

THE UNIVERSITY OF CALGARY

Personality and Perceived Justice
As Predictors of Survivors'
Attitudes and Behaviors Following
Organizational Downsizing

by

Aoife Brennan

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
DEGREE OF MASTER OF SCIENCE

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

CALGARY, ALBERTA

April, 1999

© Aoife Brennan 1999



**National Library
of Canada**

**Acquisitions and
Bibliographic Services**

395 Wellington Street
Ottawa ON K1A 0N4
Canada

**Bibliothèque nationale
du Canada**

**Acquisitions et
services bibliographiques**

395, rue Wellington
Ottawa ON K1A 0N4
Canada

Your file Votre référence

Our file Notre référence

The author has granted a non-exclusive licence allowing the National Library of Canada to reproduce, loan, distribute or sell copies of this thesis in microform, paper or electronic formats.

The author retains ownership of the copyright in this thesis. Neither the thesis nor substantial extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's permission.

L'auteur a accordé une licence non exclusive permettant à la Bibliothèque nationale du Canada de reproduire, prêter, distribuer ou vendre des copies de cette thèse sous la forme de microfiche/film, de reproduction sur papier ou sur format électronique.

L'auteur conserve la propriété du droit d'auteur qui protège cette thèse. Ni la thèse ni des extraits substantiels de celle-ci ne doivent être imprimés ou autrement reproduits sans son autorisation.

0-612-38570-1

Abstract

Research suggests that downsizing can result in negative outcomes in terms of survivors' attitudes and behaviors toward the organization. The purpose of this study was two-fold: (a) to investigate whether personality predicts survivors' perceptions of fairness of the layoff, and (b) to examine whether personality moderates the relationship between perceived fairness and three organizational outcomes among survivors of corporate downsizing: organizational citizenship behavior, organizational commitment, and intent to quit. Ninety-three participants from four separate organizations that had recently downsized were surveyed using both self-report and peer-report measures. Personality was found to moderate the relationships between perceived organizational fairness and all three organizational outcomes.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

There are a number of people I would like to thank for their assistance with this thesis. My supervisor, Daniel Skarlicki, whose guidance and support was invaluable, and whose superior research design and writing skills have taught me great deal. My committee members, Theresa Kline and Lorne Sulsky for their insightful comments, guidance, and statistical savvy throughout the past 3 years. My external examiner, Robert Isaac, for his helpful comments and suggestions during the defense process. Sandra Rever-Moriyama whose guidance, knowledge, and advice helped me better prepare for the oral defense. Also, my fellow I/O graduate students for all their encouragement and 'words of wisdom' throughout this process. I would like to thank all the organizations, and their employees, who participated in this study for giving their valuable time and providing me with a wealth of information. Lastly, I would like to thank my parents and Dave for their continuous support, encouragement, and undying faith my ability to complete this endeavor.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Survivors of Downsizing	2
Downsizing and Organizational Fairness	6
Personality	8
Personality and Justice	12
Organizational Commitment.....	15
Organizational Commitment and Downsizing.....	17
Neuroticism as a Moderator of Commitment and Intent to Quit.....	18
Organizational Citizenship Behavior.....	22
Organizational Justice and OCB	22
Methods	26
Participants	26
Procedure.....	27
Measures	29
Results.....	33
Between Sample Comparisons	51
Discussion	63
Theoretical Implications.....	68
Practical Implications.....	70
Strengths, Limitations and Future Research	72
References	77

Appendix A	91
Appendix B	94

List of Tables

Table 1	Participants Demographics	27
Table 2	Principle Components Loadings for the Interactional Justice Sub-scale.....	34
Table 3	Principle Component Loadings for the Angry Hostility Sub-scale.....	35
Table 4	Principle Component Loadings for the Commitment Scale.....	36
Table 5	Principle Component Loadings for the Intent to Stay Scale.....	37
Table 6	Principle Component Loadings for Altruism Sub-scale.....	38
Table 7	Principle Component Loadings for the Conscientiousness Sub-Scale.....	38
Table 8	Principle Component Loadings for the Dutifulness Sub-Scale.....	40
Table 9	Principle Component Loadings for the Self-Discipline Sub-Scale.....	40
Table 10	T-tests between Military and Non-Military Samples.....	42
Table 11	Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations.....	43
Table 12	Hierarchical Regression of Variables Predicting Organizational Commitment.....	44
Table 13	Hierarchical Regression of Variables Predicting Organizational Commitment for Military Employees.....	46
Table 14	Hierarchical Regression of Variables Predicting Organizational Commitment for Non-Military Employees.....	48
Table 15	Hierarchical Regression of Variables Predicting Intent to Stay.....	49
Table 16	Hierarchical Regression of Variables Predicting Intent to Stay for Military Employees.....	51

Table 17	Hierarchical Regression of Variables Predicting Intent to Stay for Non-Military Employees.....	52
Table 18	Hierarchical Regression of Variables Predicting Altruism.....	55
Table 19	Hierarchical Regression of Variables Predicting Conscientiousness.....	56
Table 20	Hierarchical Regression of Variables Predicting Conscientiousness for the Military Sample.....	59
Table 21	Hierarchical Regression of Variables Predicting Conscientiousness for Non-Military Sample.....	60

Table of Figures

Figure 1: Graph Of Interactional Justice With Commitment By Angry Hostility...	45
Figure 2: Graph Of Interactional Justice With Commitment By Angry Hostility For Military Employees Only.....	47
Figure 3: Graph Of Interactional Justice With Commitment By Angry Hostility For Non-Military Employees Only.....	50
Figure 4. Graph Of Interactional Justice With Intent To Stay By Angry Hostility.....	53
Figure 5. Graph Of Interactional Justice With Intent To Stay By Angry Hostility For Military Employees Only.....	54
Figure 6. Graph Of Interactional Justice With Intent To Stay By Angry Hostility For Non-Military Employees Only.....	57
Figure 7. Graph Of Interactional Justice With Conscientiousness.....	58
Figure 8. Graph Of Interactional Justice With Conscientiousness By Self-Discipline For Military Employees Only.....	61
Figure 9. Graph Of Interactional Justice With Conscientiousness By Self-Discipline For Non-Military Employees Only.....	62

Personality and Perceived Justice as Predictors of Survivors' Attitudes and Behaviors Following Organizational Downsizing

Layoffs due to corporate downsizing and restructuring have become a prevalent and growing concern in our society. Downsizing began in the 1980's and continues to grow today. Since 1980, Fortune magazine's top 500 firms have laid off more than eight million people. More than 85 percent of these companies have downsized in the last five years, and 100 percent are planning to do so in the next five years (Cameron, 1994).

Downsizing is defined as a set of activities that are undertaken on the part of the management of an organization to improve organizational efficiency, productivity, and/or competitiveness. It represents a strategy implemented by managers that affects the size of the firm's workforce, costs, and work processes (Cameron, 1994). This definition of downsizing includes five attributes that differentiate it from other related concepts such as organizational decline and attrition. First, downsizing is something that an organization undertakes purposively. Second, it involves reductions in personnel. Third, downsizing is focused on improving the efficiency of the organization, and can occur either proactively or reactively in order to contain costs, to enhance revenue, or to bolster competitiveness. Fourth, downsizing affects work processes. Finally, restructuring and downsizing decisions are determined by economic (e.g., competitive environment) and firm related (e.g. re-engineering) strategies, rather than an individual's performance (Cascio, 1993).

Survivors of Downsizing

While research has often focused on the victims of downsizing (e.g., Jahoda, 1982) a growing number of studies have looked at survivors' reactions to the layoffs of coworkers. Survivors are defined as those people who remain in an organization following restructuring.

Research has shown that layoffs have a significant impact on survivors and that the survivors' work environment can be drastically affected following a downsizing. Survivors often feel betrayed because they perceive that the organization has failed to fulfil its reciprocal obligations in the employment agreement. In addition, survivors might also feel that their own job security is threatened. As they observe the layoffs of their fellow coworkers, employees wonder if they will be next. Gossip and rumors begin to run rampant regarding who will be terminated, and as a result, employees spend endless time in "water-cooler" conversation to the detriment of their productivity. Murray (1995) reported that:

"At least in the short term, productivity suffers as employees spend more time worrying about who will be hit next"(p.A6).

Along with the decrease in job security, survivors frequently experience an increase in workload because often there are fewer employees who remain to do same amount of work. Survivors can be expected to perform both their own jobs and those of the employees who were laid off. Survivors are left feeling overworked and unappreciated. Furthermore, survivors often experience "survivor guilt" where they feel guilty because they were able to stay while others were laid off (Brockner, Davy, & Carter, 1985).

Tombaugh and White (1990) found that following a downsizing management expected employees to handle increased responsibility and decision-making. The researchers also found that the employees reported significant increases in role conflict, role ambiguity, and role overload, and a decrease in positive feedback. This increase in work stressors following downsizing has been related to dissatisfaction and intent to leave the organization (Tombaugh & White, 1990). Due to the negative work environment following a downsizing, survivors commonly begin to feel as though the victims were in fact the “lucky ones”. Negative attitudes have subsequently been shown to occur in job involvement, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction as a result of the negative work environment following downsizing (Brockner, Grover, Reed, DeWitt, & O'Malley, 1987). These attitudes have also been shown to be related to increased absenteeism and turnover, as well as, decreases in productivity (Brockner et al., 1987; Konovsky & Brockner, 1996).

Brockner (1988) stated that layoffs have the potential to engender a variety of psychological states and outcomes in survivors. Psychological states such as job insecurity, positive inequity, anger, and relief were found to subsequently influence outcomes such as survivors' performance, motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment (Brockner, Grover, Reed, & DeWitt, 1992). Following the changes in survivors' psychological states, their levels of performance and motivation can decrease, along with job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Brockner, 1988). Greenhalgh (1983) found a reduction in the workforce led to decreased job security, which impaired productivity, increased the likelihood of resistance to change, and ultimately led

to increases in turnover. These negative outcomes to downsizing consequently affect organizational performance causing further decline and downsizing.

The present study focused on three factors relevant to organizational outcomes following downsizing: employees' organizational citizenship behavior, organizational commitment, and intentions to stay. Each of these variables have important implications for organizational effectiveness and were expected to be negatively related to perceived organizational injustice following downsizing.

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) is defined as work-related behaviors that are discretionary, not related to the formal organizational reward system, but that promote the effective functioning of the organization (Organ 1988). Performance of these behaviors are helpful to organizations but are not considered part of the core elements of the job. OCB is interesting because it is not rewarded or explained by the company's formal compensation structure (Moorman & Blakely, 1995; Organ, 1988; Puffer, 1987). OCB has been shown to be related to performance at the organizational (e.g., MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 1993), group (e.g., George & Bettenhausen, 1990; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983), and individual (e.g., Skarlicki & Latham, 1995) levels of analyses. OCB is important to organizations because it can improve organizational efficiency, effectiveness, and adaptability (Organ, 1988). Katz and Kahn (1996) stated that organizations cannot survive without employees participating in OCB and becoming involved in the welfare and operations of the organization.

Organizational commitment is beneficial to companies because it is related to attendance, job performance, citizenship behavior, psychological and physical health of employees; and decreases in both turnover intentions and

turnover (Meyer & Allen, 1997). As organizations are becoming leaner in order to remain competitive in today's market, it is increasingly important that employees remain loyal, partaking in activities such as sharing company goals, attending work regularly, putting in full days, and protecting company assets.

Intent to quit has also been found to be directly related to voluntary employee turnover (Miller, Katerberg, & Hulin, 1979; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Companies need to identify those variables that affect turnover because high rates of employee turnover can be very costly and inconvenient for organizations, and often lead to decreases in productivity and organizational performance (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

This study also examined the role of organizational justice in predicting survivors' organizational commitment, intentions to quit, and organizational citizenship behaviors following downsizing. Organizational fairness theories provide a meaningful framework for explicating layoff reactions because the layoff process consists of a series of events in which victims and survivors evaluate the fairness of the layoffs (Brockner & Greenberg, 1990; Konovsky & Brockner, 1996). These evaluations of fairness have been found to mediate the behavioral and attitudinal consequences of downsizing in survivors (Brockner, et al., 1987).

Brockner (1998) proposed a model of the effects of work layoffs on survivors. The model posits a person-by-situation interaction to predict survivors' responses to a layoff. To date, however, the personality component of the model remains largely untested. The purpose of this study was to: (a) investigate whether personality predicts survivors' perceptions of fairness of the layoff, and

(b) determine if personality moderates the relationship between survivors' perceptions of fairness and their attitudes and behaviors. Specifically, this research investigated whether the personality trait of neuroticism predicts survivors' perceptions of organizational fairness, and whether there is an interaction between neuroticism and organizational fairness on survivors' organizational commitment and intent to quit. In addition, this study examined whether the personality trait of conscientiousness moderates the relationship between perceived organizational fairness and organizational citizenship behavior.

The following sections provide the theoretical bases for this study. First I provide a brief review of the justice literature as it pertains to survivors of a downsizing. Second, personality theories are reviewed, and those personality traits that are theoretically relevant to this study are identified. Third, I provide the conceptual basis for personality predicting justice. Fourth, the interactionist perspective is presented consisting of the rationale for hypothesizing interactions between perceptions of organizational justice and personality on the employees' OCB, organizational commitment, and intent to stay.

Downsizing and Organizational Fairness

The way in which an organization implements and conducts a restructuring has been found to affect the survivors' perceptions of organizational justice and their subsequent performance (Brockner et al., 1994). Organizational justice refers to the role of fairness as it directly relates to the workplace (Moorman, 1991). Specifically, organizational justice is concerned with the ways in which employees determine if they have been treated fairly in their jobs and

the ways in which those determinations influence other work-related variables. Three types of organizational justice have been studied: distributive justice (Adams, 1965), procedural justice (Thibaut & Walker, 1975; Leventhal, 1980) and interactional justice (Bies & Moag, 1986). Distributive justice refers to the perceived fairness of one's outcomes. Procedural justice refers to the formal policies and procedures the organization used to reach outcome distribution decisions. Interactional justice, refers to concerns regarding the fairness of interpersonal treatment received from a supervisor (Bies & Moag, 1986).

The present study focused on the employees' perceptions of interactional justice during a layoff for the following reasons. First, interactional justice has been found to be a significant predictor of several organizational outcome variables. For example, Moorman (1991) found interactional justice to be the only dimension of justice significantly related to OCB. Second, Brockner et al. (1990) found evidence that the interactional aspects of justice were related to organizational commitment, work effort, and turnover intentions. Third, interactional justice has been found to be related to affective commitment. For example Konovsky and Cropanzano (1991) found that employees had higher levels of affective commitment when they believed that they had been provided with an adequate explanation for a new drug-testing policy. High interactional justice was also associated with greater acceptance of the new organizational policy. Fourth, interactional justice is expected to be most highly related to personality. A substantial component of personality is how a person interacts in social settings (Hogan, Hogan, & Roberts, 1996). Given that perceptions of interactional justice are based on the fairness of social interactions, perceptions

of interactional justice should be most sensitive to personality. Stated differently, a person's personality is likely to be directly related to his or her perceptions of interactional justice during social exchange.

Two central factors of interactional justice are: (a) whether the reasons underlying the resource allocation decision are clearly and adequately explained to the affected parties (Bies, Shapiro, & Cummings, 1988) and (b) whether those responsible for implementing the decision treat the affected individuals with sensitivity, dignity and respect (Bies & Moag, 1986; Folger & Bies, 1989; Greenberg, 1993). Survivors' perceptions of justice have been found to play a key role in mediating the behavioral and attitudinal consequences of the layoffs (Brockner, et al., 1987; Brockner, 1988).

As previously mentioned, this study also sought to investigate the role of personality on survivors' reactions to downsizing. Research has shown that personality is related to employees' cognitions and behaviors following downsizing (e.g., Brockner, 1988). Therefore, the following section introduces the construct of personality and outlines the personality traits that have been shown to be most related to organizational outcomes.

Personality

Mackinnon (1944) defined personality as a person's distinctive interpersonal characteristics, especially as described by those who have seen that person in a variety of situations. This definition views personality as being equivalent to a person's "reputation". Personality scales sample a person's typical interpersonal style, and it is that style that creates a person's reputation (Hogan et al., 1996).

