

INFORMATION TO USERS

This manuscript has been reproduced from the microfilm master. UMI films the text directly from the original or copy submitted. Thus, some thesis and dissertation copies are in typewriter face, while others may be from any type of computer printer.

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted. Broken or indistinct print, colored or poor quality illustrations and photographs, print bleedthrough, substandard margins, and improper alignment can adversely affect reproduction.

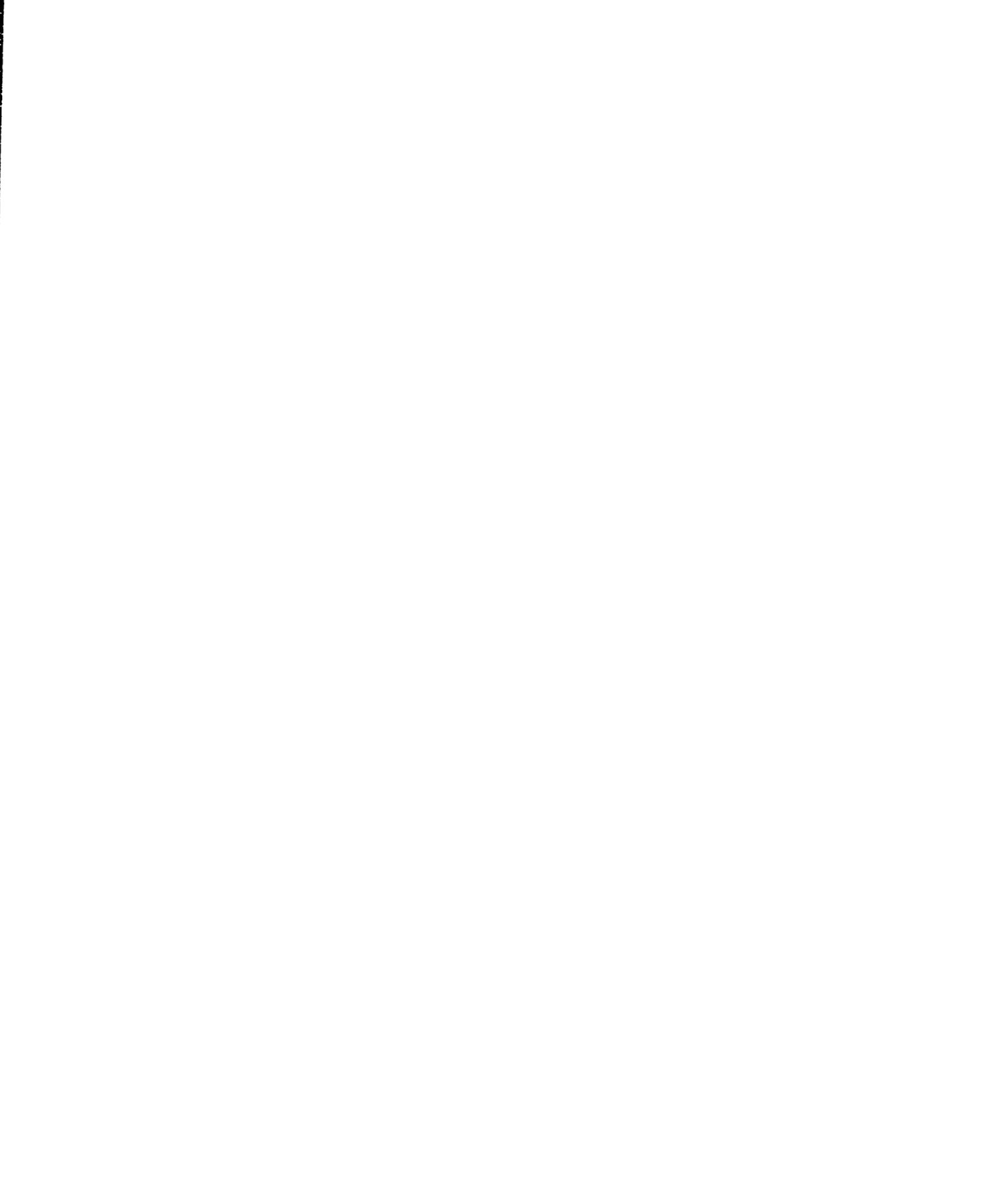
In the unlikely event that the author did not send UMI a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if unauthorized copyright material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.

