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JUSTICE CLIMATE: CONSIDERATION OF SOURCE, TARGET, TYPE, SPECIFICITY, AND EMERGENCE

Deborah E. Rupp, Michael Bashshur and Hui Liao

ABSTRACT

This chapter seeks to integrate and expand on the ideas presented by Cropanzano, Li, and James (this volume), Ambrose and Schminke (this volume), and Rupp, Bashshur, and Liao (this volume). First, it summarizes and comments on the key insights made by each set of authors. It then presents five propositions, along with some preliminary evidence supporting each: (1) employees can and do make source-based justice judgments; (2) justice treatment is directed at different targets (including individuals and groups, both internal and external to the organization); (3) global justice climate may be a useful approach to studying justice once the relationship between more specific justice climates (e.g., inter-unit or intraunit justice climate) is better understood; (4) it is necessary to study both general and specific justice climates to understand the unfolding of justice reactions over time; and (5) a climate for justice can be behaviorally measured and trained.

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INTRODUCTION

The series of papers presented in this volume represent a treatise on the theoretical and methodological advances we have made over the decades as well as a discourse on the exciting new opportunities that lay on the horizon. Indeed, these works show evidence that we are thinking critically about the definition, measurement, and emergence of justice and justice climate. In addition, we have learned from these authors that the organizational sciences are rich with theory and methodology that stand to push our understanding of justice phenomena to new levels (no pun intended). The sections that follow review the major tenants of each individual paper, seeking to integrate ideas within and across papers. To further this goal, the exposition concludes with the presentation of five propositions, along with preliminary evidence supporting each one.

SUMMARY OF THE KEY POINTS MADE IN THIS VOLUME

Rupp, Bashshur, and Liao: Structure and Emergence of Justice Climate

We first began this dialogue by tracing justice taxonomies over time. We began with the more traditional, individual-level, multitype conceptualization consisting of employees' individual perceptions of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice. Evidence suggests that employees can make these discrete judgments between types of justice, and that justice measured this way predicts a wide range of important outcomes (Colquitt, Wesson, Porter, Conlon, & Ng, 2001; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). We then moved on to discuss multifoci/multitype distinctions, arguing that these distinct types of judgments can be made about multiple entities with whom employees interact (Liao & Rupp, 2005; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002). This led us to a discussion of justice climate—that is, shared perceptions of fairness among employees working together. We summarized research showing that unit-level justice (i.e., justice climate) predicts variance in outcomes above and beyond the effects of individual-level justice (Colquitt, Noe, & Jackson, 2002), and that justice climate might also be multitype/multifoci in nature, with separate justice climates forming about treatment received by the group from different entities (Liao & Rupp, 2005).

To summarize, and as other commentators have pointed out, this argument leaves us with a very large number of variables that we can potentially

Table 1. The Many Ways in Which Justice Can Be Operationalized.

Level	Type	Foci/Source	Target
Individual	Distributive	Organization	Self
Unit	Procedural	Top management	Coworkers
Organization	Informational	Human resources	Customers
Culture	Interactional	Supervisor	Labor market
		Coworker	Local community
		Customer	Industry
			Environment

measure, as illustrated in Table 1. With one to four possible levels of analysis (individual, unit, organization, culture), one to four types of justice (distributive, procedural, interpersonal, informational), and an infinite number of foci (e.g., organization, top management, human resources, supervisor, coworkers, customers), the number of constructs is staggering—and, indeed, unrealistic for inclusion in any one study. Also included in Table 1 is the notion of multiple *targets* of justice, whereby an employee might be privy not only to how well he or she is treated personally, but also to how well others are treated in the organization. We will return to this point later in the chapter; for now, however, we will simply point out that we can empirically detect distinctions between this myriad of variables, suggesting at least two things.