Research has identified five robust factors of personality that serve as a meaningful taxonomy for classifying personality attributes often labeled The Big Five (Barrick & Mount, 1991). This five factor model of personality is a hierarchical organization of personality traits in terms of the following five dimensions: extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience (McCrae & Costa, 1990). Extroversion is frequently associated with personality traits such as sociability, gregariousness, assertiveness, talkativeness, and activity. Neuroticism is often compared to emotional stability and is associated with traits such as being anxious, depressed, angry, embarrassed, emotional, worried, and insecure. Agreeableness or likability is often associated with traits such as being courteous, flexible, trusting, good-natured, cooperative, forgiving, soft-hearted, and tolerant. Conscientiousness has often been compared to dependability, being careful, thorough, responsible, organized, and planful; as well as, hardworking, achievement oriented, and persevering. Openness to Experience is commonly affiliated with being imaginative, cultured, curious, original, broad-minded, intelligent, and artistically sensitive (Barrick & Mount, 1991).

The current study examined whether personality is related to perceptions of organizational justice. It focused on the two traits of conscientiousness and neuroticism because they have frequently been shown to be predictive of organizational outcomes such as job performance and OCB (Hogan, et al., 1996; Konovsky & Organ, 1996; Organ, 1994; Organ & Lingl, 1995), organizational commitment (Cropanzano, James & Konovsky, 1993; Davy, Kinicki, & Scheck, 1991), and intentions to turnover (Cropanzano et al., 1993; Davy et al., 1991;

George, 1989). This study did not consider the other three dimensions because they have not shown consistent, significant, or stable correlations with either job attitudes or organizational outcomes (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Konovsky & Organ, 1996; Organ & Lingl, 1995).

People who are high in conscientiousness are characterized as purposeful, strong-willed, and determined (Costa & McCrae, 1992). These people are often scrupulous, punctual, and reliable. Low scorers on this scale tend to be less diligent in applying themselves, and are more lackadaisical in working towards their goals.

People who score high on neuroticism are described as having a general tendency to experience negative affects such as fear, sadness, embarrassment, anger, guilt, and disgust (Costa et al., 1992). People who score low on neuroticism are thought of as emotionally stable. They are usually calm, even-tempered, and relaxed, and they are able to face stressful situations without becoming upset or rattled (Costa et al., 1992)

Each of the personality traits in the Big-Five are considered global dimensions which consist of six more specific facets of the domain. This study focused on the facet scores of neuroticism and conscientiousness for the following reasons. First, the facet scores provide a more “fine-grained” analysis of persons, illustrating meaningful individual differences within domains (Costa et al., 1992). Second, the detailed information available from consideration of facet scores is useful in interpreting constructs and formulating theories (Costa et al., 1992).

The conscientiousness domain consists of the following six facets as defined by Costa et al. (1992): competence, order, dutifulness, achievement striving, self-discipline, and deliberation. Competence refers to the sense that one is capable, sensible, prudent, and effective. Order distinguishes those people who are neat, tidy, and well-organized from those who are unable to get organized and are unmethodical. Dutifulness, denotes those who are governed by conscience. Achievement striving provides an indication of people's aspiration levels, and suggests the degree to which people work to attain their goals. Self-discipline pertains to the ability to begin tasks and carry them through to completion despite boredom and other distractions. Lastly, deliberation refers to the tendency to think carefully before acting.

Neuroticism has also been divided into six specific facets (Costa et al., 1992). They are: anxiety, anger hostility, depression, self-consciousness, impulsiveness, and vulnerability. Individuals who score high on anxiety are likely to be apprehensive, fearful, prone to worry, nervous, tense, and jittery. Angry hostility represents the tendency to experience anger and related states such as frustration and bitterness. The depression facet measures the tendency to experience depressive affect. The self-consciousness scale measures people's propensity to experience the emotions of shame and embarrassment. Impulsiveness refers to the inability to control cravings and urges. The final facet, vulnerability, refers to a person's susceptibility to stress.

This study also examined personality as a moderator of the relationship between perceptions of justice and employees' attitudes and behaviors towards the organization. Social cognitive psychologists (e.g., Mischel, 1973; Shoda &

Mischel, 1993) have posited a person-by-situation interaction theory of behavior. This theory holds that the psychological effect of a situation depends on how a person interprets the situation, and that these interpretations can vary as a function of individual differences. The research questions tested in this study are consistent with the person-by-situation interaction theory of behavior.

In summary, the conscientiousness and neuroticism personality traits were selected for inclusion in this study because prior research has shown a relationship between these two personality dimensions and various organizational outcomes. Moreover, this study focused on the specific facets of neuroticism (i.e., angry hostility) and conscientiousness (i.e., dutifulness, and self-discipline) to allow for finer grained analyses and more precise measurement. Additionally, this study investigated the interaction between specific facets of personality and perceptions of organizational justice on survivors' attitudes and behaviors towards the organization following downsizing. The following sections address the theoretical bases for the relationship between the aforementioned personality traits and survivors' attitudes and behaviors towards an organization. To begin, the next section presents a brief outline of the literature regarding the relationship between neuroticism and employees' cognitive evaluations of organizational justice.

Personality and Justice

Research on layoffs has focused on situational determinants (e.g., perceived justice) to predict survivors' responses to downsizing. Little research, however, exists on the role of personality. Staw, Bell, and Clausen (1986), in a longitudinal study of the relationship between personality and job attitudes,

commented on the general lack of serious consideration given personality variables as predictors of organizational attitudes.

Brockner (1988) proposed that individual differences moderate the effect of a layoff on both cognitive and behavioral responses of survivors. For example, individuals who scored lower on self-esteem have been found to react more strongly to perceived job insecurity through greater increases in productivity than individuals who scored higher on self-esteem (Brockner et al., 1992).

Research has found that personality measures account for significant variance in various organizational outcome variables. Neuroticism has been found to be strongly related to job attitudes, perceptions, and satisfaction. Eysenk and Morley (1994) found neuroticism to be associated with poor work structuring, a dislike of challenging work, negative beliefs about ability and performance, and negative attitudes and behavior relating to failure. Other studies suggest that neuroticism is related to lower levels of job satisfaction (Brief, Butcher, & Roberson, 1995; Kirkcaldy, Furnham, & Lynn, 1992).

Individuals who are high on neuroticism have been found to experience more distress than individuals low on neuroticism (George, 1992). Costa et al. (1980) suggested that neuroticism might influence levels of distress by increasing one's susceptibility or responsiveness to negative, emotion generating stimuli. For example, stressful circumstances at work which produce negative affect or distress in most individuals, will cause those high on neuroticism to react more negatively due to their heightened responsiveness to stimuli that induce negative emotions.

Personality literature addressing individual differences in perceptions of organizational justice is sparse. One study by Husemand, Hatfield, and Miles (1985) found that job satisfaction was influenced by individual differences of people's preferences for equity. If people vary on their tolerance for inequity, it is reasonable to assume that they might also vary on their tolerance for and reactions to perceived injustice.

The present study proposed to examine the relationship between neuroticism and perceptions of organizational justice. People who are high on neuroticism are predisposed to experience negative emotional moods, and are likely to focus on negative aspects of their environment. Kirkcaldy, Furnham, and Lynn (1992) summarized this point stating that :

“Negative affectivity was demonstrated to be related to reduced job satisfaction: non-neurotics seem able to deny or repress various frustrations, disappointments or problems, in contrast to the neurotically predisposed, who worry considerably, feel distressed and view the world more negatively” (p.50).

Given that people who score high on neuroticism tend to view their environment negatively, it was expected that survivors who score high on neuroticism view organizations as less fair than survivors who score lower on neuroticism. Specifically, the angry hostility facet of neuroticism which is related to an individual's tendency to experience anger, frustration, and bitterness is expected to be correlated with perceived organizational justice. This is because low scorers on angry hostility are inclined to be calm and relaxed. In the situation of organizational downsizing, those employees who score high on angry hostility are more likely to feel frustrated and become angry from external events than those who score low on this measure. Consequently, these employees are prone

to perceiving external events, processes, and interactions as less just relative to their low scoring counterparts. The following hypotheses refer specifically to survivors' perceptions and reacts following downsizing.

Hypothesis 1: The angry hostility facet of neuroticism is negatively related to interactional justice.

Organizational Commitment

Meyer and Allen (1997) proposed that organizational commitment can be viewed as three separate dimensions: affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Affective commitment refers to “the employee’s emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization” (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p.67). Employees with a strong sense of affective commitment remain with the organization because they want to do so. Continuance commitment refers to an “awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization”. Employees with high continuance commitment remain because they need to do so. Finally, normative commitment measures an employee's “feelings of obligation to continue employment”. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they ought to remain with the organization.

Although each of the three components of commitment are related to employees' intentions to quit, they each have different consequences for work-related behavior such as attendance, performance, and OCB (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Meyer and Allen (1997) proposed that because commitment is multidimensional and complex, researchers should identify which form of commitment is of primary interest, identify what behaviors they are interested in

predicting, and what constituency of the organization is most likely to be affected by this behavior in order to understand the nature of commitment more clearly. For example, employees with strong affective commitment will have a greater motivation or desire to contribute meaningfully to the organization. It is also likely that such an employee would choose to be absent from work less often and be motivated to perform better on the job. In contrast, employees who's primary link to the organization is based on strong continuance commitment stay with the company not for reasons of emotional attachment, but because of a recognition of the high costs associated with leaving.

This study focused on affective commitment for four reasons. First, research (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Tett & Meyer, 1993) has shown that correlations between commitment, intent to leave, and turnover are stronger for affective commitment as compared with other forms of organizational commitment. Neither absenteeism nor job performance have been shown to be significantly related to continuance commitment (Gellatly, 1995; Hackett, Bycio, & Hausdorf, 1994; Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993; Somers, 1995). Additionally, research findings on the relationship between normative commitment and absenteeism have been mixed (Hackett et al., 1994; Meyer et al., 1993; Somers, 1995).

Second, significant relations between affective commitment and citizenship behavior have been observed in studies in which both variables were measured using self-reports (Meyer & Allen, 1986; Meyer et al., 1993; Pearce, 1993) and independent assessments of behavior (Gregersen, 1993; Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ, 1993; Shore & Wayne, 1993). Third, Meyer and Allen (1997)

state that affective commitment is the most desirable form of commitment and the one that organizations are most likely to want to instill in their employees.

Fourth, research has found that organizational commitment is related to perceptions of organizational justice. Konovsky and Cropanzano (1991) found higher levels of affective commitment among employees who believed that the organization provided them with an adequate explanation for a new drug-testing policy (interactional justice).

Meyer and Allen (1997) posit that organizations that communicate support to their employees by treating them fairly enhance a sense of personal importance and competence by appearing to value their contributions to the organization. In turn, employees are likely to reciprocate by becoming committed to the organization.

Organizational Commitment and Downsizing

Meyer and Allen (1997) discussed the importance of organizational commitment, especially during downsizing. As organizations reduce the number of employees, they rely more than ever on those employees who remain to do what is needed for the organization to survive and be successful. Thus, they need to retain employees who are qualified and willing to take on the added tasks and responsibilities of those who have left. With a leaner workforce absenteeism and tardiness become serious problems, and turnover, particularly of top performers, can be devastating (Meyer & Allen, 1997). As was noted earlier, Davy et al. (1991) found that perceived justice of the layoff decision was positively related to commitment. Brockner, Tyler, and Cooper-Schneider (1992) investigated how employees' levels of commitment change during the

downsizing process. By measuring commitment prior to layoff and examining its effect, along with perceptions of the fairness of the layoff, on post-layoff commitment, they found that the greatest reduction in commitment and work effort following the downsizing was among those who were previously most committed but who thought that the layoff decisions were unfair.

As Cameron (1994) stated, the fact that downsizing often fails to meet its long-term objectives could be in large measure because of the adverse effects it has on the commitment of survivors. In summary, perceptions of organizational justice and affective commitment of survivors of downsizing can play an important role in shaping the success of a downsizing.

Neuroticism as a Moderator of Commitment and Intent to Quit

Research has also investigated whether personality predicts affective commitment. Meyer and Allen (1997) stated that the possibility that individual differences predispose employees to become affectively committed is intriguing and worthy of further investigation. Furthermore, they suggest that if personality variables are involved in the development of affective commitment, it is likely to be through their interaction with particular work experiences. Neuroticism has been shown to be negatively related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance; and positively related to turnover intentions (Cropanzano et al., 1993; George, 1989).

Brockner (1988) proposed that individual differences can influence outcomes at two specific points: a) in the link between layoffs and survivors' psychological states and b) in the relationship between psychological states and survivors' work behaviors and attitudes. Based on his model, it is expected that

survivors' personality moderates the relationship between survivors' perceptions of justice and their attitudes and behaviors toward the organization following downsizing.

Hockwarter, Amason, and Harrison (1995) suggested that people who score high on neuroticism have less of a detrimental reaction to perceived injustice than those who score low on neuroticism because they are habituated to higher levels of perceived unfairness and discontent. In contrast, people who score low on neuroticism tend to react adversely to inequity because they perceive injustice as divergent from their normal circumstances.

The angry hostility facet of neuroticism appears to be the most relevant to feelings of commitment. People who score high on angry hostility are likely to interpret events negatively, and consequently, feel angry and bitter. Employees who score low on angry hostility, on the other hand, are apt to be calm and relaxed in most situations. Weitz (1952) found that disposition affected reactions to one's environment. Specifically, negative stimuli affected people low on neuroticism more than those high on neuroticism since negativity represented a greater contrast from their usual lives. Conversely, individuals who are negatively predisposed are less sensitive to adverse situations, including a dissatisfying job environment. When low scorers are exposed to situations in which they perceive injustice, they can be greatly affected by states of anger, frustration, or bitterness, because it represents a larger departure from normality than for someone who is normally in a state of discontent. Similarly, employees low on angry hostility are expected to be highly committed to the organization when

organizational justice is high because they are likely to perceive their environment more positively than someone who is high on angry hostility.

Hypothesis 2: The angry hostility facet of neuroticism moderates the relationship between organizational justice and organizational commitment. There will be a stronger positive relationship between interactional justice and commitment when angry hostility is low than when angry hostility is high.

In this study it was also hypothesized that the angry hostility facet of neuroticism moderates the relationship between interactional justice and intent to quit. Davy et al. (1991) tested a model of survivor responses to layoffs in which they examined the survivors' perceptions of global process control, perceived justice of the layoff, and job security as predictors of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and behavioral intentions to withdraw. The sample consisted of employees from a high tech firm involved in research, development and manufacturing. They found that as the perceived justice of the layoff decision process declined, attitudes (i.e. job satisfaction, organizational commitment) toward the job and the organization also declined, resulting in increased behavioral intentions to withdraw. Moreover, results showed that single specific decisions were evaluated in the general context of past organizational decisions.

Davy et al's results, however, might have been affected by methodological limitations, and their findings should be interpreted with caution. Three of the variables: perceived justice of the layoff, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, were measured using single items. As multi-item measures are

more reliable, and given that reliability sets the upper limits for validity, multiple item measures would have been potentially more valid than the single-item measures.

Hockwarter et al. (1995) found that neuroticism moderates the relationship between inequity and intentions to turnover, such that those who scored low on neuroticism were more likely to indicate increased intentions to turnover when faced with inequity. It should be noted that the findings from the Hockwarter et al. (1995) study could be in part due to a restriction of range in the outcome variables of those participants who scored high on neuroticism. Because employees who score high on neuroticism tend to exhibit low levels of organizational commitment and a greater intent to quit, there is less variability in their scores, and consequently, the correlation between the variables can be attenuated. Because anger, frustration, and bitterness represent an unusual situation for employees low on anger hostility, they are likely to be more motivated to respond to negative stimuli with a desire to leave the organization. Conversely, employees who are usually discontent (no matter what the situation) are inclined to remain with the organization because they are habituated to feelings of dissatisfaction.

Hypothesis 3: The angry hostility facet of neuroticism moderates the negative relationship between interactional justice and intent to quit, such that there is a stronger relationship between organizational justice and intent to quit when angry hostility is low, than when angry hostility is high.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Organ (1988) identified five dimensions of OCB: altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue. Altruism is defined as any discretionary behavior that has the effect of helping a specific person with an organizationally relevant task or problem (e.g., helping a coworker to learn a new computer program). Conscientiousness refers to various instances in which organizational members carry out certain role behaviors which are well beyond the minimum required levels. This category of OCB would include regular attendance despite illness or extreme weather conditions. Sportsmanship is exhibited when employees avoid complaining, petty grievances, rallying against real or imagined slights, and making federal cases out of small issues. An employee is considered to exhibit sportsmanship if for example, he lost a private office due to office redesign, and accepted the change without complaint. Courtesy includes actions such as consulting with people whose work would be affected by one's decisions or commitments. Acts such as giving advance notice, reminders, passing along information, and briefing are all forms of courtesy. Civic virtue refers to responsible participation in the political life of an organization. This implies a sense of involvement in what policies are adopted and which candidates are supported. Examples of civic virtue include attending meetings, reading the intramural mail, discussing issues on personal time, voting, and "speaking up".