Oversize materials (e.g., maps, drawings, charts) are reproduced by sectioning the original, beginning at the upper left-hand corner and continuing from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps.

Photographs included in the original manuscript have been reproduced xerographically in this copy. Higher quality 6" x 9" black and white photographic prints are available for any photographs or illustrations appearing in this copy for an additional charge. Contact UMI directly to order.

Bell & Howell Information and Learning
300 North Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, MI 48106-1346 USA
800-521-0600

UMI[®]



UNIVERSITY OF CALGARY

Perceptions and Reactions to Layoff Fairness:
Examining the Role of Accountability Using a
Policy-Capturing Approach

by

Deborah Miller

A THESIS

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

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

CALGARY, ALBERTA

AUGUST, 1999

© Deborah Miller 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.

0-612-48027-5

Canada

Abstract

The impact of downsizing has become a growing concern among managers who are increasingly being faced with negative reactions from layoff victims. A policy-capturing approach was used to examine whether individuals consider managerial accountability and interactional justice in making judgments of fairness, resentment, and retaliation intentions. Organizational justice and attribution theories provided the theoretical framework for this study. Thirty-five management students (22 men and 13 women, mean age = 29) from a university in western Canada participated in this study. Results indicated that individuals considered managerial accountability as well as interactional justice in determining their perceptions and reactions to layoff practices. Exploratory analyses revealed that individuals who have not been in an organization where layoffs occurred had higher intentions to retaliate than individuals with layoff exposure. This study also found that individuals who have conducted layoffs were less consistent in their resentment ratings than participants who have not conducted layoffs. The theoretical and practical implications and limitations are discussed.

Acknowledgements

There are a number of people I would like to thank for their help and support in writing this thesis. Theresa Kline, my thesis supervisor, for guiding me through this challenging process. Lorne Sulsky, for his insightful comments and suggestions made during all phases of this project. Daniel Skarlicki, for his helpful theoretical insights. And Jean Wallace, for helping to bring the whole document together in its final stages.

I would also like to thank Janine, Sandra, Aoife, Colleen, and all my other colleagues in the I-O Area Group for sharing their knowledge and being extremely helpful during the past two years.

And finally, I would like to thank my parents, family, and friends for their continual support and confidence they have given me to reach my goals.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Approval page.....	ii
Abstract.....	iii
Acknowledgements.....	iv
Table of Contents.....	v
List of Tables.....	vi
INTRODUCTION.....	1
Organizational Downsizing.....	1
Justice Theories.....	2
Injustice and Reactions to Layoffs.....	6
Incorporating Accountability into Fairness Theories.....	11
Theoretical Framework.....	13
Fairness and Accountability.....	18
The Present Research.....	21
Policy-Capturing.....	25
METHODS.....	27
Participants.....	27
Stimulus Materials.....	28
Context.....	28
Contextual Background Information.....	28
Cue Selection.....	29
Accountability.....	30
Interactional Justice.....	30
Profile Generation.....	31
Measures.....	33
Perceptions of Fairness.....	33
Resentment.....	33
Retaliation Intentions.....	34
Manipulation Checks.....	34
Locus of Control.....	35
Neuroticism.....	35
Other Variables.....	36
Design and Procedure.....	37
RESULTS.....	38
Preliminary Analysis.....	38
Manipulation Checks.....	38
Cue Intercorrelations.....	39
Cue Weightings.....	39
Order Effects.....	40
Demographic Information.....	40
Hypothesis Testing.....	41