First, it is evident that we should use more precision in our measurements. We may not have the need to measure everything, but we should clearly operationalize and measure our variables, specifying the type, source, target, and level, such that our effects are not attenuated by inadvertently collapsing variables that are unrelated or, even worse, negatively related to one another. Second, perhaps we should be alarmed by such a copious set of variables. Their proliferation calls into question whether we truly know what is going on in the heads and hearts of employees. Are our sets of items nothing more than primes? Which is more salient, type or source? Maybe we should treat these variables less as constructs and more as pieces of information that combine in ways we do not yet understand. Perhaps source is more salient than type; perhaps climate is more salient than individual-level perceptions. These questions have yet to be tested empirically and will require more fine-grained measurement (as well as qualitative and policy-capturing types of studies) to investigate. We will elaborate on this need for further research in subsequent sections.

In the second half of the chapter by Rupp, Bashshur, and Liao (this volume), we outlined several strategies and recommendations for measuring

justice climate. We argued there for a multifoci, referent-shift composition model and discussed options for measuring climate strength (alignment-based strength). As we will discuss later in the current chapter, our colleagues greatly expanded on these points and have taken us farther in our exposition on these matters than did our original arguments.

The final issue we raised was that of climate emergence. We argued that there already exists a substantial theoretical basis upon which to test our theories of climate emergence (e.g., Kozlowski & Klein, 2000; Payne & Pugh, 1976; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978; Schneider, 1975). In fact, we would argue that the literature, rather than simply focus on whether research need be more fine-grained or more broad-based, should direct substantially more attention to the unfolding processes of justice and justice climate. In other words, we believe that researchers should engage in more longitudinal studies of how justice perceptions evolve, at both the group and the individual levels. In fact, we believe that a longitudinal approach may reconcile the “splitters” and the “globalizers” in many interesting ways. For example, an individual (or a group) may subdivide justice judgments by type and source initially. However, “an unfair event has the potential to create a series of ripples” that echo from one form of justice perception to another form of justice perception (Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel, & Rupp, 2001, p. 179). Therefore, over time different types and sources of justice perceptions jointly shape the overall justice judgment emphasized by Cropanzano and Ambrose (2001), Ambrose and Arnaud (2005), and Ambrose and Schminke (this volume):

Cropanzano, Li, and James: Intraunit Justice, Interunit Justice, and Multiple Identities

Cropanzano and his colleagues (this volume) provide several insights, theoretical extensions, and new ideas in their chapter. First, they use social identity theory and categorization theory to argue that the level of justice climate within a group depends on the justice climate of other groups, implying that justice is largely a comparative process (i.e., groups consider how well they are treated based partially on how they perceive other groups to be treated). Indeed, these authors argue that climate influences the formation of group identity and that the effect of justice climate on outcomes is moderated by whether the group identity is active at the time the judgment is made (as opposed to other active identities). These arguments lead us to consider a number of issues.

First, we wonder if the comparative process described by Cropanzano et al. is a necessary requirement for justice climate to emerge or if it is solidifying mechanism. We base this question on a contemporary model of justice termed the *deonance model* (Cropanzano, Goldman, & Folger, 2003; Folger, 2001; Folger & Cropanzano, 2001; Folger, Cropanzano, & Goldman, 2005). This model posits that justice is an internalized moral virtue that regulates interpersonal behavior. Unlike some justice theories, such as equity theory and the relational model, which argue that justice reduces to self-interest or concerns for status in groups, the deontic model posits that justice is not only a means to an instrumental or relational end, but also an end in and of itself – that it is simply important to humans (and other primates) that fairness is enacted in society. This model is able to explain third-party reactions to observed injustices and individuals’ willingness to make personal sacrifices in the name of fairness. Returning to our ideas regarding the comparative process proposed by Cropanzano et al., the deontic model suggests that whereas justice judgments may stem from a comparative process (whether it be a comparison with an actual referent other or an idealized cognitive referent), individuals or, in the present case, groups of individuals may also hold potential transgressors up to some objective, moral standard of conduct. It would be interesting to sort these issues out empirically, exploring the comparative and noncomparative influences on justice climate formation.

