures will be applied consistently.
I expect that the grading procedures will be free of bias.
I expect that the grading procedures will be based on accurate information.
I expect that I will be able to appeal the scores arrived at by the grading procedures.
I expect that the grading procedures will be ethical.

Process Fairness Expectations
I expect that the grading process will be fair.
I expect that the procedures used to grade people for this class will be fair.
I expect that I will be satisfied with the grading process.
Overall, I expect that I will feel dissatisfied with the way people are graded in this class. (R)

Procedural Justice Elements Values
I value being able to express my views and feelings about the grading process.
I value having influence over the scores arrived at by the grading process.
I value that grading procedures are applied consistently.
I value that grading procedures are free of bias.
I value that grading procedures are based on accurate information.
I value being able to appeal the scores arrived at by the grading procedures.
I value that grading procedures will be ethical.

Process Fairness Values
I value that the grading process is fair.
I value that the procedures used to grade people for this class is fair.
I value being satisfied with the grading process.
Overall, I value not being dissatisfied with the way people are graded in this class. (R)

Procedural Justice Elements
I am able to express my views and feelings during the grading process.
I have influence over the scores arrived at by the grading process.
The grading procedures are applied consistently.
The grading procedures are free of bias.
The grading procedures are based on accurate information.

I am able to appeal the scores arrived at by the grading procedures.
The grading procedures uphold ethical and moral standards.

Process Fairness
I feel the grading process is fair.
The procedures used to grade people for this class are fair.
I am satisfied with the grading process.
Overall, I feel dissatisfied with the way people are graded in this class. (R)

Outcome Fairness
Overall, I feel the result of the test is unfair. (R)
I feel the test outcome is fair.
Overall, I am satisfied with the test outcome.
I am dissatisfied with the test outcome. (R).

Class Satisfaction
I am often bored with this class. (R)
I feel fairly well satisfied with this class.
I am satisfied with this class for the time being.
Most days I am enthusiastic about this class.
I like this class better than the average student does.
I find real enjoyment in this class.

Class Commitment
Affective
I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to this class. (R)
This class has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
I enjoy discussing this class with people outside it.
Continuance
I feel that I have too few options to consider dropping this class.
One of the few serious consequences of leaving this class would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
Right now, staying in this class is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
Normative
I think that students these days drop and add classes too often.
I do not think it is wrong to drop and add classes. (R)
If I found another class that was better, I would not feel it was right to leave this class.

Class Intentions
I intend to work hard in this class for the remainder of the semester.
I intend to attend lectures.
I intend to do my reading assignments.
I intend to put little effort in PSY X. (R)

Recommendation Intentions
I would recommend this class to others.
I would recommend this instructor to others.
I would be hesitant to recommend this class to anyone I know. (R)

Technical Computer Experience
I frequently read computer magazines or other sources of information that describe new computer technology.
I know how to recover deleted or "lost data" on a computer or PC.
I know what a LAN is.
I know what an operating system is.
I know how to write computer programs.
I know how to install software on a personal computer.

Carelessness Scale
The sky is blue.
Grass is green.
Michigan State is in Michigan.
The moon orbits Earth.
We live on the planet Earth.

Demographics
What is your gender? ____ Male ____ Female
What is your age? ____
What is your ethnic background (check one):
____ African-American ____ Hispanic ____ Asian ____ American Indian ____ White ____ Other
What year student are you?
____ Freshman ____ Sophomore ____ Junior ____ Senior _____ Graduate or Other
What is your cumulative GPA? _____

APPENDIX Q

STUDY 2: INFORMED CONSENT

INFORMED CONSENT

Project Title:	Perceptions Study
Investigators' Names:	Darin Wiechmann and Dr. Ann Marie Ryan
Description and Explanation of Procedures:	The study in which you are about to participate investigates students' perceptions of their experiences in their current Psychology course. You will be asked to answer two questionnaires over the next several weeks to help me understand your perceptions of the class.
Benefits:	Participation in this study requires a total of one-half hour of your time. You will receive extra-credit points for your one-half hour time commitment.
Risks and Discomforts:	None

Thank you for participating in our study! If you have any questions about this study, please contact the investigator (Darin Wiechmann; Room 20 Baker Hall, East Lansing, MI 48824; 353-9166; wiechma2@msu.edu). If you have questions or concerns regarding your rights as a study participant, or are dissatisfied at any time with any aspect of this study, you may contact – anonymously, if you wish – Ashir Kumar, M.D., Chair of the University Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects (UCRIHS) by phone: (517) 355-2180, fax: (517) 432-4503, e-mail: ucrihs@msu.edu, or regular mail: 202 Olds Hall, East Lansing, MI 48824. Your participation in this research is voluntary, and your privacy will be protected to the maximum extent allowable by law. You are free to withdraw this consent and discontinue participation in the project at any time without penalty. As I need the data for both time periods, I require that you fill out all both questionnaires. Failure to complete both questionnaires will result in the loss of the extra-credit points. As part of our study, I need to link your test scores in the class to the responses you provide on the questionnaires. Therefore, I ask for your permission to obtain the results of your first test from the instructor. Once again, this information will be kept completely confidential and will be examined only by the investigator. A copy of this consent form will be available for you to take home. Within three years of participation, a copy of this signed consent form will be provided to you upon request.

Pressing Continue below indicates your voluntary agreement to participate in this study.