Exploratory Analysis.....	49
Judgment Consistency.....	50
Intrarater Agreement.....	52
Individual Differences Among Consistency and Reliability Ratings.....	52
Individual Differences Among UIs.....	54
Individual Differences Among Criterion Measures.....	56
DISCUSSION.....	57
Main Findings.....	58
Objective 1.....	58
Linear Rating Policies.....	58
Objective 2.....	60
Interactive Rating Policies.....	60
Objective 3.....	64
Comparing Consistency and Reliability Ratings.....	64
Comparing Multiple R values and UIs.....	64
Objective 4.....	65
Layoff Exposure.....	65
Consistency and Reliability Ratings.....	65
UI Weightings.....	66
Judgment Ratings.....	67
Personality Factors.....	68
Gender.....	69
Theoretical Implications.....	69
Practical Implications.....	71
Strengths and Limitations.....	72
Future Research.....	75
REFERENCES.....	77
APPENDIX A: Instructions.....	92
APPENDIX B: Sample Profile.....	93
APPENDIX C: Work Locus of Control Scale (WLCS).....	94
APPENDIX D: Neuroticism facet of the revised NEO PI form	95
APPENDIX E: Individual Difference Variables.....	96
APPENDIX F: Consent Form.....	97
APPENDIX G: Sample Profiles.....	98

List of Tables

Table 1: Individual Participants' Standardized Beta Weights for Each Cue.....	42
Table 2: Summary Statistics for the Standardized Beta Weights.....	43
Table 3: Usefulness Indices (UIs) for the Cue Variables.....	46
Table 4: Summary of Usefulness Indices (UIs) (% of Variance Accounted for).....	47
Table 5: Individual Participants' Multiple R and Intraclass Correlations.....	51
Table 6: Individual Participants' Means and Standard Deviations for Ratings on Fairness, Resentment, and Retaliation Intentions.....	53
Table 7: Correlation Matrix.....	55

The move toward more efficient organizations has created many changes to their structure and function. One such change is the downsizing of the workforce, which has resulted in seven million permanent layoffs in the United States alone since 1987 (Cascio, 1995). In the last five years more than 85 percent of the Fortune 500 companies have downsized, and the remaining companies are planning to do so within the next five years (Cameron, 1994). The impact of downsizing poses a serious concern for organizations and managers who are having to deal with negative reactions from the employees who are laid off (i.e., the victims), as well as from those who remain with an organization following a layoff, (i.e., the survivors) (Richman, 1993). Research indicates that there has been an escalating number of allegations and direct aggressive emotions toward managers who are often held accountable for the occurrence of layoffs (Konovsky & Brockner, 1996).

Organizational justice studies have shown that employees' judgments of events are often determined by their perceptions of the outcomes and the procedures utilized in determining the outcomes (Brockner & Wisenfeld, 1996). If a negative event, such as a layoff, is perceived to be administered by a manager in an inconsistent manner, it may intensify an employee's negative perceptions and behavioral reactions (Konovsky & Brockner, 1996). More recently, employees are becoming increasingly outraged with perceived violations of fair interpersonal treatment (Mikula, Petrik, & Tanzer, 1990; Quigley & Tedeschi, 1996; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). Research to date has failed to examine whether employees' judgments of managerial accountability predict their perceptions of interactional fairness, or the manner in which they are treated. By

examining whether employees' perceptions of fairness are related to a manager's conduct, we may begin to understand why interactional justice often "outweighs" distributive (i.e., outcome fairness) and procedural justice (i.e., process fairness) in determining the nature of responses to perceived injustices (Folger, in press). In doing so, this research might establish a more complete understanding of organizational justice theories. Thus, this study will examine whether judgments of managerial accountability predict an employee's perceptions of fairness and whether these perceptions are related to an employee's level of resentment and retaliatory intentions.

Aspects of Folger's (1987, 1993) referent cognition theory (RCT) and Weiner's (1995) attributional theory of social conduct will be used to examine the processes guiding an individual's judgments of accountability. Although each theory provides a unique perspective on the factors motivating an individual's behavior, they share the common underlying assumption that individuals try to make sense of their environments in response to events that are unexpected, negative, or both (Brockner & Wisenfeld, 1996). Therefore, the present study will demonstrate how aspects of these theories complement each other to enhance our understanding of the role of accountability in determining employees' perceptions of fairness and reactions to a negative event. The following section provides the theoretical bases for the study.