A second intellectual exercise that Cropanzano et al.’s series of arguments forced us to partake in involved the case of intraunit justice, interunit justice, and multiple identities. If, as purported by social identity and social categorization theories (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Turner, 1985), employees see themselves as members of multiple groups with which they may or may not identify, and these varying identities may be active or inactive at different times, we wonder to what extent justice climate within these groups influences the activation of identity. That is, in addition to active identity moderating justice climate effects as proposed by Cropanzano et al., might an unfair climate coming from a group that was once fair lead individuals to dis-identify with this group? In this case, active identity would be both a mediator *and* a moderator of justice climate effects. Furthermore, this mediating effect might be heightened when intraunit injustice is at work. As was implied by Cropanzano and colleagues, when team members agree that everyone treats all other team members poorly, chances are good that pride and affiliation in one’s groups will be stifled.

The work of Skitka may also shed some light on these issues (Skitka, 2003; Skitka & Bravo, 2005). This work argues that the identities that an individual might hold can differ in terms of how fairness is viewed and dealt with. Using

the terminology of the multiple needs model of justice (Cropanzano et al., 2001), this argument implies that justice might be instrumentally, relationally, or morally motivated, depending on why justice is important to a particular active identity. Skitka takes this notion further in explaining that such differences in how fairness is defined depend on which aspect of the self (material, social, moral) dominates the working self-concept. This factor would then influence how an incident is perceived in terms of justice as well as how criterion variables are affected based on said perceptions. The same line of reasoning also implies the mediated moderated relationship proposed earlier. Justice effects differ depending on which identity is activated, and differences in active identity, the self, and the self-concept can also explain why differential reactions to injustice may occur.

Again, it is important to note that modeling this process dynamically would be superior to cross-sectional tests in that the focus is on the unfolding and changing of identities over time. We agree with Cropanzano et al. that the literature on networks and alliances may shed some light on these issues. Although the focal independent variable in this case is intrarunit justice, the allegiances that an individual or a band of individuals might form across groups involve interunit justice.

Ambrose and Schminke: Climate Strength, Global Justice, and Climate for Justice

Like Cropanzano et al. (this volume), Ambrose and Schminke (this volume), in their commentary, not only provide a plethora of points that challenge our thinking, but also offer some suggestions for resolving methodological problems that have bedeviled justice climate researchers. Here we briefly summarize five of the major contributions made by these authors and offer some additional thoughts on these issues.

Climate Strength

Ambrose and Schminke have provided an immense extension to our discussion of climate strength. Further, they describe polynomial regression and response surface methodology as a way of modeling strength. Cheers erupted in our laboratory upon reading this section. Not only was this one of the most elegant descriptions of the method we had seen to date (something the justice community desperately needed so as to take the fear out of a method many are starting to hear about, but may not be familiar

with), but we have also been examining this method as a tool for exploring the interaction between justice climates surrounding different foci.

We have recently incorporated this method in a study where we sought to explore the relationship between multifoci justice climates (Bashshur & Rupp, 2006). Research to date has not explored the nature of the relationship between justice climates. That is, are climates (e.g., supervisory justice climate versus coworker justice climate/interunit climate) cumulative? Are they compensatory? Are they multiplicative? We explored the interaction between justice climate (climate alignment) using polynomial regression and response surface methodology on a sample of employees in a large state university. Our results told an interesting story. Basically, our response surface graphs showed very clearly that misaligned climates caused more visceral employee reactions than when climates were all low. It seems that employees would rather be treated in a consistently unfair manner by multiple transgressors than treated fairly by one group but unfairly by another (see Fig. 1 for an example of the effects of misalignment on organizational citizenship behaviors). We interpreted these findings through the lens of the met-expectations hypothesis (Wanous, 1977; Wanous, Stumpf, & Bedrosian, 1979). Essentially, we argue that treatment by one source of justice in the workplace shapes employee expectations for treatment from other sources. When treatment from multiple sources is negative, the negative treatment becomes expected and employees tolerate it.