Organizational Justice and OCB

Research to date has focused on situational determinants of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), such as perceived justice (Davy,

Kinicki, & Scheck, 1991; Konovsky & Organ, 1996; Moorman, 1991; Organ & Lingl, 1995; Organ & Ryan, 1995). For example, Moorman (1991) found interactional justice was significantly related to all dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior. Thus employees who believe that they were treated fairly by their employers or supervisors appear to be more likely to exhibit citizenship behaviors than those who perceive that they were treated unfairly.

More recently, in a quasi-experiment and replication Skarlicki and Latham (1996; 1997) demonstrated a causal relationship between organizational justice and OCB. Union members whose leaders received skill training on applying organizational justice principles, demonstrated significantly greater citizenship behaviors toward their union than did those of the control group whose leaders had not received training.

A growing number of studies have investigated the relationship between personality and organizational citizenship behavior. Hogan et al. (1996) and Organ (1994) found conscientiousness to be associated with organizational citizenship. Konovsky & Organ (1996) and Organ and Lingl (1995) both found that conscientiousness predicted OCB. The highest correlations were found between conscientiousness and the conscientiousness dimension of OCB.

Organ (1988) hypothesized that employees will respond to perceived injustice by withdrawing one or more forms of OCB. Employees must carry out their assigned tasks and responsibilities, to do otherwise might jeopardize their employment. Employees might feel, however, that they have more control and latitude over volunteering for additional duties not required as part of their jobs. In these situations one would expect that factors such as personality and

organizational justice to be related to the performance of OCB (Organ, 1988). Konovsky and Organ (1996) found that conscientiousness accounted for variance in the compliance, altruism, and civic virtue dimensions of OCB incremental to perceptions of organizational justice and satisfaction with supervisor.

Although researchers have investigated the main effects of interactional justice and conscientiousness on OCB, the interaction of interactional justice and conscientiousness on OCB remains to be empirically tested. Therefore, this study investigated whether conscientiousness moderated the relationship between interactional justice and OCB following corporate downsizing. Conscientiousness was expected to moderate perceptions of justice on OCB such that people who score high on conscientiousness engage in more citizenship behaviors than people who score low on conscientiousness even when justice is perceived to be low. On the other hand, for people who score low on conscientiousness, it is expected that there will be a stronger correlation between justice and OCB than for people who score high on conscientiousness. People who score high in conscientiousness are characterized as high achievement striving and reliable. These people are internally driven to work hard in an attempt to achieve their goals. Given this predisposition, people who score high on conscientiousness are expected to be more inclined to engage in citizenship behavior despite their perceived level of organizational justice than people who score low on conscientiousness. In contrast, for people who score low on conscientiousness, OCB would be expected to be associated with situational antecedents such as perceived organizational justice. Thus, the

relationship between organizational justice and OCB was expected to be a function of personality. That is, the strength of the relationship is stronger for people low on conscientiousness than for people high on conscientiousness.

Specifically, the dutifulness facet of conscientiousness was expected to moderate the relationship between perceived justice and the altruism dimension of OCB. Dutifulness is defined as an adherence to moral obligations. Therefore, it is expected that employees who possess a high sense of dutifulness feel compelled to assist their fellow coworkers, regardless of the level of organizational justice. In contrast, employees who feel little sense of obligation are more likely to be affected by organizational justice. When these employees perceive that they are valued and well treated by the organization, they are likely to reciprocate their good fortune by helping others. When organizational justice is low, these employees might feel a significantly diminished sense of duty, and consequently, be less inclined to assist other employees.

Hypothesis 4a: The dutifulness facet of conscientiousness moderates the relationship between interactional justice and the altruism dimension of OCB. Specifically, there is a stronger positive relationship between interactional justice and altruism for people who score low on dutifulness than for people who score high on dutifulness.

The self-discipline facet of conscientiousness focuses on a person's ability to begin tasks and carry them through completion despite boredom and other distractions. People high on self-discipline have the ability to motivate themselves to get the job done without procrastinating, becoming discouraged, or becoming eager to quit. With regard to OCB, the conscientiousness

dimension refers to various instances in which organizational members carry out certain role behaviors which are well beyond the minimum required levels. Thus, people who are high on self-discipline will likely be motivated to “go above and beyond the call of duty”, to “put a little extra”, in their work, regardless of the level of perceived organizational justice. In contrast, employees who are low in self-discipline might not be motivated to do extra tasks for their employer especially when they perceive that they are unfairly treated.

Hypothesis 4b: The self-discipline facet of conscientiousness moderates the positive relationship between interactional justice and the conscientiousness dimension of OCB. Specifically, the relationship between interactional justice and conscientiousness will be stronger for people who score low on self-discipline than for people who score high on self-discipline.

Methods

Participants

Participants in this study consisted of 104 employees from five organizations that had downsized over the past two years. Eight participants were excluded due to incomplete information, resulting in a sample size of 93. The final sample consisted of employees from a large telecommunications company (n=11), provincial government (n=8), an oil and gas company (n=8), and the Canadian military (n=66). All respondents were white collar employees. A breakdown of the demographics is shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Participants Demographics

Organization	Surveys Returned	Surveys Used	Females	Males	Gender Not Reported
Telecommunications	12	11	7	4	0
Government	10	8	4	2	2
Oil and Gas	8	8	1	7	0
Military	74	66	30%	70%	
total	104	93			

Procedure

Permission to approach participants was secured from the appropriate management personnel for each location, and participants were canvassed to volunteer in the study. Participants were first administered a measure of interactional justice, affective commitment and intent to quit (see Appendix A). Participants were then requested to identify a coworker/peer to complete measures of angry hostility, dutifulness, self-discipline, and OCB on their behalf (see Appendix B). The participants were asked to nominate someone who they felt was qualified (i.e., was familiar and able to observe their behavior). The use of two independent sources (self and peer) was used to reduce common method variance. Research has demonstrated the validity of peer-report measures of both OCB (Skarlicki & Latham, 1995; 1996), and personality (Mount, Barrick, & Strauss, 1994).

Telecommunications Company. Participants were obtained by soliciting groups of employees who attended various workshops through the telecommunication company's employment resource center in March 1998. The

surveys were administered and collected by an employee from the resource center. Twelve participants were run in groups ranging in size from 2 to 8, whereupon they exchanged peer-reports with each other during the group sessions.

Government. The participants were from three separate provincial government departments. Each department was surveyed in a different of way. In the first department, a group session was conducted with three employees in June, 1998. These employees completed one another's peer-report surveys during the group session. A group session was also held in the second department in June, 1998. Four employees attended the group session. Rather than exchanging the peer-report forms with one another, these participants chose to keep the peer-reports and give them to a coworker whom they felt knew them better. These surveys were collected by an administrative assistant and then mailed to the researcher. For the third department, the surveys were administered by an employee from the Department of Human Resources. Six surveys were distributed to employees by the HR representative. Once completed, both the self-report and the peer-report surveys were mailed back to the researcher directly. A total of 3 surveys were returned from this department.

Oil and Gas Company. An email was sent out to all employees ($n = 1353$) by the Department of Human Resources briefly explaining the study and requesting volunteers to participate. If interested, employees were asked to respond by email and submit their names. This list of interested participants was then forwarded to the researcher who contacted those employees who had expressed interest directly. The researcher explained the process to each

participant individually by phone. Eight participants agreed to participate and were sent questionnaires to fill out. These participants were instructed to fill out their self-report form and to forward the peer-report questionnaire to a coworker of their choice. The questionnaires were distributed through the internal mail system, and then both the self-report and the peer-report surveys were mailed back to the researcher directly.

Military. Seventy-four participants were from the military. Data collection of the military employees occurred a number of ways. Seven group sessions were conducted with the number of participants ranging from 2 to 10. Most participants exchanged their peer-report surveys with one another during these sessions. Others kept their peer-reports to give to a coworker whom they felt knew them well. Surveys were also distributed to individuals who were unable to attend the group sessions, in which case, both the self-reports and the peer-reports were returned to the researcher directly.

Measures

Personality. Both the self-discipline and dutifulness facets from conscientiousness scale and the angry hostility facet from the neuroticism scale were assessed using the NEO PI-R (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Respondents were asked to indicate on a five-point Likert-type scale the degree to which they agreed that a statement defined the personality of the participant. The scale self-discipline facet consists of 7 items. Sample items for this sub-scale include questions such as "She or he is a productive person who always get the job done", and "When a project gets too difficult, he or she is inclined to start a new one" (reverse coded). The dutifulness sub-scale consisted of 8 items such as

“She or he tries to perform all the tasks assigned to him/her conscientiously”, and “She or he adheres strictly to her/his ethical principles”. The angry hostility sub-scale consists of 7 items. Sample items include “He or she often gets angry at the way people treat him/her”, and “He or she at times feels bitter and resentful”. Responses for all three sub-scales ranged from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree).

The Big-Five inventory has been shown to have both convergent and discriminant validity across instruments and observers and is well grounded in personality research and theory (McCrae & Costa, 1990). The five factor structure was derived from factor analytic techniques which revealed high correlations between factor scores and their intended dimensions, with each factor loading most highly on the intended factor. Alpha coefficients for the individual facet scales have been found to range from .60 to .90 in observer ratings (Costa et al., 1992); while the larger 48-item domain scales have shown correspondingly larger coefficient alphas ranging from .86 to .95 (Costa et al., 1992). Retest reliability of the NEO PI-R has been found to range from .66 to .92 (McCrae & Costa; 1983). Construct validity has also been shown through correlations between both the domain and the facet scores for the NEO PI-R and other personality tests such as the California Q-Set (Block, 1961), the Hogan Personality Inventory (Hogan, 1986), and the Eysenck Personality Inventory (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1964) (McCrae, Costa, & Busch, 1986).

The present study measured personality through peer-reports for the following five reasons. First, peer reports reduce the potential effects of social desirability. Second, peer reports provide an independent source of data from

self-reports, thus reducing the potential negative effects associated with common method variance. Third, Mount et al. (1994) assert that validities of personality measures based on self-assessments alone can underestimate the true validity of personality constructs, and research has shown that peer-evaluations are valid predictors of future performance and promotion, accounting for significant variance in the criterion measure beyond self-reports alone (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Mount, et al., 1994). Fourth, Mount, et al. (1994) found the validity of observer ratings (i.e., coworkers) of personality variables such as conscientiousness and extroversion were valid predictors of performance ratings.

Interactional Justice. Interactional justice was measured on a Likert-type scale based on previous research (Moorman, 1991). Questions focused on the employees' perceptions of how the downsizing was communicated to them together with how the procedures were carried out. Questions also focused on the interpersonal behavior of the supervisor. Examples of items include "My supervisor provided an adequate explanation of how decisions were made" and "my supervisor treats me with respect and consideration". The interactional justice scale has shown previous internal reliabilities of over 0.90 (Moorman, 1991).

Organizational Citizenship Behavior. The altruism and conscientiousness sub-scales of OCB were measured using an instrument developed by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) that captures the five dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior. The altruism sub-scale consists of 6 items. Examples of items include: "Helps others who have been absent" and "Is mindful of how his/her behavior affects other people's jobs". The conscientiousness sub-

scale consists of 9 items such as “He or she does not take unnecessary time off work”, and “She or he is one of the most conscientious workers”. Responses on these sub-scales are on a seven-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 7 (strongly disagree). Internal consistency reliabilities have been reported to range from 0.70 to 0.85 (Moorman, 1991; Podsakoff et al., 1990).

Affective Commitment. Commitment was measured through self-reports using seven of the eight-item Affective Commitment Scale (Meyer & Allen, 1997). One of the original items was deleted due to the high correlation with an item from the “intent to stay” scale (i.e., “I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization”) (Morrow, 1993; Williams & Hazer, 1986). Sample items include statements such as “I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside of it” and “This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me”. The items are on a 7-point scale with anchors labeled 1 (strongly disagree) and 7 (strongly agree). A median alpha coefficient of .85 has been reported for this scale summing across studies (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Intent to Stay. To assess turnover intentions, participants completed a self-report seven-item scale designed to measure their intention to remain with the organization. This scale is composed of four items from Mueller, Wallace, and Price (1992), and three from McCloskey and McCain (1987, cited in Mueller et al., 1992) intent to stay scales. Items include “Do you intend to leave this organization voluntarily in the near future?” and “I will most certainly look for a new job in the near future”. The items responses use a Likert-type, five-point scale anchored by 1 (very unlikely) to 5 (very likely). Rever-Moriyama (1996) reported an internal reliability estimate of 0.84.

Results

Following procedures recommended by the test manual (Costa & McCrae, 1991), missing data for any of the personality items from the NEO PI-R were replaced with a value of 3, indicating a neutral response. For the remaining data, any missing values were replaced with the grand mean for the entire sample. Examination of missing values indicated that they were random, with no more than 3 participants not answering any particular item.

Principle component analyses and alpha coefficients were conducted on all of the measures. A principle component analysis of interactional justice revealed two factors. Examination of the scree plot, however, suggested that the data were best represented by one factor. The one factor solution accounted for 59% of the variance, and all items loaded above .60 (see Table 2). An alpha coefficient of .95 was obtained for the 16-item measure.

Table 2

Principle Components Loadings for the Interactional Justice Sub-scale

Item	Loading
1. My supervisor behaved in an ethical manner.	.78
2. My supervisor considered my viewpoint.	.65
3. My supervisor suppressed his or her personal biases.	.70
4. My supervisor applied the decision-making criteria consistently to me, and other employees.	.76
5. My supervisor provided me with timely information.	.71
6. My supervisor offered adequate justification for the decisions made.	.75
7. My supervisor followed the procedures for fair decisions properly.	.75
8. My supervisor treated me with kindness and consideration.	.80
9. My supervisor brought things into the open without hiding them.	.83
10. My supervisor was sensitive to my personal needs.	.75
11. My supervisor showed concern for my rights as an employee.	.80
12. My supervisor took steps to deal with me in a truthful manner.	.84
13. My supervisor was open and forthright.	.89
14. My supervisor treated me with respect and dignity.	.82
15. My supervisor was not rude to me.	.64
16. My supervisor provided fair interpersonal treatment.	.82

A principle components analysis of the 8-item angry hostility measure produced one factor with an eigenvalue of 3.25 and a second factor with an eigenvalue of 1.13. A visual inspection of the scree plot indicated that a one-factor solution best represented the measure, accounting for 40.6% of the

variance. One item, "He or she is not considered a touchy or temperamental person", was not retained because it did not load on the factor. An alpha of .79 was found for the revised 7-item measure, and all the remaining items loaded on the single factor above .64 (see Table 3).

Table 3

Principle Component Loadings for the Angry Hostility Sub-scale

Item	Loadings
1. He or she often gets angry at the way people treat him/her.	.74
2. He or she is an even tempered person. (R)	.64
3. He or she is known as hot-blooded and quick tempered.	.73
4. He or she often gets disgusted with people he/she has to deal with.	.68
5. It takes him or her a lot to get mad. (R)	.75
6. He or she at times feels bitter and resentful.	.52
7. Even minor annoyances can be frustrating to him or her.	.66

Note. (R) - Reverse coded item

Principle component analysis conducted on the 7-item organizational commitment scale showed that all the items loaded above .40 on a single factor, with an eigenvalue of 3.5. The factor accounted for 50.3% of the variance and the Cronbach's Alpha was .83. The Cronbach's Alpha for the intent to stay scale was .84, with all the items loading on a single component above .60. Both the eigenvalue (3.7) and visual inspection of the scree plot confirm a single factor solution that accounted for 53.1% of the variance. The component loadings for both scales are presented in Tables 4 and 5.

Table 4

Principle Component Loadings for the Commitment Scale

Item	Loading
1. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside of it.	.67
2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	.75
3. I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one. (R)	.49
4. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (R)	.71
5. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. (R)	.77
6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	.79
7. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization. (R)	.74

Note. (R) - Reverse coded item

Table 5

Principle Component Loadings for the Intent to Stay Scale

Item	Loading
1. How would you rate your chances of still working for this organization a year from now?	.65
2. Do you intend to leave this organization voluntarily in the near future?	.71
3. What are your plans for staying with this organization?	.79
4. I plan to work at my present job for as long as possible. (R)	.75
5. I would really hate to quit this job.	.67
6. I will most certainly look for a new job in the near future. (R)	.77
7. I plan to keep this job for at least two or three years.	.75

Note. (R) - Reverse coded item

Principle components analyses were also conducted on the altruism and the conscientiousness dimensions of the OCB scale. The 6-item altruism sub-scale was found to have one factor with an eigenvalue of 3.22, that accounted for 53.8% of the variance. All of the items loaded on the factor above .40.