Justice Theories

Distributive justice refers to the perceived fairness of a given outcome. Homans (1961) originated the concept of distributive justice to refer to a social exchange process in which (a) the rewards attained would be proportional to their costs and (b) the profits

would be proportional to their investments. Adams (1965) extended Homans (1961) notion to develop a theory of inequity, whereby individuals form ratios of their inputs (i.e., contributions) and outputs (i.e., rewards) and compare them to referent others or their own historical self. Adams (1965) stated that inequity exists when an individual's ratio of inputs and outputs are greater or less than a referent other. Inequity can also exist when an individual's present outcomes do not coincide with previous outcomes, social standards, or expectations (Cropanzano & Randall, 1993). Feelings of inequity are believed to cause tension and individuals are motivated to restore equity either behaviorally or cognitively. For example, an employee is likely to perceive a layoff as unjustified when the ratio of their inputs, such as their loyalty to an organization, is not related to their outputs, such as the loss of a job. Inequity can increase a person's desire to reduce tension and re-establish equity by punishing a perceived wrongdoer, which in the case of layoffs is typically the employee's manager or supervisor (Skarlicki, Ellard, & Kelln, 1998).

Although distributive justice and equity theories initially gained substantial recognition in the scientific literature, researchers have also suggested that individuals' perceptions of fairness were determined by more than just outcomes. As a result, research in organizational justice shifted toward examining the processes (i.e., procedural justice) that coincided with the outcomes (i.e., distributive justice). Thibaut and Walker (1975) proposed that individuals view procedures as a means of enhancing their own outcomes. They examined two aspects of control that individuals utilize in decision-making: process control, which refers to the extent to which an individual has control

over the procedures; and decision control, which refers to the extent to which an individual has control over a given outcome. These researchers also found that individuals given voice in the process increased their perceptions of procedural fairness. Later research by Leventhal, Karuza, and Fry (1980) found that fair procedures involved more than just control or voice over the given processes. Leventhal et al. (1980) argued that allocation decisions are fair to the degree that they are (a) consistent, (b) suppress bias, (c) use accurate information, (d) provide opportunities to correct errors, (e) are made with appropriate parties being represented, and (f) do not violate ethical standards. It has been suggested that following a negative outcome, when the procedures are perceived to be fair, individuals are less likely to react negatively than if the procedures are considered unfair (Cropanzano & Folger, 1989).

Procedural justice has been applied to examine several organization justice issues. For example, when the procedures are perceived to be fair, research has shown that it has led individuals to be more accepting of smoking bans (Greenberg, 1994), pay systems (Miceli, 1993; Miceli & Lane, 1991), parental leave policies (Grover, 1991), and disciplinary actions (Ball, Trevino, & Sims, 1994). In fact, research has demonstrated that procedural justice is a concern for employees in all aspects of organizations involving human resource interventions (for reviews see Folger & Cropanzano, 1998; Tyler & Smith, 1997).

Organizational justice research has also examined an interpersonal component of fairness that has been found to be critical in determining an employee's overall perceptions of justice (Konovsky & Brockner, 1996). Bies and Moag (1986) coined the

term “interactional justice” to refer to an individual’s concern with the quality of interpersonal treatment they receive in a given process. Two important aspects of interactional justice include whether individuals are treated with sensitivity, and whether explanations for decisions are clearly and adequately given to those affected by the decision-making process (Bies & Moag, 1986; Folger & Bies, 1989). Management often shows varying levels of dignity, respect, and adequate information to their employees when delivering negative information (Skarlicki et al., 1998). These varying components can affect an employee’s perceptions of interactional fairness. For example, research has shown that following a negative event, employees given adequate explanations reacted less negatively than employees given inadequate explanations for negative outcomes (Konovsky & Brockner, 1996).

Early theoretical and empirical work regarded interactional justice as a distinct component of justice, where procedural justice referred to the formal aspects of the process and interactional justice referred to the interpersonal treatment one received during a work allocation (Bies, 1987; Bies & Moag, 1986; Bies & Shapiro, 1988). More recently, justice researchers have begun to view interactional justice as part of the procedures utilized in determining outcomes (Cropanzano & Randall, 1993; Folger, 1993; Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991). Bies shifted away from his earlier assertions to suggest that interactional justice is part of a broader concept of procedural justice (Tyler & Bies, 1990). Although some researchers argue that procedural and interactional justice should be integrated into a single form of justice, there has been a lack of empirical evidence testing the validity of this assumption (Masterson & Taylor, 1996).