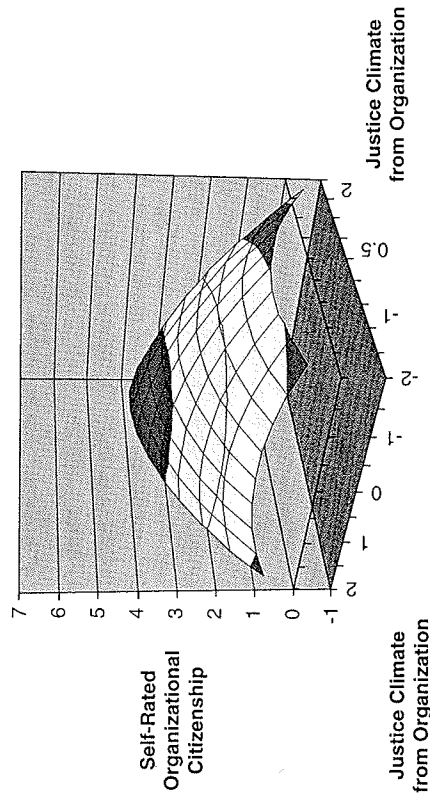


Fig. 1. Relationship between Group Climates from Supervisor and the Organization and Individual-Level Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

Conversely, when treatment by one source is positive while treatment from another source is negative, employees experience what we call a "misalignment shock" and react negatively toward the source of injustice.

We hope that this presentation by Ambrose and Schminke and the preliminary empirical work incorporating this method will inspire researchers to use polynomial regression to explore how employees' shared perceptions about various transgressors interact to influence subsequent attitudes and behaviors.

Global Justice

A second assertion made by Ambrose and Schminke was that the justice community should consider measuring and studying justice as a more global construct. They question the practicality of models that fully cross justice type and justice source (and we would add justice target). The authors point out the paradox that although a fully crossed model is theoretically unreasonable (for example, coworkers may not have influence on outcomes or procedures), a partially crossed model (i.e., incorporating different types of justice with different foci – namely, those that make theoretical sense) may seem post hoc.

Whereas this paradox has credence, the problem is highlighted by Ambrose and Schminke's third important assertion, which is that the justice community rarely develops differential hypotheses for the different types of justice. We agree that this phenomenon has greatly constrained the field and is something that we as a community should be tackling head on. Although some researchers have explored this issue by considering interactions between justice facets (e.g., see Cropanzano, Slaughter, & Bachtiochi, 2005; Goldman, 2003; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), we argue that a more direct approach to this problem is to begin serious theory building surrounding how different types and sources of justice affect similar and dissimilar outcomes. If this effort can be carried out effectively, then the post hoc problem can be resolved.

That said, Ambrose and Schminke also remind us that such a pursuit might be in vain given the high correlations between different types of justice within and between sources. We could not agree more and were happy that this fact has now been formally placed on the table. Some preliminary evidence shows that this assumption holds (Bashshur & Rupp, 2006; Liao & Rupp, 2005; Rupp et al., 2004; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002). However, our data have also shown over the last few years that the correlations between sources (across types) are not nearly as high as those between types. For this reason, and relevant to Ambrose and Schminke's argument for a global as opposed to specific justice, a discussion of construct validity is necessitated.

For ease of comprehension, the reader might consider thinking about type and source of justice in a multitrait/multimethod matrix (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). The matrix in Table 2, for example, treats type of justice as "traits" and source of justice as "method." Thus, for each source of justice, multiple types of justice might be measured (if, as argued earlier, it is deemed theoretically reasonable). If a fully crossed model is viable, then we should find evidence for both convergent and discriminant validity. That is, each individual type of justice should correlate more highly with itself across sources (depicted by the y 's in Table 2) than the different types of justice correlate with each other within a source (depicted by the x 's in Table 2). In support of Ambrose and Schminke's propositions, this outcome is not exactly what we have been finding – the types of justice seem to act very similarly both in general and within sources.

But all is not lost. What we observe in extant studies that measure both justice sources and types is construct validity evidence for source. If we were to aggregate across type (i.e., average distributive, procedural, and interactional justice together), we would see that the correlations between foci are not nearly as high as the correlations between types either within source or overall. The same is true for the correlations of single types of justice across sources.