The 9-item conscientiousness sub-scale produced two factors with eigenvalues of 4.32 and 1.17. Due to the difference in magnitude of the two values and visual inspection of the scree plot indicating a visible break after the first factor, a more conservative eigenvalue of 2 was used and only the first factor was interpreted. The factor accounted for 48.0% of the variance, and all the items loaded onto it above .50. The component loadings for the altruism and conscientiousness sub-scales are presented in Tables 6 and 7, respectively.

The internal consistency of the altruism and conscientiousness sub-scales were .81 and .86, respectively.

Table 6

Principle Component Loadings for Altruism Sub-scale

Item	Loading
1. Helps others who have heavy work loads.	.80
2. Helps others who have been absent.	.76
3. Does not abuse the rights of others.	.43
4. Willingly gives of his/her time to help others who have work related problems.	.89
5. Is mindful of how his/her behavior affects other people's jobs.	.67
6. Helps orient new people even though it is not required.	.76

Table 7

Principle Component Loadings for the Conscientiousness Sub-Scale

Item	Loading
1. Is always punctual.	.68
2. Does not take unnecessary time off work.	.65
3. Believes in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay.	.78
4. Takes pride in the organization and works to improve it.	.50
5. Attendance at work above the norm.	.77
6. Never takes long lunch breaks.	.72
7. Does not take extra breaks.	.83
8. Neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform. (R)	.54
9. Is one of the most conscientious workers.	.69

Note. (R) - Reverse coded item

The dutifulness and the self-discipline sub-scales from the conscientiousness facet of the NEO PI-R were factor analyzed. Principle components analysis of the dutifulness sub-scale extracted two factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 (3.14 and 1.05, respectively). The scree plot suggested that one factor best represented the measure. A single factor solution accounted for 39.3% of the variance, and all the items loaded onto it above .40. The Cronbach's Alpha of the scale was .75.

A principle components analysis of the self-discipline sub-scale indicated a single factor solution with an eigenvalue of 3.86 that accounted for 48.3% of the variance in the measure. While all of the items loaded on the self-discipline facet above .40, one item was found to have a negative loading. Furthermore, a reliability analysis revealed that the internal consistency of the sub-scale would be improved from .71 to .83 by dropping the item from the scale. Thus the item, "Once he or she starts a project, he/she almost always finishes it", was deleted. The component loadings for these two sub-scales are presented in Tables 8 and 9, respectively.

Table 8

Principle Component Loadings for the Dutifulness Sub-Scale

Item	Loading
1. She or he tries to perform all the tasks assigned to him/her conscientiously.	.69
2. Sometimes he or she is not as dependable or reliable as he/she should be. (R)	.73
3. She or he pays her/his debts promptly and in full.	.41
4. Sometimes she or he cheats when he/she plays solitaire.	.43
5. When he or she makes a commitment, he/she can always be counted on to follow through.	.60
6. She or he adheres strictly to her/his ethical principles.	.76
7. She or he tries to do a job carefully, so that they won't have to be done again.	.76
8. She or he would really have to be sick before she/he would miss a day of work.	.51

Table 9

Principle Component Loadings for the Self-Discipline Sub-Scale

Item	Loading
1. He or she is pretty good at pacing himself/herself so as to get things done on time.	.60
2. He or she wastes a lot of time before settling down to work. (R)	.55
3. She or he is a productive person who always gets the job done.	.82
4. She or he has trouble making herself/himself do what she/he should. (R)	.76
5. When a project gets too difficult, he or she is inclined to start a new one. (R)	.69
6. There are so many little jobs that need to be done that he or she sometimes just ignores them all. (R)	.73
7. He or she has a lot of self-discipline.	.75

Note. (R) - Reverse coded item

Doshen (1995) suggested that military organizations might differ from "corporate Canada" due to differences in the nature of the jobs. These differences could alter the relationships among the variables being studied,

which could call into question any generalizations between the two groups. To investigate this possibility, t-tests were conducted to determine if there were any significant differences between the military and non-military samples on all the predictor and criterion variables. Locations 1, 2, 3, and 4 were collapsed into a non-military group ($n = 28$) and compared with the military participants ($n = 66$). Based on an alpha level of .05 no significant differences on any of the variables were observed. Given that no significant differences were found between military and non-military participants, the data were combined and the hypotheses were tested on all 93 participants. Results of the t-tests are presented in Table 10.

Table 10

T-tests between Military and Non-Military Samples

Variable	Mean	Mean Diff.	df	T-value	Prob.
Angry Hostility	14.21	-.45	91	-.488	.627
(Non-Military)	14.66				
(Military)	14.66				
Interactional Justice	56.57	-.024	91	-.081	.935
	56.81				
Dutifulness	31.79	-.15	91	-.189	.850
	31.94				
Self-Discipline	27.54	2.59	91	-.655	.514
	28.02				
Commitment	29.25	-2.07	91	-1.063	.291
	31.32				
Intent to stay	30.36	-.12	91	-.062	.951
	30.47				
Altruism	16.68	.33	91	.481	.632
	16.35				
Conscientiousness - OCB	50.78	.62	91	.350	.727
	50.16				

The correlations, means, and standard deviations for the variables are presented in Table 11.

Table 11

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	8	9
1. Angry Hostility	14.5	4.0	---							
2. Interactional Justice	56.7	13.0	-.17	---						
3. Dutifulness	31.9	3.6	-.13	.02	---					
4. Self-discipline	27.9	3.2	-.06	.04	.73**	---				
5. Commitment	30.7	8.6	-.23*	.24*	-.11	-.08	---			
6. Intent to stay	30.4	8.2	-.14	.32**	-.11	-.13	.53**	---		
8. Altruism	33.1	5.0	-.17	.08	.41**	.36**	-.01	-.07	---	
9. Conscientiousness - OCB	50.4	7.8	-.09	.03	.62**	.62**	-.04	-.10	.62**	---

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Hypothesis 1 stated that the angry hostility facet of neuroticism is negatively related to interactional justice. As shown in Table 11, the correlation between angry hostility and interactional justice was not significant ($r = -.17$, $p > .05$), thus Hypothesis 1 was not supported.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that the angry hostility facet of neuroticism moderates the relationship between organizational justice and organizational commitment. Hierarchical regression was used to test all moderator hypotheses. Interactional justice and angry hostility were both entered on the first step of the regression, and the interaction of the two predictor variables was entered on the second step, with commitment as the criterion variable. As shown in Table 12, the interaction term was found to be significant.

Table 12

Hierarchical Regression of Variables Predicting Organizational Commitment

Variable	B	SE B	β	ΔR^2
Step 1: Main Effects				
Justice	.14	.07	.21*	.10**
Angry Hostility	-.42	.22	-.19	
Step 2: Two-way				
Interaction of justice and angry hostility	-.04	.02	-.24*	.06*

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

The interaction was probed following procedures recommended by Aiken and West (1991). To control for inflated Type I error, a Bonferroni type adjustment was made and all follow-up tests were assessed at an alpha level of .025. However, one-tailed tests were utilized to test the directional hypotheses. Results showed a significant positive relationship between interactional justice and commitment for people who are low on angry hostility, $\beta = .48$, $t = 3.24$, $p = .002$. In contrast, the relationship between interactional justice and commitment was not significant for people who scored high on angry hostility, $\beta = -.05$, $t = -.37$, $p = .72$. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was supported. A graphical representation of the interaction is presented in Figure 1.

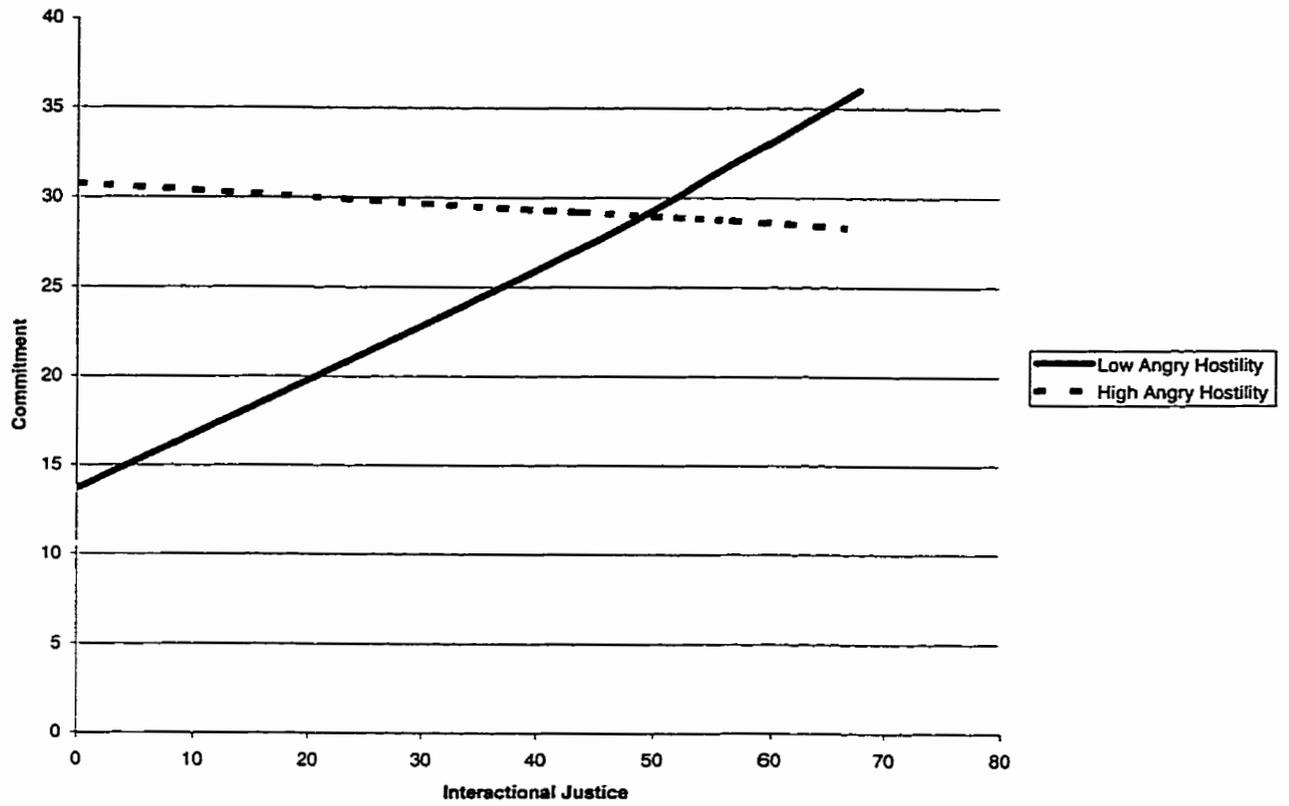


Figure 1. Graph of interactional justice with commitment by angry hostility

Hypothesis 3 posited that the angry hostility facet of neuroticism moderates the relationship between interactional justice and intent to quit. As shown in Table 13, the interaction between angry hostility and interactional justice was significant. Follow-up analysis of the significant interaction between angry hostility and interactional justice showed that there was a significant positive relationship between interactional justice and intent to stay for people who were low on angry hostility, $\beta = .59$, $t = 3.98$, $p < .001$. In contrast, for people who scored high on angry hostility the relationship between interactional justice and intent to stay was not significant, $\beta = .03$, $t = .22$, $p = .83$. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was supported. Graphical representation of the significant interaction is presented in Figure 2.

Table 13

Hierarchical Regression of Variables Predicting Intent to Stay

Variable	B	SE B	β	ΔR^2
Step 1: Main Effects				
Justice	.19	.06	.31**	.11**
Angry Hostility	-.17	.21	-.09	
Step 2: Two-way				
Interaction of justice and angry hostility	-.04	.02	-.25**	.06**

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

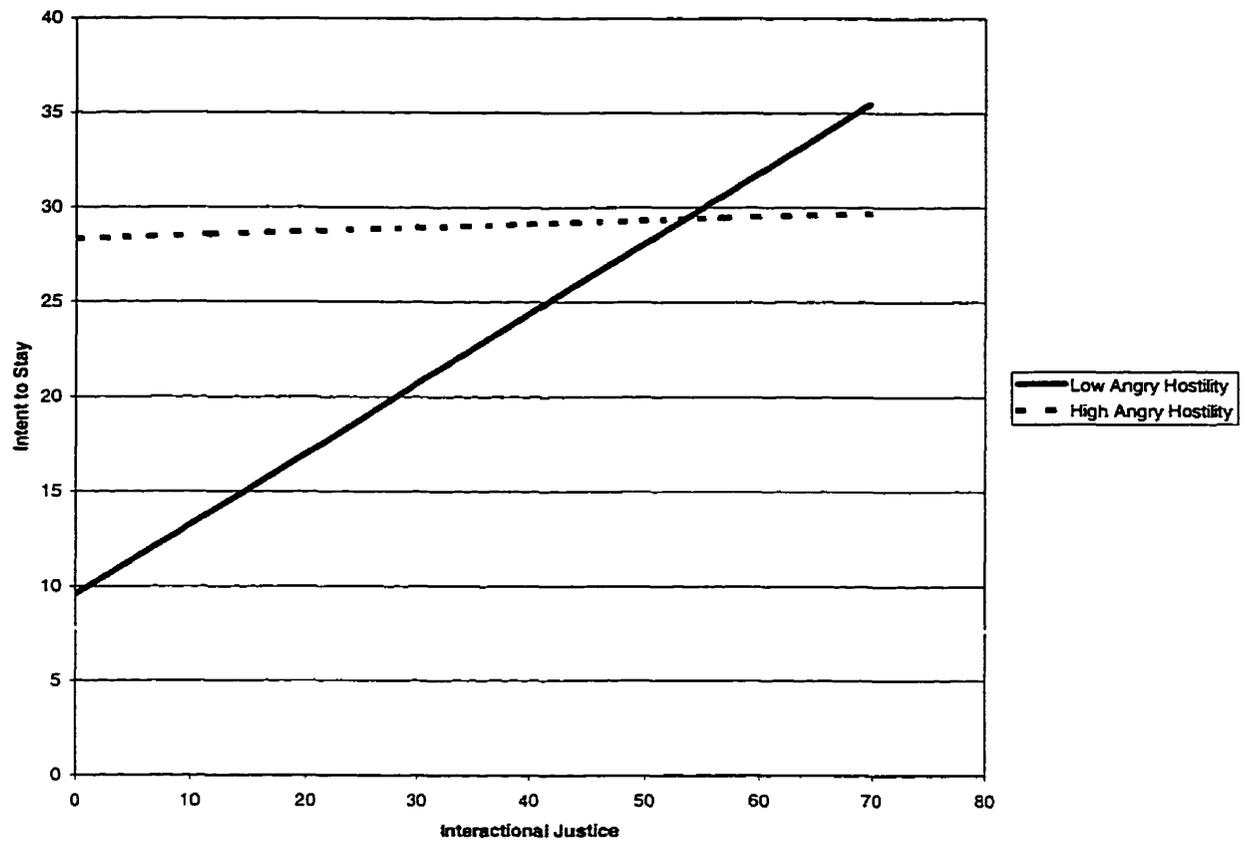


Figure 2. Graph of interactional justice with intent to stay by angry hostility.

Hypothesis 4a stated that the dutifulness facet of conscientiousness moderates the relationship between interactional justice and the altruism dimension of OCB. As shown in Table 14, the interaction between dutifulness and interactional justice on altruism was not significant. Thus, Hypothesis 4a was not supported.

Table 14

Hierarchical Regression of Variables Predicting Altruism

Variable	B	SE B	β	ΔR^2
Step 1: Main Effects				
Justice	.03	.04	.07	.18**
Dutifulness	.58	.13	.41**	
Step 2: Two-way				
Interaction of justice and dutifulness	-.02	.01	-.12	.02

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Hypothesis 4b posited that the self-discipline facet of conscientiousness moderates the relationship between interactional justice and the conscientiousness dimension of OCB. Hierarchical regression analysis revealed that the interaction term between self-discipline and interactional justice predicting conscientiousness was significant ($\beta = -.21$, $t = -2.56$, $p = .01$). Results are presented in Table 15.