Recently, it has been suggested that procedural and interactional justice should be theoretically separated (Bies, in press; Cropanzano & Prehar, 1999). If the two variables predict different criteria, then they should be viewed as separate constructs (Cronbach & Meehl, 1995), even if they are empirically correlated (McCornack, 1956). Cropanzano and Prehar (1999) tested this assumption using social exchange theory. Their research found that procedural justice applied more to the exchange between the individual and the employing organization, and interactional justice generally referred to the exchange between the individual and his/her supervisor. Furthermore, their research demonstrated that procedural justice related more closely with the reactions toward upper management and organizational policies, and interactional justice related more closely with reactions toward one's supervisor and job performance.

This research emphasizes the importance of maintaining the distinction between procedural and interactional justice. Although perceptions of procedural and interactional justices are important for understanding organizational behaviors, for the purpose of the present research these forms of justice will be clearly distinguished and interactional fairness will be considered a distinct form of justice. In doing so, it will allow attention to be focused on the particular area of interest, namely interactional justice.

Injustice and Reactions to Layoffs

Organizational justice researchers have examined layoff victims' reactions to perceived injustices. Greenberg (1991c) examined assembly line workers' views on working for their company. Employees gave written descriptions of their views on two

accounts -- both six weeks before any layoffs from the company, and immediately following the distribution of layoff notices. The layoff notices manipulated both procedural and interactional justice. Levels of procedural justice had been created by the provision of lengthy explanations for the layoff (i.e., high procedural justice condition) or by the provision of very limited explanations (i.e., low procedural justice condition). In addition, interactional justice had been manipulated by sincere expressions of regret for the layoff (i.e., high interactional justice condition) or statements without regret for this action (i.e., low interactional justice condition). This information had been supplemented with notices stating whether the individual had been laid off or that another employee had been laid off.

Following the layoff, results indicated that descriptions of the company became increasingly negative. It had also been demonstrated that among the layoff victims, statements illustrating high levels of procedural and interactional justice mitigated employees' negative reactions. Layoff victims receiving high levels of both procedural and interactional justice exhibited the lowest negative reactions to the layoffs. Overall, these studies lend support to the importance of procedural and interactional justice in mitigating negative attitudinal and behavioral reactions to negative outcomes.

To further examine the impact of procedural and interactional justice, Konovsky and Folger (1991a) interviewed approximately 350 recently laid-off employees from a variety of corporations. Employees were surveyed on several procedural justice (e.g., tapping decision-making accuracy, absence of bias) and interactional justice items (e.g., the manner in which the layoff was communicated). Researchers found that employees

reporting high levels of procedural and interactional justice, requested fewer government regulations of layoffs and were more willing to recruit for their former employer.

In a similar study, Brockner et al. (1994) examined whether the degree of advanced notice employees received impacted their desire for government regulations of layoffs. In contrast to the previous study, Brockner et al. (1994) also examined the impact of providing employees with adequate or inadequate severance packages as a means of distributive justice. Findings indicated that employees increased their desire for government regulations of layoffs when they were given inadequate severance packages, such that their low distributive justice was low, but only when the procedures were also perceived to be unfair.

Folger (1994) also examined the impact of managers providing consistent or inconsistent explanations for layoffs to their employees. These explanations included attempts to justify the negative outcome by placing an emphasis on whether the layoffs had been consistent with the principles of procedural justice, and whether accurate information had been used in determining the layoffs. Folger (1994) found that employees who were provided with consistent principles and adequate explanations for the layoffs reacted less negatively than employees who were given inconsistent principles and/or inadequate explanations for their layoffs.

Greenberg, Lind, Scott, and Welchans (1995) examined the positive effects of explanations given for an outcome perceived to be unfair. Greenberg et al. (1995) found that employees treated with social sensitivity during the announcements of a layoff not only increased their perceptions of fairness, but also lowered their desire to seek legal

action against their former employers. In contrast, employees who felt they were treated unfairly had an increased tendency to seek legal damages against a former employer. In interviews with layoff victims, 40% considered bringing forward a lawsuit, 23% spoke to a lawyer, and 7% filed a lawsuit. Furthermore, the strongest predictor of an employee's willingness to take some form of legal action was their perceptions that they had been treated without dignity and respect.