Although this point is not directly argued in these papers, the results discussed here can be gleaned by the correlations presented. For example, Bashshur, Rupp, and Christopher (2004) found across two samples that within the same source the average correlation between types of justice was 0.69 for supervisor-focused justice perceptions and 0.63 for organization-focused justice perceptions. In contrast, within the same type of justice across the two sources, the average correlation was 0.49. Similarly, Liao and Rupp (2005) reported that within the same source of organization-focused justice, the average correlation among procedural, informational, and interpersonal justice was 0.70; within the same source of supervisor-focused justice, the average correlation among different types of justice was 0.77. Within the same type of justice, however, the average correlation across the two different sources was only 0.36. In addition, in a series of confirmatory factor analyses of the justice items, Liao and Rupp reported that a greater improvement in model fit over a single-factor model came from differentiating various sources of justice, rather than from differentiating various types of justice. While the generalizability and robustness of this pattern of results need to be confirmed in formal analyses, the extant evidence suggests that individuals have an easier time distinguishing justice sources than types.

Table 2. A Multitrait/Multimethod Matrix Approach to Understanding the Construct Validity of Justice (Type and Source/Focf).

	Coworkers			Supervisor			Organization		
	DJ	InfJ	IntJ	DJ	InfJ	IntJ	DJ	InfJ	IntJ
Coworkers	DJ	InfJ	IntJ	DJ	InfJ	IntJ	DJ	InfJ	IntJ
Supervisor	DJ	InfJ	IntJ	DJ	InfJ	IntJ	DJ	InfJ	IntJ
Organization	DJ	InfJ	IntJ	DJ	InfJ	IntJ	DJ	InfJ	IntJ

DJ, Distributive justice; PJ, procedural justice; InfJ, informational justice; IntJ, interpersonal justice.

We posit that such findings make perfect sense. Why? Because different people and groups may very well treat employees differently (Cropanzano et al., this volume). It would be unrealistic to expect the quality of treatment by supervisors, customers, coworkers, human resources, and other parties to be identical. What might be more reasonable to expect, however, is that different types of treatment (interactional, procedural) would be similar coming from a particular source – because it is the source, not the type, that is the transgressor. This leaves us with a situation where global justice might be more reasonable in terms of type, but specific justice with regard to source. We will return to this point in the next section.

Climate for Justice

Finally, Ambrose and Schminke (this volume) make the astute observation that the justice climate construct, as it has been treated in the literature, is different in nature from climate of other varieties (e.g., safety climate, Hofmann & Stetzer, 1996; service climate, Schneider, 1990). That is, climate – as it is treated in other literatures – refers to perceptions regarding how things should be done (e.g., safety protocols), which then are sought to predict whether such things are actually done (e.g., safety behaviors). This is vastly different from our practice of looking at the extent to which groups of employees agree with one another about how fairly the group is treated, and whether this factor ends up making the group work harder, be happier, or be better citizens. As a result, Ambrose and Schminke call for the study of climate for justice. This endeavor would involve asking employees (in this case, supervisors or managers might be an appropriate sample) how they feel employees should be treated, and exploring if such a climate for justice predicts whether such behaviors are, indeed, carried out.

We have attempted to measure this variable (Bashshur et al., 2004). We developed a measure of justice climate that assessed the extent to which just behaviors were rewarded and unjust behaviors were punished within work-groups. Grounding ourselves in the theoretical work of Naylor, Pritchard, and Ilgen (1980), we defined climate as employee perceptions of contingencies for specific behaviors. In essence, we examined whether there was agreement that things should be done in a particular way within work-groups. The focus was on observable behaviors at the level of the supervisor. To the extent that all employees could observe the behaviors of their supervisors and that the behaviors in question were clearly identifiable (in this case, rebukes and disapproval versus praise and recognition), there should have been fairly high agreement around how things should be done.