Follow-up analysis of the significant interaction between self-discipline and interactional justice on conscientiousness revealed that interactional justice was negatively related to conscientiousness for those who scored high on self-discipline ($\beta = -.36$, $t = -2.22$, $p = .03$). For those participants who scored low on

self-discipline, there was a significant positive relationship between interactional justice and conscientiousness ($\beta = .27$, $t = 2.05$, $p = .04$). Graphical representation of the significant interaction is presented in Figure 3. Thus, Hypothesis 4b was partially supported.

Table 15

Hierarchical Regression of Variables Predicting Conscientiousness

Variable	B	SE B	β	ΔR^2
Step 1: Main Effects				
Justice	.001	.05	.002	.39**
Self-discipline	1.5	.20	.62**	
Step 2: Two-way				
Interaction of justice and self-discipline	-.06	.02	-.21**	.04**

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

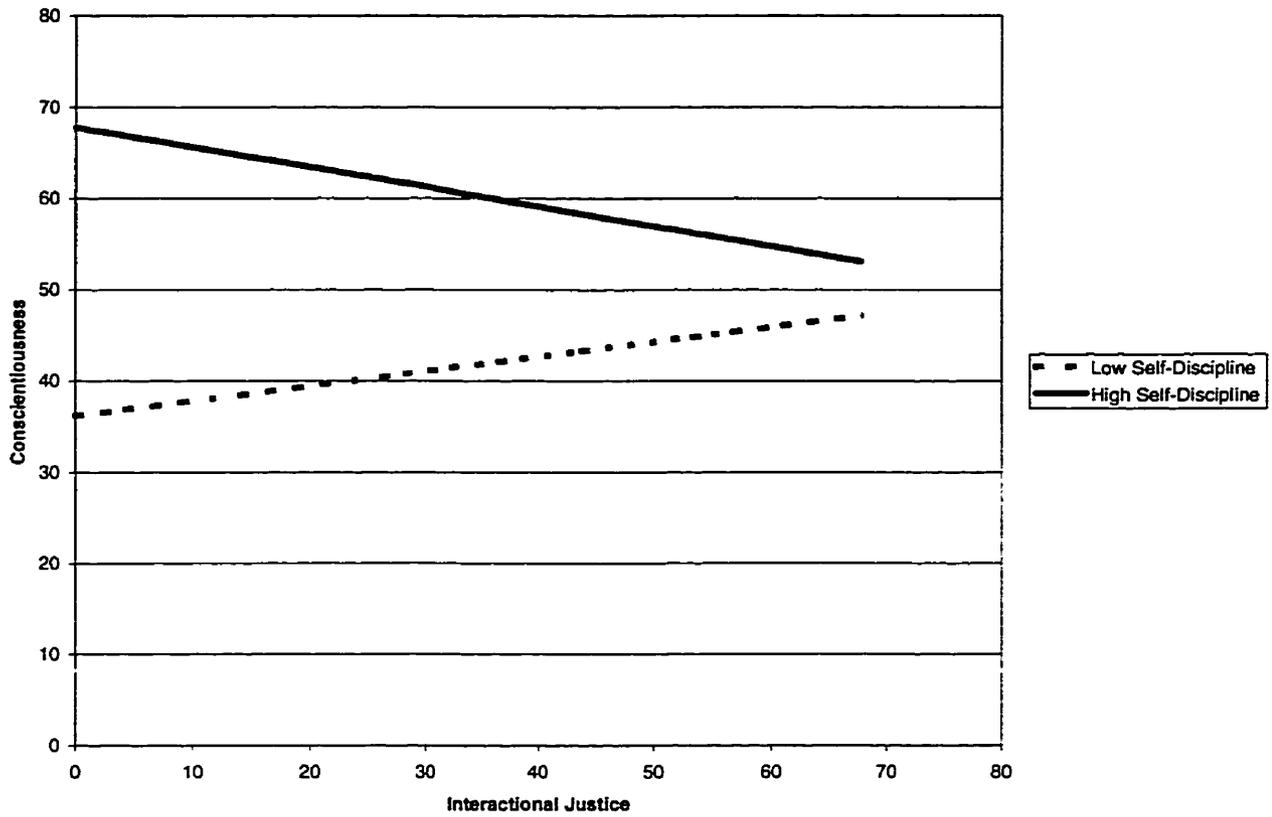


Figure 3. Graph of interactional justice with conscientiousness by self-discipline.

Between-Sample Comparisons

Additional regression analyses were conducted to determine if the form of the interaction was different between military and non-military participants for the significant interactions observed. The first analysis examined whether interactional justice and angry hostility interact to predict commitment. For the military sample a significant interaction was found between interactional justice and angry hostility on commitment. Results are presented in Table 16.

Table 16

Hierarchical Regression of Variables Predicting Organizational Commitment for Military Employees.

Variable	B	SE B	β	ΔR^2
Step 1: Main Effects				
Justice	.13	.09	.17	.27
Angry Hostility	-.46	.28	-.21	
Step 2: Two-way				
Interaction of justice and angry hostility	-.06	.02	-1.9**	.14**

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

For the remaining non-military employees the interaction between interactional justice and angry hostility was not significant, however this may be due to a decrease in power because of the small sample size ($n = 28$). Results are presented in Table 17, and graphs for both military and non-military samples are presented in Figures 4 and 5, respectively. Both graphs suggest a stronger relationship between interactional justice and commitment for employees who scored low on angry hostility than for employees who scored high on angry

hostility, indicating that the form of the interaction is consistent across the samples.

Table 17

Hierarchical Regression of Variables Predicting Organizational Commitment for Non-Military Employees.

Variable	B	SE B	β	ΔR^2
Step 1: Main Effects				
Justice	.17	.09	.37	.22*
Angry Hostility	-.28	.35	-.16	
Step 2: Two-way				
Interaction of justice and angry hostility	-.10	.01	-.265	.07*

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

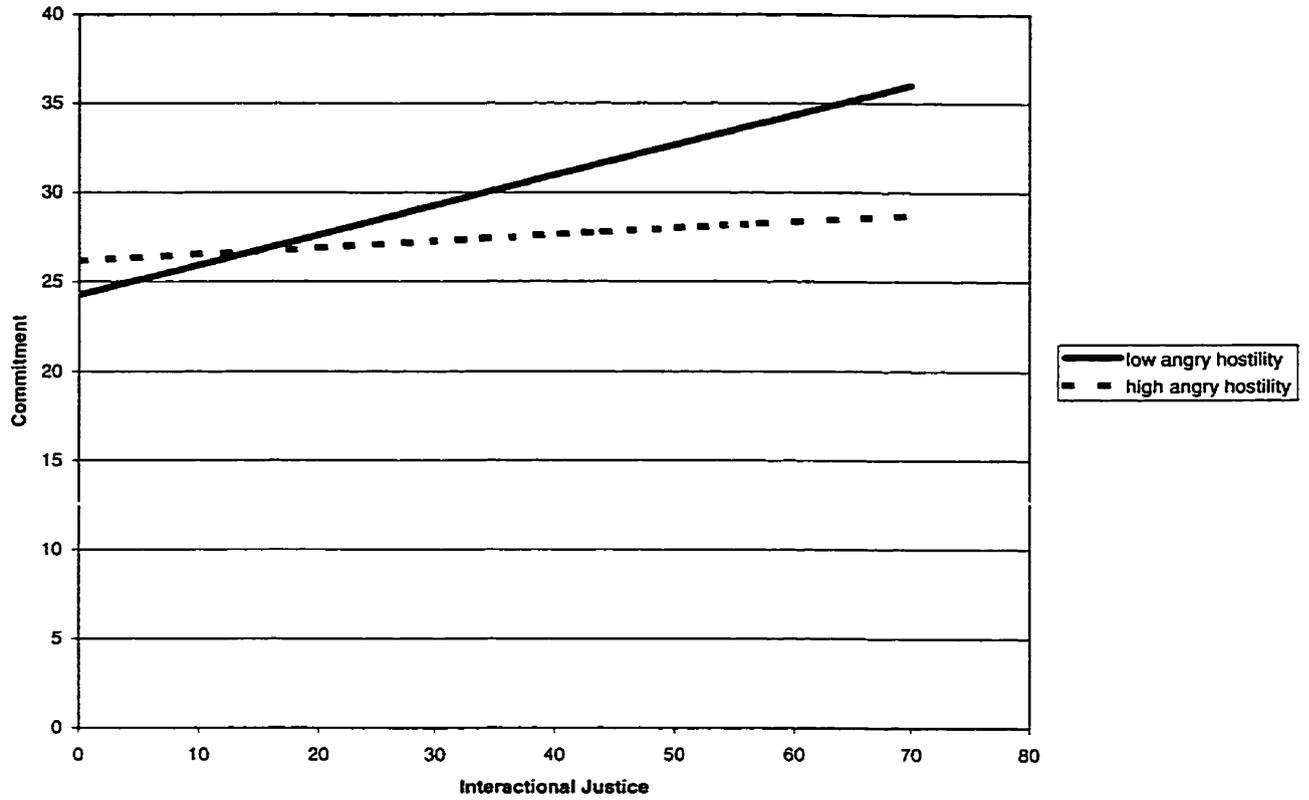


Figure 4: Graph of interactional justice with commitment by angry hostility for military employees only.

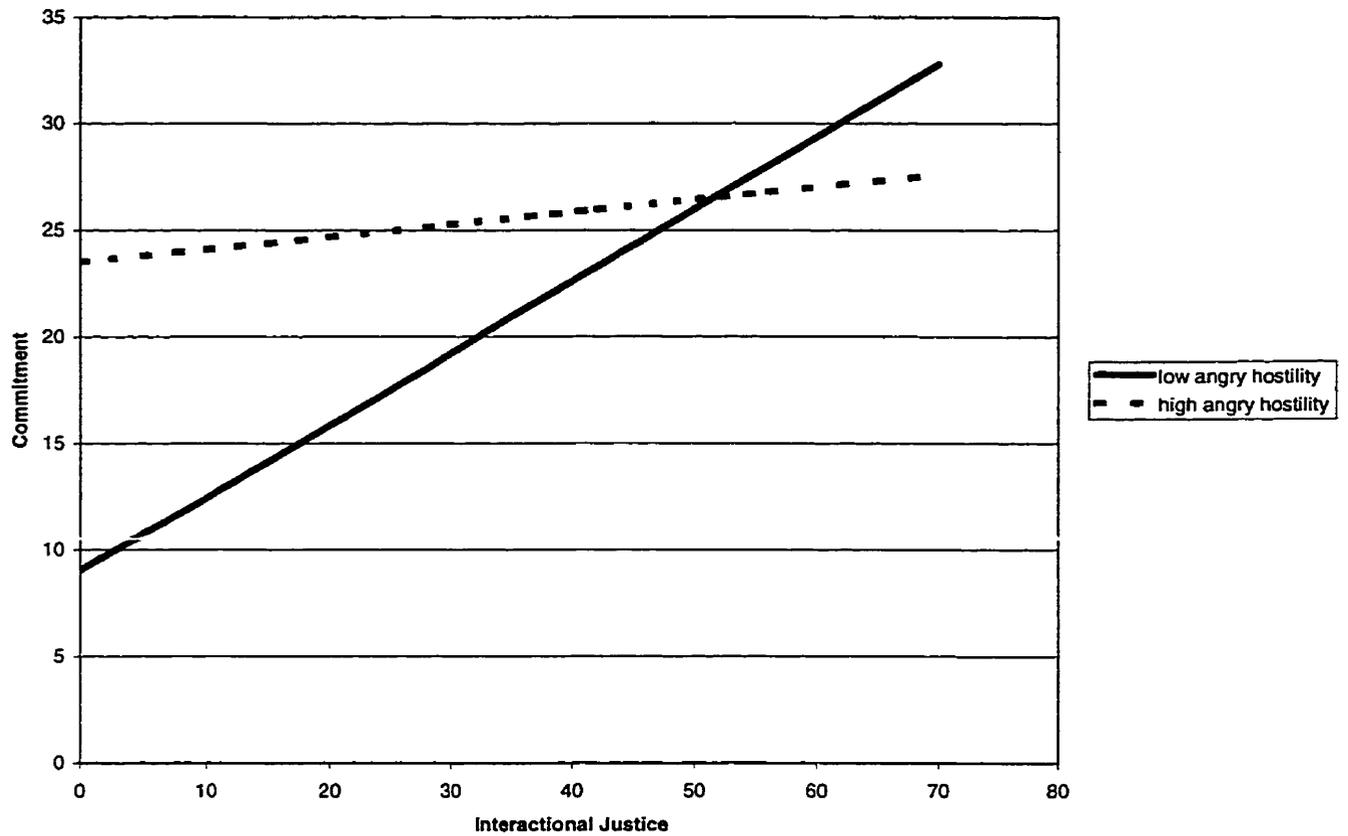


Figure 5: Graph of interactional justice with commitment by angry hostility for non-military employees only.

Second, I examined whether interactional justice and angry hostility interact to predict intent to stay for both sub-samples. Separate regression analyses conducted on the military and non-military employees to determine if there were any differences in the form of the interaction between the two groups. Significant interactions were found between interactional justice and angry hostility on intent to stay for both samples. Results are presented in tables 18 and 19. Graphical representation of the interactions for both military and non-military survivors suggest a stronger relationship between interactional justice and intent to stay for employees who scored low on angry hostility than for those who scored high on angry hostility for both samples. The graphs are presented in Figures 6 and 7.

Table 18

Hierarchical Regression of Variables Predicting Intent to Stay for Military Employees

Variable	B	SE B	β	ΔR^2
Step 1: Main Effects				
Justice	.29	.08	.41*	.19**
Angry Hostility	-.26	.24	-.13	
Step 2: Two-way				
Interaction of justice and angry hostility	-.05	.02	-1.55*	.06**

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 19

Hierarchical Regression of Variables Predicting Intent to Stay for Non-Military
Employees

Variable	B	SE B	β	ΔR^2
Step 1: Main Effects				
Justice	.02	.11	.04	.02
Angry Hostility	-.24	.43	-.13	
Step 2: Two-way				
Interaction of justice and angry hostility	-.02	.01	-.40*	.16

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

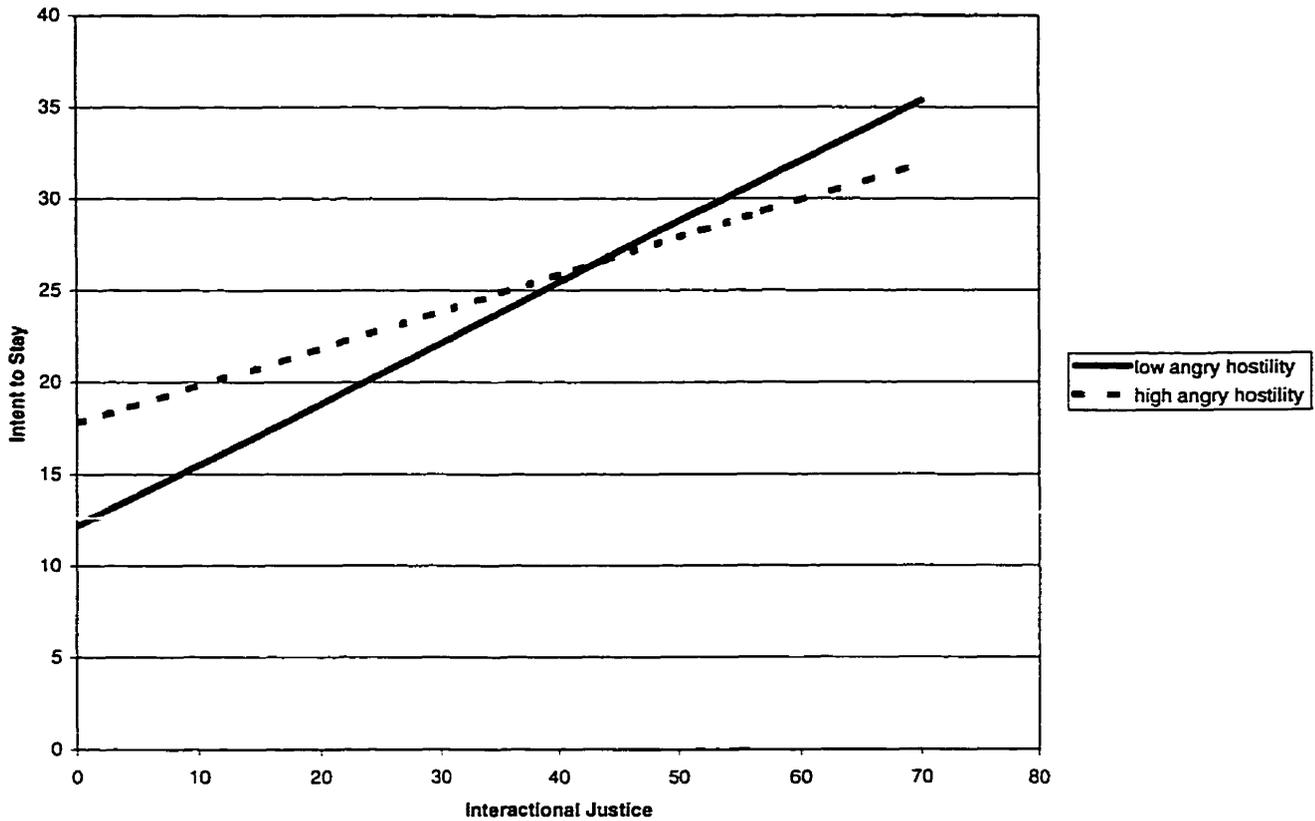


Figure 6. Graph of interactional justice with intent to stay by angry hostility for military employees only.