Although procedural, interactional, and distributive justice had initially been examined in isolation of each other, Brockner and Wisenfeld (1996) confirmed in over forty laboratory and field studies the interactive effects of the different types of justice on an individual's reactions to a given outcome. Following a negative outcome when procedures are perceived to be unfair individuals are more likely to view the outcome as unjustified than if procedures are perceived to be fair (Bies, 1987). Cropanzano and Folger (1991) stated that "outcomes and procedures work together to create a sense of injustice" (p. 136).

Until recently, researchers focused on the extent to which levels of procedural and interactional justice interact separately with distributive justice to determine an individual's perceptions and reactions to fairness outcomes. Skarlicki and Folger (1997) investigated the joint effects of these three forms of justice on organizational retaliatory behaviors defined as employees' attempts to respond to unfair treatment (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). The findings from their study indicated that a three-way interaction existed among the three forms of organizational justice. A relationship between distributive justice and retaliation was found only when there was low interactional and

procedural justice. The two-way interaction of distributive and procedural justice was observed only at a low level of interactional justice and the two-way interaction of distributive and interactional justice was observed only at low levels of procedural justice. In other words, levels of interactional justice moderated the need for high procedural justice and levels of procedural justice moderated the need for high interactional justice. This study also found that following low distributive justice, low levels of both procedural and interactional justice led to the most frequent reporting of organizational retaliatory behaviors.

Recently, there has been an increased interest among researchers in examining forms of workplace retaliation directed toward unfair managers (Folger & Baron, 1996; Folger & Skarlicki, 1999; Neuman & Baron, 1996; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Shapiro, Lewicki, & Devine, 1995). Although the vast majority of research has focused on direct, aggressive forms of retaliation, there has been a paucity of research examining the more indirect, subtle forms of retaliation that may actually be more damaging to an organization (Neuman & Baron, 1996). For example, following a layoff, employees may become motivated to publicly criticize their manager or spread rumors against their former employer. Research has suggested that employees may be more likely to choose to aggress in a covert manner (e.g., spread rumors) in an attempt to avoid retaliation (Neuman & Baron, 1996). Furthermore, Homans (1961) stated that individuals' attempts to restore justice are often indirect when the target of perceived injustice is more powerful than an individual, as is often the case in employment relationships. Consequently, it is important to examine the conditions in which employees are likely to

engage in the more subtle forms of retaliation that may be detrimental to the survival of an organization.

Incorporating Accountability into Fairness Theories

Although justice theories have focused on employees' perceptions and reactions to negative events, they have not considered the perceptions of managerial accountability. Accountability has been defined as the duty of an individual to perform up to certain prescribed standards by fulfilling duties, obligations, and other societal expectations (Schlenker, Britt, Pennington, Murphy, & Doherty, 1994). When people are held accountable for their actions, they can be required to explain and justify their actions, and their behaviors are often judged or investigated by society. In this regard, accountability is viewed as the mechanism through which society judges the conduct of their members. Members of society evaluate and either reward or punish an individual based on their judgments of accountability (Schlenker et al., 1994).

Judgments of accountability are based on three critical elements, which make up the triangle model of accountability (Schlenker et al., 1994). The level of integration of these elements often determines an actor's level of responsibility. The three elements include (a) the *prescriptions* or rules of conduct, (b) an individual's *identity* components that are relevant to the situation, and (c) the level of control that an individual seemed to have over the occurrence of an *event*. The elements can be described as follows. First, the *prescriptions* provide an individual with information on the particular way to carry out one's actions and include, for example, information on laws or moral codes of conduct. Thus, an individual may be held accountable when the prescriptions or rules of

conduct are violated. Second, an individual's *identity* refers to the components of one's identity that are relevant to a given situation (e.g., the prescriptions). The nature of the prescriptions make them applicable to some individuals and not to others. For example, the sick or the young can often be excused from societal obligations and expectations because it does not make sense to hold them accountable for actions in which they may not have anticipated or have control over. However, to the extent that an individual's identity can be linked to an event, inferences of accountability can be construed. And finally, the *events* refer to units of action and their outcomes and an individual can be held accountable if they seemed to have control over an event or an event is regarded as intentionally committed. For example, a manager, by virtue of that identity, is obligated to treat his/her employees in a certain prescribed manner, such as treating employees with dignity and respect, and the manager can be sanctioned by society for failing to follow these prescriptions. In this view, responsibility links a manager through his/her *identity* to the layoff *event* and to the moral codes that guide this form of conduct, or the relevant *prescriptions*. Thus, these three elements function interdependently in determining an individual's level of accountability.