Unfortunately, given the characteristics of our sample, the majority of our participants did not have enough opportunities to observe the interactions of their supervisors with their supervisors' colleagues, their own immediate supervisors, or upper management (and as such could not assess the extent to which their supervisors' behaviors were punished or rewarded). In the case of this sample, it might have been more fruitful to ask the participants to report the likelihood of punishment or reward (from colleagues or supervisors) for the behaviors of their own colleagues. We believe that a focus on contingencies for behavior is more in the spirit of the idea of justice climate as a climate *for* justice. Given the appropriate focus in level and source of treatment, we think that this may still be a fruitful avenue to explore. We also look forward to seeing future research that explores climate for justice further, including the measurement of justice sensitivity, judgment, motivation, and character, as described by Ambrose and Schminke.

FIVE PROPOSITIONS WITH PRELIMINARY EVIDENCE

In summary, we thank Cropanzano et al. (this volume) and Ambrose and Schminke (this volume) for their commentaries on our ideas, and we thoroughly appreciate the additional theoretical assertions both sets of authors have made. Although we have provided several rejoinder comments already, we conclude this chapter with the presentation of five propositions that are grounded in the positions taken in all three chapters as well as our subsequent thinking on these issues (see Table 3). We also summarize the results of some recent empirical studies to lend some preliminary support to the arguments made thus far, to show how exciting pursuing some of these new lines of research can be and to inspire subsequent exploration of these important topics.

Proposition 1. Employees can and do make specific justice judgments and form specific relationships with multiple individuals and groups, and sources of justice/injustice include more than just supervisors and the organization as a whole.

As we have argued in this chapter and in our last paper (Rupp et al., this volume), taking a multifoci approach to the study of justice is both theoretically and empirically sound. Certainly, treatment coming from multiple actors within the organization will never be perfectly consistent. Whereas

Table 3. Five Propositions Regarding the Study of Justice and Justice Climate.

<p>Proposition 1. Employees can and do make specific justice judgments and form specific relationships with multiple individuals and groups, and sources of justice/injustice include more than just supervisors and the organization as a whole</p> <p>Proposition 2. Workplace justice has multiple targets, including individuals and groups of individuals, and internal and external stakeholders. Employees may be influenced by justice treatment targeted to them individually and by justice treatment targeted to their coworkers and other groups of employees; their own behaviors may also have justice implications for other organizational stakeholders</p> <p>Proposition 3. Global justice climate may be useful for the prediction of important workplace outcomes, but not until we understand how justice climates interact</p> <p>Proposition 4. Both global and specific justice climates may be necessary to understand how justice climate forms, unfolds, and stabilizes over time</p> <p>Proposition 5. Climate <i>for</i> justice forms among managers, can be measured by behaviors (reported by subordinates), and can be trained</p>
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climate for justice may be imparted via a top-down process, even organizations with strong "global" justice climates would be expected to vary in terms "justice from whom." As long as organizations are run by humans, we argue that variance will exist in both individual- and unit-level justice across foci, and the data presented thus far seem to support this contention (e.g., Bashshur & Rupp, 2006; Liao & Rupp, 2005; Rupp et al., 2004; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002). Furthermore, we have replicated these findings in Korea, Japan, and Singapore (Hayashi, Rupp, & Shin-ichi, 2006; Liao, Rupp, Ko, Nam, & Bashshur, 2005; Ng, Rupp, & Drasgow, 2005).

In addition, we have begun to explore what we have been calling "coworker-focused justice," which aligns with Cropanzano et al.'s (this volume) concept of *intraunit* justice. That is, justice perceptions made about the treatment received from one's team members constitute a distinct factor and predict relevant outcomes (see Rupp et al., 2004). What we have yet to do is to aggregate individual perceptions of *intraunit* justice to the group level to test whether this type of climate variable explains incremental variance above and beyond the effects of individual level coworker-focused perceptions. Such an exploration would both be interesting and open the door to explorations into self versus other *interunit* justice perceptions.

Finally, we have begun to explore customers as a source of justice (Holub, Rupp, & Spencer, 2006; Rupp & Spencer, in press; Spencer & Rupp, 2006). Based on a theoretical model grounded in the multifoci model, affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), and fairness theory (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001), we have hypothesized that customers are a viable source

of justice and that injustice coming from customers increases employee emotional labor. We have further predicted that this effect is mediated by discrete emotions and fairness-related counterfactual thinking. Two laboratory experiments and a field study show support for this model.