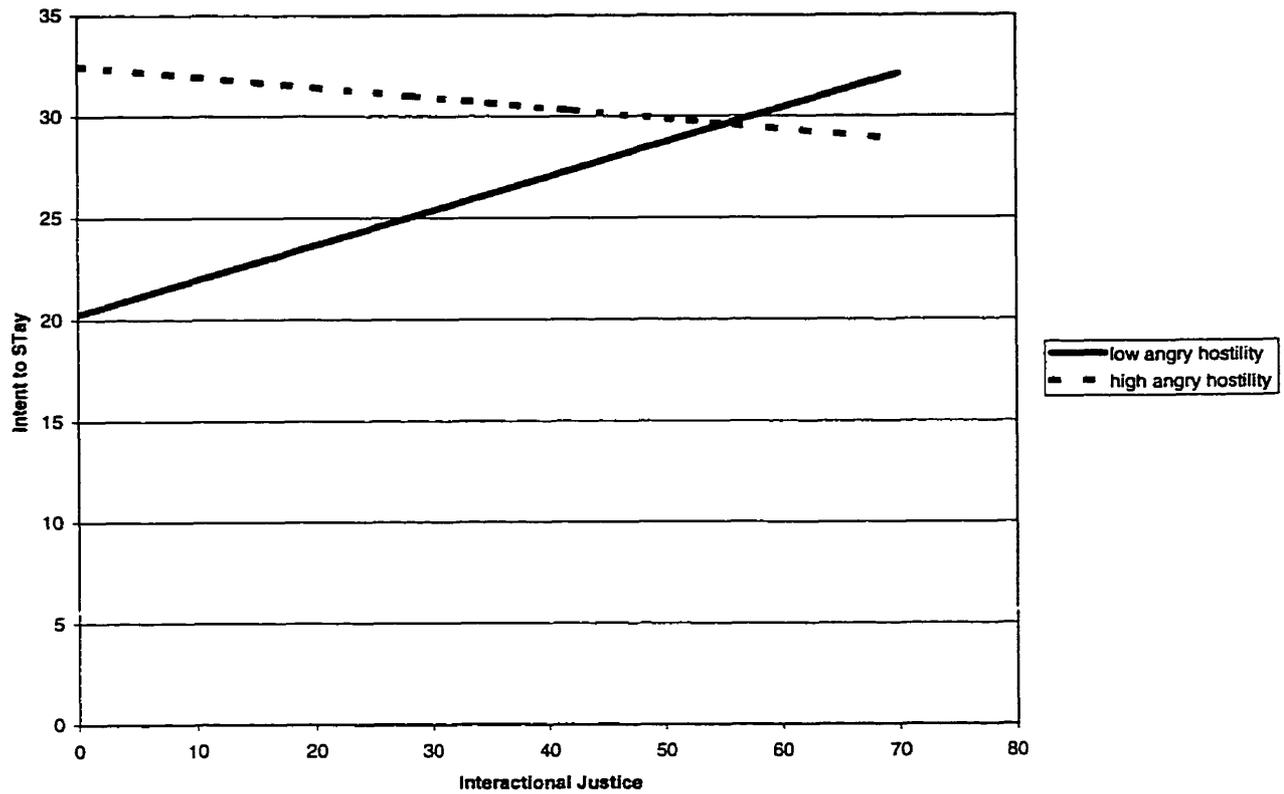


Figure 7. Graph of interactional justice with intent to stay by angry hostility for non-military employees only.

Third, I examined whether interactional justice and self-discipline predict conscientiousness. When separate regression analyses were performed on the military and non-military samples, a significant interaction was found between interactional justice and self-discipline on conscientiousness for the military sample, but not for the non-military sample. Once again, this was likely due to low sample size in the non-military sample. The results are presented in Tables 20 and 21. Thus, the interactions for both groups were graphed separately, and are presented in Figures 8 and 9. The form of the interaction appears similar in both graphs. In summary, these results suggest that the nature of the interaction was similar for military and non-military participants.

Table 20

Hierarchical Regression of Variables Predicting Conscientiousness for the Military Sample

Variable	B	SE B	β	ΔR^2
Step 1: Main Effects				
Justice	.09	.06	.13	.48**
Self-Discipline	1.64	.22	.67**	
Step 2: Two-way				
Interaction of justice and self-discipline	-.06	.03	-2.97*	.05**

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 21

Hierarchical Regression of Variables Predicting Conscientiousness for Non-Military Sample

Variable	B	SE B	β	ΔR^2
Step 1: Main Effects				
Justice	-.14	.08	-.29	.31**
Self-discipline	1.16	.40	.49**	
Step 2: Two-way				
Interaction of justice and self-discipline	-.06	.05	-1.55*	.04*

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

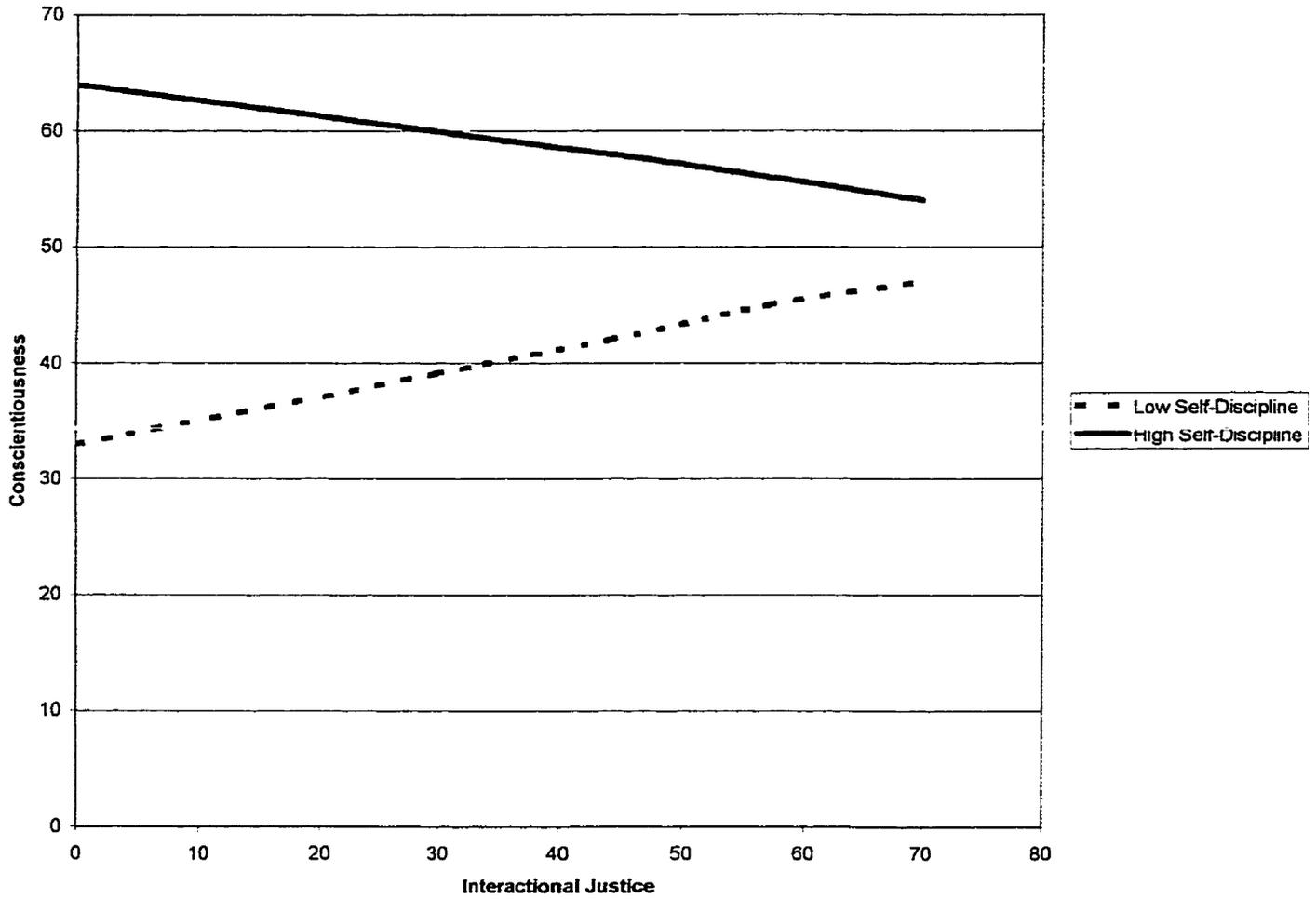


Figure 8. Graph of interactional justice with conscientiousness by self-discipline for military employees only.

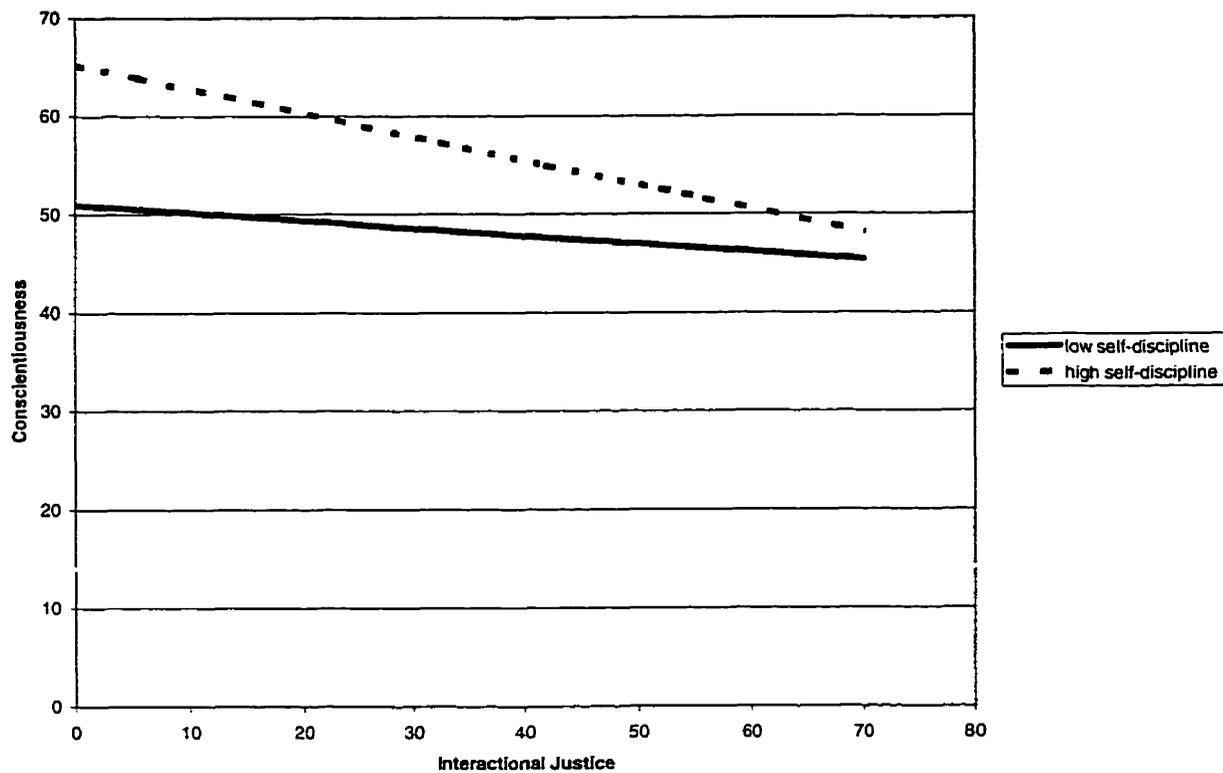


Figure 9. Graph of interactional justice with conscientiousness by self-discipline for non-military employees only.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of layoffs on survivors of downsizing. Although researchers have examined situational determinants of survivors' responses to layoffs, to date, there are few studies addressing whether personality is related to survivors' reactions to downsizing. This research investigated whether personality is related to perceived organizational justice, and whether personality moderates the relationship between interactional justice and survivors subsequent attitudes and behaviors towards the organization following downsizing. Specifically, I assessed survivors' organizational commitment, intent to stay with the organization, and their organizational citizenship behaviors.

There were three significant findings in this study. First, angry hostility was found to moderate the relationship between interactional justice and employees' commitment to the organization. Specifically, the relationship between interactional justice and organizational commitment was significant only when angry hostility was low. For these employees, perceptions of justice were positively related to their level of commitment to the organization. In contrast, for employees who scored high on angry hostility, no significant relationship was found between interactional justice and commitment; their level of commitment was independent of their perceived levels of interactional justice.

Interestingly, if those survivors who are low on angry hostility perceived unfair treatment, their commitment appears to drop to levels below those survivors who are high on angry hostility. However, employees who score low on angry hostility, yet perceive high levels of interactional justice, are likely to report

being highly committed to the organization. Thus, organizational commitment can be expected to be lowest when both angry hostility and interactional justice are low. Moreover, when interactional justice is high, survivors' commitment to the organization appears to be high, regardless of the survivors' personality.

Second, angry hostility moderated the relationship between interactional justice and intent to stay with the organization. As hypothesized, a significant relationship was found between interactional justice and intent to remain for employees who scored low on angry hostility. In fact, these respondents indicated greater intentions to stay when they perceived fair treatment, and greater intentions to leave when they perceived injustice than those employees who were high on angry hostility. No relationship was found between interactional justice and intent to remain with the organization for those employees who scored high on angry hostility. These results suggest that for survivors' who score high on angry hostility, intentions to remain with the organization are not associated with interactional justice. In contrast, employees who are low on angry hostility are susceptible to interactional justice. Survivors' intentions to leave the organization are highest when both angry hostility and interactional justice are low. Overall, the findings suggest that survivors who score low on angry hostility are more inclined than those who score high on angry hostility to want to stay with the organization after downsizing when they perceive high levels of interactional justice, and are more inclined to want to leave when they perceive low levels of interpersonal treatment.

The moderating relationship of personality on interactional justice and both organizational commitment and intent to stay found in this study is

consistent with previous research. Hockwarter et al. (1995) found that people who score high on neuroticism have less of a detrimental reaction to perceived injustice than those who score low on neuroticism. They suggested that this is because people who score high on Neuroticism are used to high levels of perceived inequity and discontent, and that people who score low on neuroticism react relatively more adversely to inequity because it is perceived as divergent from their normal circumstances and expectations.

Third, the self-discipline facet of conscientiousness was found to moderate the relationship between interactional justice and the conscientiousness facet of OCB. For those employees who were low on self-discipline there was a positive correlation between interactional justice and conscientiousness. A surprising finding was the significant negative relationship between interactional justice and conscientiousness for employees who scored high on self-discipline. This finding was contradictory to the hypothesized positive relationship between interactional justice and conscientiousness. One possibility for this finding is that employees who scored high on self-discipline perform OCB because they find it in itself rewarding, especially in regard to the positive interpersonal feedback they receive from their supervisors because of these behaviors. Therefore, when these employees perceive a decline in interactional justice, they may increase their performance of OCB, especially through conscientious acts directed towards the organization, in an attempt to restore high levels of interactional justice. This was an interesting, and unexpected finding that is worthy of further empirical investigation.

For those survivors who are low in self-discipline, an explanation for the findings is that they might not be motivated to do extra tasks for their employer, especially when they perceive that they are unfairly treated. However, when these employees perceive that they are well treated, they might be likely to feel obligated and hence be “more obliging”. Essentially, they might be more likely to do the “little extras”, to be more diligent in their jobs and more dedicated to the organization than when they perceive that they were treated unfairly.