I agree to participate in the following study.

continue

APPENDIX R

STUDY 2: DEBRIEFING FORM

Debriefing for Perceptions Study

The study you participated in this semester was designed to understand how people form perceptions of fairness and the outcomes of these fairness perceptions. Researchers have generally assumed that how people are treated can predict how they will react to the situation. The current study attempted to understand more about this relationship by examining some different factors that can affect this relationship. We propose that what people value and expect can influence the types of reactions that people have in these situations. The idea is that if you value and expect to be treated fairly and then you perceive that you were treated unfairly, you are likely to react negatively to the situation. On the other hand, if you do not value and expect to be treated fairly, you likely will not be surprised by the situation and will react differently. Thus, our purpose in the current study was to better understand the factors that can influence peoples' perceptions of fairness. Thanks for you participation.

If you any questions or comments, please feel free me at the information listed below:

Darin Wiechmann (517) 353-9166 or wiechma2@msu.edu

APPENDIX S

STUDY 2: FINAL MEASURES

Direct Experiences
In my previous classes, grading has usually been conducted in a fair manner.
On several occasions, I have received unfair grades in my classes. (R)
In my experiences, instructors have typically graded me in fair manner.
In general, I would say that the grades I have received in school have been fair and accurate.

Indirect, Positive Experiences
In the past, people have told me their classes used fair grading procedures.
I usually hear that people's class work is graded fairly.

Indirect, Negative Experiences
On several occasions, other people have told me that they received unfair grades.
In the past, I have heard about instances of unfair grading procedures.

Positive, Class Information
I have heard that this instructor (i.e., the one for PSY 236) uses fair grading procedures.
I usually hear that people's class work is graded fairly by this instructor.
I have heard that this class (i.e., PSY 236) uses fair grading procedures.
I usually hear that people's class work is graded fairly in this class.

Negative, Class Information
On several occasions, other people have told me that this instructor has given unfair grades.
In the past, I have heard about instances of unfair grading procedures by this instructor.
On several occasions, other people have told me that they received unfair grades in this class.
In the past, I have heard about instances of unfair grading procedures in this class.

Power Distance
Students should not express disagreements with their instructors.
Students at a university should pay high respect to their instructors.
It is all right for instructors at a university to emphasize the symbols that separate them from students.
Powerful people should try to look as powerful as they are.
Students should consider instructors as being of a different kind.
Other people are a potential threat to one's power and rarely can be trusted.

PANAS

This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then mark the appropriate answer in the space next to that word. Indicate to what extent you generally feel this way, that is, how you feel on average). Use the following scale to record your answers.

1	2	3	4	5
very slightly or not at all	a little	moderately	quite a bit	extremely

Positive Affectivity	Negative Affectivity
_____ interested	_____ irritable
_____ alert	_____ distressed
_____ excited	_____ ashamed
_____ inspired	_____ upset
_____ strong	_____ nervous
_____ determined	_____ guilty
_____ attentive	_____ scared
_____ active	_____ hostile
_____ enthusiastic	_____ jittery
_____ proud	_____ afraid

Procedural Justice Expectations

I expect that the grading procedures will be applied consistently.
I expect that the grading procedures will be free of bias.
I expect that the grading procedures will be based on accurate information.
I expect that the grading procedures will be ethical.
I expect that the grading process will be fair.
I expect that the procedures used to grade people for this class will be fair.
I expect that I will be satisfied with the grading process.

Procedural Justice Values

I value that grading procedures are applied consistently.
I value that grading procedures are free of bias.
I value that grading procedures are based on accurate information.
I value that grading procedures will be ethical.
I value that the grading process is fair.
I value that the procedures used to grade people for this class is fair.
I value being satisfied with the grading process.

Voice Expectations/Values

I expect that I will be able to express my views and feelings during the grading process.
I expect that I will have influence over the scores arrived at by the grading process.
I expect that I will be able to appeal the scores arrived at by the grading procedures.
I value being able to express my views and feelings about the grading process.

I value having influence over the scores arrived at by the grading process.
I value being able to appeal the scores arrived at by the grading procedures.

Procedural Justice Perceptions
I am able to express my views and feelings during the grading process.
I have influence over the scores arrived at by the grading process.
The grading procedures are applied consistently.
The grading procedures are free of bias.
The grading procedures are based on accurate information.
I am able to appeal the scores arrived at by the grading procedures.
The grading procedures uphold ethical and moral standards.
I feel the grading process is fair.
The procedures used to grade people for this class are fair.
I am satisfied with the grading process.

Outcome Fairness
Overall, I feel the result of the test is unfair. (R)
I feel the test outcome is fair.
Overall, I am satisfied with the test outcome.
I am dissatisfied with the test outcome. (R).

Affective Reactions
I am often bored with this class. (R)
I feel fairly well satisfied with this class.
I am satisfied with this class for the time being.
Most days I am enthusiastic about this class.
I like this class better than the average student does.
I find real enjoyment in this class.
I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to this class. (R)
This class has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
I enjoy discussing this class with people outside it.
I would recommend this class to others.
I would recommend this instructor to others.
I would be hesitant to recommend this class to anyone I know. (R)

Continuance Commitment
I feel that I have too few options to consider dropping this class.
One of the few serious consequences of leaving this class would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
Right now, staying in this class is a matter of necessity as much as desire.

Normative Commitment
I think that students these days drop and add classes too often.
I do not think it is wrong to drop and add classes. (R)
If I found another class that was better, I would not feel it was right to leave this class.

Class Intentions
I intend to work hard in this class for the remainder of the semester.
I intend to attend lectures.
I intend to do my reading assignments.
I intend to put little effort in PSY X. (R)

Technical Computer Experience
I frequently read computer magazines or other sources of information that describe new computer technology.
I know how to recover deleted or "lost data" on a computer or PC.
I know what a LAN is.
I know what an operating system is.
I know how to write computer programs.
I know how to install software on a personal computer.

Carelessness Scale
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____ Freshman ____ Sophomore ____ Junior ____ Senior _____ Graduate or Other
What is your cumulative GPA? _____