Proposition 2. Workplace justice has multiple targets, including individuals and groups of individuals, and internal and external stakeholders. Employees may be influenced by justice treatment targeted to them individually and by justice treatment targeted to their coworkers and other groups of employees; their own behaviors may also have justice implications for other organizational stakeholders.

Our second proposition is based on the notion that organizations are integrated systems with interdependent stakeholders. Thus employees not only receive justice treatment from different parties themselves, but also observe and hear about justice treatment targeted to others. Do they even care about how others are treated? Why do they care? Who cares most? Do they want others to be treated fairly? Or do they prefer others to be treated unfairly? How do they compare others' treatment with their own treatment? While extant justice climate literature sheds some light on these issues, we are far from knowing all the answers.

We are excited to see a stream of new research examining these topics. For example, based on equity theory (Adams, 1965) and fairness theory (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001), Colquitt (2004) proposed that individuals compare their own procedural justice experience with others' procedural justice experience and respond most favorably when the two match. The results revealed individuals exert higher levels of performance when both self and others were treated fairly, especially in more interdependent teams and for benevolent individuals in terms of equity sensitivity. Extending this study, Liao et al. (2005) proposed that the extent to which employees care about others' justice treatment depends on their cooperation- versus competition-oriented social values. The results suggest that perceptions of others' justice do matter, but that individual differences exist in how individuals react to others' justice; in particular, competitive individuals have less positive attitudes and behaviors when others were treated fairly.

Another aspect of this proposition is that organizational events and employee behaviors influence the justice perceptions of external stakeholders, such as shareholders, customers, communities, and so on (Aguilera, Rupp, Williams, & Ganapathi, in press). Existing justice research has primarily been internally orientated, focusing on the targets within organizations. A growing, but as yet still limited, body of research is starting to move

beyond organizational boundaries. For example, given that we are in a service economy, fierce market competition identifies customers as one of the most important groups of organizational stakeholders. Customers expect to be treated fairly in service encounters (Clemmer & Schneider, 1993). For example, Conlon and Murray (1996) found that companies' responses to product complaints, such as accepting responsibility for the problems and providing coupons and reimbursements, influenced customers' fairness perceptions and satisfaction.

In a recent study, Liao (in press) examined the role of front-line customer service employees' behaviors in handling customer complaints, also known as service recovery performance (SRP), in conveying a just image of service organizations and achieving desirable customer outcomes. Results from a field study and a laboratory study demonstrated that making an apology, effective problem solving, being courteous, and prompt handling positively influenced customer-perceived justice, which further influenced customer satisfaction and loyalty. In contrast, service failure severity and repeated failures reduced the positive impact of some dimensions of SRP on customer satisfaction, and customer-perceived justice again mediated these moderated effects.

What has not been examined in these studies is justice climate from the customers' perspective, or customers' *shared* perceptions about how they are treated in service encounters. A high level of agreement among customers would indicate a consistent level of high- or low-quality service, and a low level of agreement would indicate inconsistent service experienced by different customers. This unique area of research offers the opportunity to integrate internal and external organizational stakeholders, draw on theories from multiple disciplines, and examine the interplay of management practices, organizational climates (e.g., service climate, justice climate), service provider characteristics, and customer characteristics.

Proposition 3. Global justice climate may be useful for the prediction of important workplace outcomes, but not until we understand how justice climates interact.

As we stated earlier, we absolutely agree with the assertions of Ambrose and Schminke (this volume) that a return to the basics might be needed with regard to the dimensionality of justice. We could certainly subdivide the construct of justice in many ways, but this parsing might leave us with a multitude of highly correlated variables that provide little added value over a more parsimonious model. We would take this argument even further to remind readers of the arguments of Law and colleagues (Law & Wong, 1999; Law, Wong, & Mobley, 1998), which state that we often set up our

theoretical arguments at the construct level (e.g., general justice); make hypotheses, measure variables, and run analyses at the dimension level (e.g., distributive, procedural, interactional justice); and then interpret our findings back at the construct level (e.g., general justice). Law and colleagues have shown that different results can be obtained depending on the level of analysis examined.