The hypothesized relationship between angry hostility and interactional justice was not found to be significant in this study. Angry hostility was, however, found to be a significant moderator in the relationship between perceived justice and survivors’ organizational commitment, and also between interactional justice and intent to quit. These latter findings are consistent with the interactionist perspective which posits that the situation is as much a function of a person, as the person’s behavior is a function of the situation (i.e., person-by-situation interaction) (Bowers, 1973). In short, individuals’ cognitively filter and organize a situation resulting in the situation becoming inseparable from the individual. The relationship between the person and the situation is considered to be reciprocal in nature with each component influencing the other and the interaction of the two explains significantly greater variance than either (or both) predictor(s) alone.

To date, research has focused on the main effect of justice on commitment, intent to stay, or OCB. This study shows that considering the person-by-situation interaction explains variance incremental to interactional justice alone. To illustrate, interactional justice, angry hostility, and their accounted for 9% incremental variance in commitment than interactional justice

alone. In the prediction of intent to stay, the three-predictor model accounted for 7% incremental variance above that accounted for by interactional justice. Interactional justice, self-discipline, and the interaction of the two accounted for 43% incremental variance in conscientiousness above the variance explained by interactional justice alone. These results show that there is a significant person-by-situation interaction associated with organizational outcomes such as affective commitment, intent to stay, and the conscientiousness facet of OCB.

The hypothesized interaction between interactional justice and dutifulness on altruism was also not supported. A possible explanation for this finding is provided by a two-factor OCB taxonomy frequently used by researchers in this field (e.g., Becker, Thomas, & Randall, 1994; Latham & Skarlicki, 1995; Williams & Anderson, 1991). These researchers have found that a two-factor model of OCB fit their data well, and provides a theoretically meaningful distinction of the various forms of OCB. OCB was divided into OCB-I and OCB-O. OCB-I refers to citizenship behaviors employees perform that are directed toward other individuals in the organization; and OCB-O refers to citizenship behaviors directed towards the organization. In the present study, the measure of altruism would be classified as OCB-I, while conscientiousness would be classified as OCB-O. These results reveal a significant interaction between interactional justice and self-discipline to predict survivors' conscientiousness, but the interaction between interactional justice and dutifulness on the survivors' altruism was not significant. Based on this taxonomy it is possible that when the employees perceived low levels of interactional justice during the downsizing, which they attributed to the organization in general, they withdrew OCB directed

toward the organization (OCB-O) that they perceived was mistreating them. In contrast, the survivors did not withdraw OCB directed toward their coworkers because they perceived their peers as blameless in the situation. Therefore, the findings are consistent with the supposition that the survivors' tendency to perform OCB-O was related to their perceptions of interactional justice during downsizing, but their performance of OCB-I was unrelated to perceptions of interactional justice.

Theoretical Implications

From a theoretical perspective the findings from this study highlight the importance of taking into account the person-by-situation interaction to understand survivors' reactions to corporate downsizing. As previously mentioned, the zero-order correlation between interactional justice and conscientiousness was not significant. However, when self-discipline was tested as a moderator, a significant relationship was found between interactional justice and conscientiousness for those low on self-discipline. Furthermore, interactional justice, self-discipline, and the interaction of the two produced an R^2 of .43. In other words, a substantial 43% of the variance in Conscientiousness can be accounted for by interactional justice, self-discipline, and the interaction of the two. This finding suggests that there is considerable benefit in looking at the person-by-situation interaction when investigating behavior, rather than simply examining the main effects of personality or the environment in isolation.

The second theoretical contribution of this study was the use of facet scales in measuring personality. There is considerable controversy in the literature regarding personality measurement. Specifically, researchers debate if

personality is best measured using single narrowly defined variables or a more cursory exploration of many separate variables (Ones & Viswesvaran, 1996). This predicament is commonly referred to as the 'bandwidth - fidelity dilemma. Cronbach (1960) defined bandwidth as the amount of complexity of the information ones tries to obtain in a given space of time. Cronbach did not specifically define fidelity, but rather, he related it to terms such as accuracy, useful decision making, validity, and reliability. In short, researchers (e.g., Hogan & Roberts, 1996; Ones & Viswesvaran, 1996; Schneider, Hough, & Dunnette, 1996) disagree whether broad or narrow personality traits should be assessed; and which are the best predictors for various criteria including personnel selection, job performance, and theoretical explanations of personality. Moreover, researchers disagree about the definition and classification of broad versus narrow traits. They do, however, seem to agree that the level of specificity required in the predictors should be based upon the complexity of the criteria they are used to predict. In essence, the criterion domain must be specifically defined. In the present study, the choice to use narrowly defined facets of personality was based on narrowly defined criterion variables such as affective commitment, intent to stay, altruism and conscientiousness. This presumably allowed for higher predictive validity of the personality traits in predicting the organizational outcomes of interest in this study.

In the present study, the incremental benefits of facet scales over global scales is unclear. Additional regression analyses were conducted to compare the predictive validity of the global personality traits (i.e., neuroticism and conscientiousness) with the facet scales. In predicting commitment, facet scales

accounted for 4% greater variance than the global scales ($R^2 = .15$ and $.11$ for the facet and global scales, respectively). For intent to stay, facet scales accounted for less variance than the global scale ($R^2 = .17$ and $.18$, for the facet and global scales, respectively). In predicting conscientiousness, global scales accounted for greater variance than the facet scales ($R^2 = .43$ and $.53$, for the facet and global scales, respectively).

Based on previous research and theory, this present study used narrow traits to predict various, narrowly defined organizational outcome variables. Although not formally hypothesized, the results suggest that little was gained with the use of facet rather than global scales. Despite the ongoing debate, a question remains whether facet or global personality traits allow for greater predictive validity of organizational outcomes such as affective commitment, intent to stay, and conscientiousness. Future research should address whether narrow traits have greater predictive validity for these specific organizational outcomes than global personality constructs.

In summary, this study provides evidence that personality interacts with perceptions of justice on employees' attitudes and behaviors following downsizing. Consistent with the interactionist perspective, these findings also suggest that the effects of personality on behavior might be most evident in the presence of situational stimuli.

Practical Implications

These findings indicate that organizations and their supervisors need to ensure high levels of fair treatment of the employees when downsizing. Supervisors might be inclined to give those employees who are high on angry

hostility (i.e., anxious, worried, or angry) extra attention during the downsizing by providing them with additional support and communication. The results of this study, however, suggest that employees who are low on angry hostility (i.e., appear to be calm, and rational, and who seem to be handling the downsizing well) might be precisely those employees who will react most negatively to low levels of interactional justice. Employees who are low on angry hostility might not be used to the stressfulness brought on by the turbulence of downsizing.

Therefore, when these employees perceive low levels of interpersonal treatment by their supervisor, their commitment and intent to remain with the organization can be negatively affected. Employees low on angry hostility are likely to be sensitive to interactional justice and respond with high levels of commitment and intentions to remain with the organization when they perceive that they have been treated with sensitivity, dignity, and respect, and provided with adequate communications. This is consistent with Baron and Neuman (1996) who suggested that organizational change increases employees' sensitivity to injustice.

Similarly, supervisors can be tempted to spend a significant portion of their time trying to motivate employees who are low in self-discipline to be more conscientious and to go above and beyond their formal job requirements by attempting to be especially sensitive to their concerns and questions. However, the results suggest that supervisors should also concentrate on those employees who appear to be high in self-discipline and attempt to encourage their conscientiousness.

During downsizing organizations tend to rely on the remaining employees to do more work. Loss of employee commitment and dedication, and increases in intentions to turnover are especially important for organizations. The success of the downsizing initiative, and the future of the organization in general, are dependent on the hard work, loyalty, and commitment of the survivors. The findings are important for businesses that downsize to become more efficient and profitable. Many organizations are finding that the benefits they expect from downsizing to remain competitive are lost due to the negative effects downsizing has on survivors. These results also suggest that the downsizing will not affect everyone in the same way. Companies need to be knowledgeable and effective in their downsizing in order to minimize the negative effects on the business and the remaining employees. Steps such as providing employees with a rationale for the downsizing, and supervisors being polite and approachable, can significantly attenuate negative outcomes. The results of this study suggest that many of the negative consequences of downsizing might be attenuated if companies ensure high levels of interactional justice.

Strengths, Limitations and Future Research

One strength of the present study is the use of multiple raters for measuring the variables of interest. The use of self-report for all measures in research has raised concerns over common method variance (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). Moreover, employees might be reluctant to accurately report low levels of citizenship behaviors or self-discipline, or high levels of angry hostility because of social desirability and concerns that management might learn the results and respond negatively. Therefore, the use of both self-report and peer-

report questionnaires in this study reduces some problems associated with common method variance and the exclusive use of self-report measures. Moreover, the use of an independent rater can potentially engender other sources of variance, McEvoy and Buller (1987) found that peer-reports are both a reliable and valid source of an individual's behaviour.

A second potential strength of this study was the use of personality facets rather than global dimensions. The use of facet scores allowed for a more "fine-grained" analysis of persons, thereby providing potentially greater precision and accuracy of measurement. This could be beneficial when interpreting results because the constructs are more clearly defined. Personality research has been criticized for its use of ill-defined constructs, and subsequent imprecise measurement (Ones & Viswesvaran, 1996; Schneider, Hough, & Dunnette; 1996). As noted earlier, future research could further investigate whether facet scores on personality traits are in fact more reliable or valid in testing theoretical constructs, and whether they are able to account for incremental variance in outcome measures. It is unknown if broad or narrow personality traits provide the best taxonomy or description of personality. Furthermore, future research needs to address which measurement of personality are most predictive of valued organizational outcomes. In short, the bandwidth - fidelity dilemma in terms of predicting valued organizational outcomes is still in need of extensive empirical research.

A limitation of this study is the use of cross-sectional data, which prevents any inferences of causality. Moreover it does not address how survivors' reactions might differ across time. It is plausible that survivors' reactions to

downsizing could change over time, and therefore, this area needs to be investigated in future research. Longitudinal research needs to address the downsizing process and how survivors are affected at different stages of the process. This would allow measures to be taken at different intervals before, during, and following downsizing. Furthermore, such a study could investigate how perceived organizational justice and attitudes towards the organization change or fluctuate over time. However, these measures can be problematic given the sensitive nature of downsizing for organizations.

A second limitation is that perceived organizational justice, commitment, intent to stay, and OCB might be influenced by other variables, such as mood, that were not included in this investigation. For example, Brief, Butcher and Roberson (1995) found an interaction effect of mood and negative affectivity on job satisfaction. This issue should also be addressed in future research.

Another limitation was the lack of consistency in the methodology of the data collection because multiple sites and procedures were used. Moreover, potentially confounding variables such as whether or not the downsizing was voluntary, and how long ago the downsizing had occurred were not controlled for. This raises the likelihood that unexplained variance can weaken the findings. It is plausible that these issues could be associated with the survivors' perceptions of fairness, commitment, intent to stay, and OCB towards the organization following downsizing. For example, survivors' might be most upset immediately following the downsizing after having just witnessed their fellow coworkers leaving. However, over time, the survivors could adapt to the new circumstances and their negative affect would dissipate. Having participants from

different contexts can introduce systematic variance into the relationships of interest, which can attenuate the observed association among the variables. Thus, the present study's results might be a conservative estimate of the relationships among the variables. Moreover, the generalizability of the results is increased because no significant differences were obtained between the different samples on any of the measures. Graphical representation of the significant interactions for the military and the non-military samples revealed that the form of the interactions did not differ across the two samples. Finally, because of the small number of respondents from each site, no claims can be made regarding the representativeness of the participants to the organizations.

A potential limitation of many studies of OCB is the use of volunteers when one is measuring OCB. This methodology is prone to bias the measures of OCB on because it is possible that those participants who are 'good citizens' are the people who volunteer to complete the questionnaires. However, an inspection of the skewness and kurtosis for the altruism and the conscientiousness OCB sub-scales revealed that these variables were normally distributed (skewness values of $-.747$ and $-.888$ for altruism and conscientiousness, respectively; and kurtosis values of $.877$ and 1.182). Therefore, these bias do not appear to be evident in these data.

In summary, this study might provide a conservative estimate of a significant person-by-situation interaction between survivors' personality and their perceptions of interactional justice on organizational commitment, intent to stay, and OCB. Additionally, the methodology of this study, and the significant

findings contribute to the existing literature in personality, justice, and survivors' attitudes and behaviors following downsizing.

References

- Adams, A.J. (1965). Inequity in social exchange. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.). Advances in experimental psychology (Vol. 2, pp.267-299). New York: Academic Press.
- Aiken, L.S., & West, S.G. (1991). Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Austin, W., McGinn, N. C., & Susmilch, C. (1980). Internal standards revisited: Effects of social comparisons and expectancies on judgments of fairness and satisfaction. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 16, 426-441.
- Baron, R.A., & Neuman, J.H. (1997). Workplace violence and workplace aggression: Evidence of their relative frequency and potential causes. Aggressive Behavior, 22, 161-173.
- Barrick, M.R., & Mount, M.K. (1993). Autonomy as a moderator of the relationships between the big five personality dimensions and job performance. Journal of Applied Psychology, 78(1), 111-118.
- Barrick, M.R., & Mount, M.K. (1991). The big-five personality dimensions and job performance: A meta-analysis. Personnel Psychology, 44, 1-26.
- Becker, T.E., & Randall, D.M. (1994). Validation of a measure of organizational citizenship behavior against an objective behavioral criterion. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 54(1), 160-167.
- Bies, R.J., & Moag, J.S. (1986). Interactional justice: Communication criteria of fairness. In R.J. Lewicki, B.H. Sheppard, & M. Bazerman (Eds.),

Research in negotiations in organizations (Vol. 1, pp. 43-55). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Bies, R.J., Shapiro, D.L., & Cummings, L.L. (1988). Causal accounts and managing organizational conflict: Is it enough to say it's not my fault? Communication Research, 15, 381-399.

Block, J. (1961). The Q-sort method of personality assessment and psychiatric research. Springfield, IL: Charles C Thomas.

Bowers, K.S. (1973). Situationism in psychology: An analysis and critique. Psychological Bulletin, 80, 307-336.

Brief, A.P., Butcher, A.H., & Roberson, L. (1995). Cookies, disposition and job attitudes: The effects of positive mood-inducing events and negative affectivity on job satisfaction in a field experiment. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 62, 55-62.

Brockner, J. (1988). The effects of work layoffs on survivors: Research, theory, and practice. Research in Organizational Behavior, 10, 213-255.

Brockner, J., Davy, J., & Carter, C. (1985). Layoffs, self-esteem, and survivor guilt: Motivational affective, and attitudinal consequences. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 36, 229-244.

Brockner, J., & Greenberg, J. (1990). The impact of layoffs on survivors: An organizational justice perspective. In J.S. Carroll (Ed.), Applied social psychology and organizational settings (pp. 45-75). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Brockner, J., Grover, S., Reed, T., DeWitt, R., & O'Malley, M. (1987). Survivor' reactions to layoffs: We get by with a little help for our friends. Administrative Science Quarterly, 32, 526-541.

Brockner, J., Konovsky, M., Cooper-Schneider, R., Folger, R., Martin, C., & Bies, R.J. (1994). Interactive effects of procedural justice and outcome negativity on victims and survivors of job loss. Academy of Management Journal, 37(2), 397-409.

Brockner, J., & Martin, C.L. (1995). Decision frame, procedural justice and survivors' reactions to job layoffs. Organizational behavior and Human Decision Processes, 63(1), 59-68.

Bruning, N.S., & Cooper, C.L. (1996, April). Justice perceptions and outcomes in a restructured organization: A longitudinal study. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology.

Cameron, K.S. (1994). Strategies for successful organizational downsizing. Human Resources Management Journal, 33, 189-211.

Cascio, W.F. (1993). Downsizing: What do we know? What have we learned? Academy of Management Executive, 7(1), 95-104.

Cohen, J. (1988). Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Costa, P.T., & McCrae, R.R. (1980). Influence of extraversion and neuroticism on subjective well-being: Happy and unhappy people. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 38, 668-678.

Costa, P.T., & McCrae, R.R. (1992). Revised NEO personality inventory and NEO five-factor inventory, professional manual. Psychological Assessment Resources, Florida.

Cronbach, L.J. (1960). Essentials of Psychological Testing (2nd Ed.), Harper & Row, New York.

Cropanzano, R., James, K., & Konovsky, M.A. (1993). Dispositional affectivity as a predictor of work attitudes and job performance. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 14, 595-606.

Dailey, R.C., & Delany, J.K. (1992). Distributive and procedural justice as antecedents of job dissatisfaction and intent to turnover. Human Relations, 45(3), 305-317.