That said, whereas a return to a more type-free general justice construct might both be useful and provide more parsimony, collapsing across sources bears problematic implications. We should not expect all parties within an organization to treat an employee or a group of employees in the same manner. Furthermore, the preliminary research we have conducted on this issue suggests that multifoci justice (climate) may not be compensatory. The relationship is complex and aggregating across foci might cloud interesting psychological phenomena or, at worse, produce canceled-out, nonsignificant, or spurious results.

Proposition 4. Both global and specific justice climates may be necessary to understand how justice climate forms, unfolds, and stabilizes over time.

Earlier in this volume, we presented a model of justice climate emergence. We argued that individual differences, environmental characteristics, and climate contingencies create a lens through which employees perceive individual events at work (referred to as event justice). These event perceptions, over time, lead to more general perceptions about the average level of fairness present in the workplace (referred to as social entity justice). When coworkers come together, socialize, share information, and accumulate collective experiences, a climate for justice forms that represents shared perceptions regarding treatment and climate contingencies regarding norms for the reward and punishments for fair/unfair behaviors.

This is a dynamic, multiactor psychological and sociological phenomenon. A single justice study might enter this dynamic system at multiple places in the model. Depending on the point of entry, the level of specificity at which we measure our justice construct will vary greatly. At one point of the model, it may be fruitful to measure actual events, and employees' responses to them. At another point in the model, it may be of interest to see how these event judgments combine to create more stable perceptions of fairness. Here is a place where we might strive to understand whether employees aggregate event perceptions by type (outcomes, procedures, interpersonal treatment) or by source (supervisor, organization, coworkers, customers). If source is an important differentiator of these more general justice perceptions (which we believe it is), then we might also seek to

understand how a change in one actor (e.g., a new boss, a merger with another company, reassignment to a different team) changes fairness perceptions in the overall system.

In sum, there is a time and place for specific measures of justice, and a time and place for global measures of justice. As researchers, we should strive to choose the type and level of specificity, dimensionality, and measure based on the particular research question. Once this decision is made, we should then strive to consistently theorize, hypothesize, measure, analyze, and interpret at that predetermined type/level of dimensionality (Law & Wong, 1999; Law et al., 1998).

Proposition 5. Climate *for* justice forms among managers, can be measured by behaviors (reported by subordinates), and can be trained.

We wholeheartedly agree with Ambrose and Schminke (this volume) that exploring a climate *for* justice might represent a fertile undertaking. We have yet to thoroughly explore how expectations surrounding fair treatment form, and how fair and unfair behaviors might be reinforced or punished in the workplace. Does a climate surrounding the importance of fairness lead to more fairness behaviors? Can a climate for justice be created in an organization that leads to heightened actual and perceived employee justice? What might be the boundary conditions placed on such phenomena?

One area of research that might be integrated with such a pursuit is that of justice training. Three studies have shown that management can be effectively trained to be more fair. Such interventions have been validated by considering the changes in subordinates' justice perceptions before and after their managers were trained (Rupp, Baldwin, & Bashshur, in press; Skarlicki & Latham, 1996, 1997). Future studies might extend this research to test whether contingencies for fair treatment can be formally created, disseminated, and, in essence, "trained," and if such interventions might increase workplace justice.

CONCLUSION

In closing, we thank Cropanzano and colleagues, and Ambrose and Schminke, for their thought-provoking comments. In this rejoinder, we integrated and expanded on the ideas presented in their and our earlier chapters in this volume, and we advanced five propositions concerning the source, target, type, specificity, and emerging process of justice climate. We suggest that the time has come to begin looking more seriously at the

process of justice and the way in which it unfolds over time. We hope these discussions inspire further theoretical development and empirical investigation of justice climate. For example, in a just-published study using conversational data, Roberson (2006) provides evidence that team sense making (i.e., the use of social cues to interpret unexpected or ambiguous events) is an important element in the creation of justice climate. This work is just the beginning. We eagerly await subsequent justice climate research that will push our understanding of this important topic forward.

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