Davy, J.A., Kinicki, A.J., & Scheck, C.L. (1991). Developing and testing a model of survivor responses to layoffs. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 38, 302-317.

Eysenck, H.J., & Eysenck, S.B.G. (1964). Manual of the Eysenck personality inventory. London: University Press.

Eysenck, M.W., & Morley, S. (1994). Neuroticism, extraversion, work locus of control, and work style. Journal of the Indian Academy of Applied Psychology, 20, 111-115.

Feldman, D.C., & Leana, C.R. (1994). Better practices in managing layoffs. Human Resource Management, 33(2), 239-260.

Folger, R. (1986). Rethinking equity theory: A referent cognitions model. In H.W. Bierhoff, R.L. Cohen, & J.Greenberg (Eds.), Justice in social relations (pp. 145-162). NewYork: Plenum Press.

Folger, R. (1987). Reformulating the preconditions of resentment: A referent cognitions model. In J.C. Masters & W.P. Smith (Eds.), Social comparison, justice, and relative deprivation: Theoretical, empirical, and policy perspectives (pp. 183-215). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Folger, R. (1993). Reactions to mistreatment at work. In J.K. Murnighan (Ed.), Social psychology in organizations: Advances in theory and research (pp. 161-183). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Folger, R., & Bies, R.J. (1989). Managerial responsibilities and procedural justice. Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal, 2, 79-90.

Folger, R., & Konovsky, M.A. (1989). Effects of procedural and distributive justice on reactions to pay raise decisions. Academy of Management Journal, 32, 115-130.

Garland, H. (1973). The effects of piece-rate underpayment and overpayment on job performance: A test of equity theory with a new induction procedure. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 3(4), 325-334.

Gellantly, I. R. (1995). Individual and group determinants of employee absenteeism: Test of a causal model. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 16, 469-485.

George, J.M. (1989). Mood and absence. Journal of Applied Psychology, 74, 317-324.

George, J.M., & Bettenhausen, K. (1990). Understanding prosocial behavior, sales performance, and turnover: A group-level analysis in a service context. Journal of Applied Psychology, 75(6), 698-709.

George, J.M. (1992). The role of personality in organizational life: Issues and evidence. Journal of Management, 18(2), 185-213.

Greenberg, J. (1987). Reactions to procedural injustice in payment distributions: Do the means justify the ends? Journal of Applied Psychology, 72(1), 55-61.

Greenberg, J. (1993). Stealing in the name of justice: Informational and interpersonal moderators of theft reactions to underpayment inequity. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 54, 81-103.

Greenhalgh, L. (1983). Organizational decline. In S.B. Bacharach (Ed.), *Research in sociology of organizations* (Vol. 2, pp. 231-276). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Greenhaigh, L., & Rosenblatt, Z. (1984). Job insecurity: Toward conceptual clarity. Academy of Management Review, 9, 438-448.

Gregersen, H.B. (1993). Multiple commitments at work and extra-role behavior during three stages of organizational tenure. Journal of Business Research, 26, 31-47.

Hackett, R.D., Bycio, P., & Hausdorf, P.A. (1994). Further assessments of Meyer and Allen's (1991) three component model of organizational commitment. Journal of Applied Psychology, 79, 15-23.

Heenan, D.A. (1990). The downside of downsizing. The Journal of Business Strategy. 47-53.

Hockwarter, W.A., Amason, A.C., & Harrison, A.W. (1995). Negative affectivity as a moderator of the inequity-turnover relationship. Journal of Social Behavior and Personality, 10(4), 757-770.

Hogan, R. (1986). Hogan personality inventory manual. Minneapolis, MN: National Computer Systems.

Hogan, R., Hogan, J., & Roberts, B.W. (1996). Personality measurement and employment decisions. American Psychologist, 51, 469-477.

Hogan, J., & Roberts, B.W. (1996). Issues and non-issues in the fidelity - bandwidth trade-off. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 17, 627-637.

Husemand, R.C., Hatfield, J.D., & Miles, E.W. (1985). Test for individual perceptions of job equity: Some preliminary findings. Perceptual and Motor Skills, 61, 1055-1064.

Jahoda, M. (1982). Employment and unemployment: A social psychological analysis. New York: Academic Press.

Jenkins, J.M. (1993). Self-monitoring and turnover: The impact of personality on intent to leave. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 14, 83-91.

Judge, T. (1993). Does affective disposition moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and voluntary turnover? Journal of Applied Psychology, 78, 395-401.

Katz, D. & Kahn, R.L. (1978). The social psychology of organizations. New York: Wiley.

Kirkcaldy, B.D., Furnham, A., & Lynn, R. (1992). Individual differences in work attitudes. Personality and Individual Differences, 13(1), 49-55. International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 8, 263-332.

Konovsky, M.A., & Brockner, J. (1996). Managing Victim and survivor layoff reactions: A procedural justice perspective. In R. Cropanzano (Ed.),

Justice in the workplace: Approaching fairness in human resources management (pp.133-153). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Konovsky, M.A., & Cropanzano, R. (1991). Perceived fairness of employee drug testing as a predictor of employee attitudes and performance. Journal of Applied Psychology, 76, 698-707.

Konovsky, M.A., & Organ, D.W. (1996). Dispositional and contextual determinants of organizational citizenship behavior. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 17, 253-266.

Latham, G.P., & Skarlicki, D.P. (1995). Criterion-related validity of the situational and patterned behavior description interviews with organizational citizenship behavior. Human Performance, 8(2), 67-80.

Leventhal, G.S. (1976). Fairness in social relationships. In J. W. Thibaut, J. T. Spence, & R.C. Carson (Eds.), *Contemporary topics in social psychology* (pp. 211-239). Morristown, NJ: General Learning Press.

Leventhal, G.S. (1980). What Should be done with equity theory? In K.J. Gergen, M. S. Greenberg, & R. H. Willis (Eds.), *Social exchange: Advances in theory and research* (pp. 27-55). New York: Plenum Press.

Lind, E.A., & Tyler, T.R. (1988). The social psychology of procedural justice. New York: Plenum.

Mackenzie, S.B., & Podsakoff, P.M. (1993). The impact of organizational citizenship behavior on evaluation of salesperson performance. Journal of Marketing, 57(1), 70-80.

MackKinnon, D.W. (1944). The structure of personality. In J. McVicker Hunt (Eds.), Personality and the behavior disorders (Vol. 1, pp. 3-48). New York: Ronald Press.

Mathieu, J.E. & Zajac, D. (1990). A review and meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment. Psychological Bulletin, 108, 171-194.

McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P.T., Jr. (1990). Personality in adulthood. New York: Guilford.

McCrae, R.R., Costa, P.T., Jr., & Busch, C.M. (1986). Evaluating comprehensiveness in personality systems: The California Q-Set and the five-factor model. Journal of Personality, 54, 430-446.

Meyer, J.P., & Allen, N.J. (1986, June). Development and consequences of three components of organizational commitment. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Administrative Sciences Association of Canada, Whistler, B.C.

Meyer, J.P., & Allen, N.J. (1997). Commitment in the workplace: Theory, research, and application. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Meyer, J.P., Allen, N.J., & Smith, C.A. (1993). Commitment to organizations and occupations: Extension and test of a three-component conceptualization. Journal of Applied Psychology, 78, 538-551.

Miller, H.E., Katerberg, R., & Hulin, C.L. (1979). Evaluation of the Mobley, Horner, and Hollingsworth model of employee turnover. Journal of Applied Psychology, 64(5), 509-517.

Mischel, W. (1973). Toward a cognitive social learning reconceptualization of personality. Psychological Review, 80, 252-283.

Moorman, R.H. (1991). Relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviors: Do fairness perceptions influence employee citizenship? Journal of Applied Psychology, 76(6), 845-855.

Moorman, R.H., & Blakely, G.L. (1995). Individualism-collectivism as an individual difference predictor of organizational citizenship behavior. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 16, 127-142.

Moorman, R.H., Neihoff, B.P., & Organ, D.W. (1993). Treating employees fairly and organizational citizenship behavior: Sorting the effects of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and procedural justice. Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal, 6, 209-225.

Morrow, P.C. (1993). The theory and measurement of work commitment. Greenwich, Connecticut: JAI Press Inc.

Mount, M.K., Barrick, M.R., & Strauss, J.P. (1994). Validity of observer ratings of the big five personality factors. Journal of Applied Psychology, 79(2), 272-280.

Mowday, R.T., Potter, L.W., & Steers, R.M. (1982). Employee-organizational linkages: The psychology of commitment, absenteeism, and turnover. New York: Academic Press.

Murray, M. (1995, May 4). Thanks, goodbye: Amid record profits, companies continue to lay off employees. The Wall Street Journal, pp. A1, A6.

Muller, C.W., Wallace, J.E., & Price, J.L. (1992). Employee commitment: Resolving some issues. Work and Occupations, 19(3), 211-236.

Ones, D.S., & Viswesvaran, C. (1996). Bandwidth-fidelity dilemma in personality measurement for personnel selection. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 17(6), 609-626.

Organ, D.W. (1988). Organizational citizenship behavior: The good soldier syndrome. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Organ, D.W. (1994) Personality and organizational citizenship behavior. Journal of Management, 20(2), 465-478.

Organ, D.W., & Lingl, A.S. (1995). Personality, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behavior. The Journal of Social Psychology, 135(3), 339-350.

Organ D.W., & Konovsky, M. (1989). Cognitive versus affective determinants of organizational citizenship behavior. Journal of Applied Psychology, 74(1), 157-164.

Organ, D.W., & Ryan, K. (1995). A meta-analytic review of attitudinal and dispositional predictors of organizational citizenship behavior. Personnel Psychology, 48, 775-797.

Pearce, J.L. (1993). Toward an organizational behavior of contract laborers: Their psychological involvement and effects on employee coworkers. Academy of Management Journal, 36, 1082-1096.

Piedmont, R.L., & Weinstein, H.P. (1994). Predicting supervisor ratings of job performance using the neo personality inventory. Journal of Psychology, 128(3), 255-265.

Podsakoff, P.M., MacKenzie, S.B., Moorman, R.H., & Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leadership behaviors and their effects of follower's trust in

leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. Leadership Quarterly, 1, 107-142.

Podsakoff, P.M., Organ, D.W. (1986). Self-reports in organizational research: Problems and prospects. Journal of Management, 12(4), 531-544.

Puffer, S.M. (1987). Prosocial behavior, noncompliant behavior, and work performance among commission salespeople. Journal of Applied Psychology, 72(4), 615-621.

Rever-Moriyama, S.D. (1996). Antecedents of organizational citizenship and job search behaviors in university professors. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Calgary, Alberta, Canada.

Rousseau, D.M. (1995). The contracts of individuals and organizations. Research in Organizational Behavior, 15, 1-43.

Schneider, R.J., Hough, L. M., & Dunnette, M.D. (1996). Broadsided by broad traits: How to sink science in five dimension or less. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 17(6), 639-655.

Shoda, Y., & Mischel. W. (1993). Cognitive social approach to dispositional inferences: What if the perceiver is a cognitive social theorist? Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 19, 574-586.

Shore, L.M., & Wayne, S.J. (1993). Commitment and employee: Comparison of affective and continuance commitment with perceived organizational support. Journal of Applied Psychology, 78, 774-780.

Skarlicki, D. P., & Folger, R. (1997). Retaliation in the workplace: The roles of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice. Journal of Applied Psychology, 82(3), 434-443.

Skarlicki, D.P., & Latham, G.P. (1995). Organizational citizenship behaviour and performance in a university setting. Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences, 12, 175-181.

Skarlicki, D.P., & Latham, G.P. (1996). Increasing citizenship behavior within a labor union: A test of organizational justice theory. Journal of Applied Psychology, 81(2), 161-169.

Smith, C.A., Organ, D.W., & Near, J.P. (1983). Organizational citizenship: Its nature and antecedents. Journal of Applied Psychology, 68, 653-663.

Somers, M.J. (1995). Organizational commitment, turnover, and absenteeism: An examination of direct and interactional effects. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 16, 49-58.

Staw, B.M., Bell, N.E., & Clausen, J.A. (1986). The dispositional approach to job attitudes: A lifetime longitudinal test. Administrative Science Quarterly, 31, 56-77.

Tett, R.P., Jackson, D.N., & Rothstein, M. (1991). Personality measures as predictors of job performance: A meta-analytic review. Personnel Psychology, 44, 703-742.

Tett, R.P., & Meyer, J.P. (1993). Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention, and turnover: Path analysis based on meta-analytic findings. Personnel Psychology, 46, 259-293.

Thibaut, J., & Walker, L. (1975). Procedural justice: A psychological analysis. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Tombaugh, J.R., & White, L.P. (1990). Downsizing: An empirical assessment of survivors' perceptions in a post layoff environment. Organizational Development Journal, 32-36.

Weitz, J. (1952). A neglected concept in the study of job satisfaction. Personnel Psychology, 5, 201-205.

Williams, L.J., & Anderson, S.E. (1991). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as predictors of organizational citizenship and in-role behaviors. Journal of Management, 17,(3), 601-617.

Williams, L.J., & Hazer, J.T. (1986). Antecedents and consequences of satisfaction and commitment in turnover models: A reanalysis using latent variable structural equation methods. Journal of Applied Psychology, 71(2), 219-231.

Appendix A
Self-report Questionnaire

Interactional Justice Scale

1. behaved in an ethical manner.
2. considered my viewpoint.
4. suppressed his or her personal biases.
5. applied the decision-making criteria consistently to me, and other employees.
6. provided me with timely information
7. offered adequate justification for the decisions made.
8. followed the procedures for fair decisions properly.
9. treated me with kindness and consideration.
10. brought things into the open without hiding them.
11. was sensitive to my personal needs.
12. showed concern for my rights as an employee.
13. took steps to deal with me in a truthful manner.
14. was open and forthright.
15. treated me with respect and dignity.
16. was not rude to me.
17. provided fair interpersonal treatment.

Organizational Commitment Scale

1. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside of it.
2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
3. I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one.
4. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.

5. I do not feel “emotionally attached” to this organization.
6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
7. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.

Intent to Stay Scale

1. How would you rate your chances of still working for this organization a year from now?
2. Do you intend to leave this organization voluntarily in the near future?
3. What are your plans for staying with this organization?
4. I plan to work at my present job for as long as possible.
5. I would really hate to quit this job.
6. I will most certainly look for a new job in the near future.
7. I plan to keep this job for at least two or three years.

Appendix B
Peer-report Questionnaire

Angry Hostility Facet of the Neuroticism Scale

1. He or she often gets angry at the way people treat him/her.
2. He or she is an even tempered person.
3. He or she is known as hot-blooded and quick tempered.
4. He or she is not considered a touchy or temperamental person.
5. He or she often gets disgusted with people he/she has to deal with.
6. It takes him or her a lot to get mad.
7. He or she at times feels bitter and resentful.
8. Even minor annoyances can be frustrating to him or her.

Dutifulness Facet of the Conscientiousness Scale

1. She or he tries to perform all the tasks assigned to him/her conscientiously.
2. Sometimes he or she is not as dependable or reliable as he/she should be.
3. She or he pays her/his debts promptly and in full.
4. Sometimes she or he cheats when he/she plays solitaire.
5. When he or she makes a commitment, he/she can always be counted on to follow through.
6. She or he adheres strictly to her/his ethical principles.
7. She or he tries to do a job carefully, so that they won't have to be done again.
8. She or he would really have to be sick before she/he would miss a day of work.

Self-Discipline Facet of the Conscientiousness Scale

1. He or she is pretty good at pacing himself/herself so as to get things done on time.
2. He or she wastes a lot of time before settling down to work.
3. She or he is a productive person who always gets the job done.
4. She or he has trouble making herself/himself do what she/he should.
5. Once he or she starts a project, he/she almost always finishes it.
6. When a project gets too difficult, he or she is inclined to start a new one.
7. There are so many little jobs that need to be done that he or she sometimes just ignores them all.
8. He or she has a lot of self-discipline.

Conscientiousness Facet of the OCB Scale

1. Is always punctual.
2. Does not take unnecessary time off work.
3. Believes in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay.
4. Takes pride in the organization and works to improve it.
5. Attendance at work above the norm.
6. Never takes long lunch breaks.
7. Does not take extra breaks.
8. Neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform.
9. Is one of the most conscientiousness workers.

Altruism Facet of the OCB Scale

1. Helps others who have heavy work loads.
2. Helps others who have been absent.
3. Does not abuse the rights of others.
4. Willingly gives of his/her time to help others who have work related problems.
5. Is mindful of how his/her behavior affects other people's jobs.
6. Helps orient new people even though it is not required.