Similarly, to understand an individual's perceptions of social fairness, Folger (in press) examined the moral accountability of others' actions. Folger (in press) also suggested three components that are essential in determining the degree to which people can hold an individual morally accountable. These items include (a) whether an individual's conduct impacts onto others, (b) whether an individual follows the principles or guidelines that are used to regulate their action, and (c) whether such conduct affects

others' well being. Following a negative event, an attempt is made to determine whether an individual could have acted otherwise. If others perceive that an individual could have controlled the occurrence of a negative event, it is more likely that their behavior will be regarded as intentional (Folger, in press). Research has found that negative acts that are regarded as intentionally committed are viewed as more damaging (Darley & Huff, 1990). In turn, the more intentional a negative act is perceived, the more harm tends to be attributed toward a perceived harmdoer. Such perceptions have been shown to lead to attributions of blame and feelings of anger (Quigely & Tedeschi, 1996). To gain a better understanding of these processes, the following theoretical framework has been applied.

Theoretical Framework

Over the years, various theories have been developed to describe the process that guides an individual to determine whether or not they received a favorable outcome. Folger's (1987) Referent Cognition Theory (RCT) has been applied to account for the interactional effects of distributive and procedural justice on an individual's feelings of resentment toward a decision-maker. Folger (1987) describes two aspects that determine whether negative reactions occur following an outcome: (a) whether an outcome associated with a decision are lower than an individual anticipated, and (b) whether the procedures that lead to the outcome are perceived to be unfair.

Following a negative outcome, Folger (1987) stated that individuals engage in a process of counterfactual thinking where they attempt to imagine more favorable outcomes. When procedures are perceived to be fair, it is difficult for individuals to imagine alternative outcomes (Folger, 1987). However, when procedures are perceived

to be unfair, individuals are more likely to imagine other outcomes that could and would have happened if only the decision-maker had implemented fair procedures. For example, employees are more likely to perceive a negative event as unjustified if the procedures implemented are seen as unfair, such as a manager's inconsistent manner in implementing layoffs.

More recently, Folger (1993) suggested that the manner in which people are treated also determines their perceptions of an event. According to Folger (1993), decision-makers are also morally obligated to provide others with fair interpersonal treatment. Although the treatment of an individual does not alter a given outcome, for example, a laid-off employee is still laid off, it does reflect important aspects of a decision-maker's conduct that can affect whether negative reactions will follow. It has been shown that an unfavorable outcome accompanied by improper conduct has led recipients to feel particularly resentful toward a decision-maker (Folger, 1993). However, by treating individuals with dignity and respect, a decision-maker fulfills his/her moral obligation and in doing so, dissociates himself/herself from the negative outcome. In turn, diminished feelings of resentment tend to be elicited toward a decision-maker. In sum, RCT suggests that the link between the presence of both unfair outcomes and unfair procedures, including poor interpersonal treatment, elicits the greatest level of resentment toward a decision-maker.

Further research has indicated that certain forms of conduct allow inferences of intent more readily than others (Folger, in press). It has been suggested that the degree of interpersonal sensitivity shown by a manager may provide the most direct basis for

inferring intent (Folger, in press). A manager might not have control over a negative work outcome or an outcome that results from the procedures enacted; however, a manager often does have control over the extent to which employees are treated with dignity and respect, and whether clear and adequate explanations are provided to those affected by the decision-making process (Bies & Moag, 1986; Folger & Bies, 1989). This is consistent with previous research that has suggested that interactional justice was a stronger predictor of behavior than procedural or distributive justice (Greenberg, 1988; Mikula, Petrik, & Tanzer, 1990). Although Folger (1987, 1993) focused on the role of the decision-maker, the present research will examine the role of the messenger, as employees are more likely to infer intent from the actions of an individual that interacts with an employee directly (Cropanzano & Prehar, 1999; Folger, in press).

Parallel to Folger's (1987, 1993) RCT, Weiner's (1995) attributional theory of social conduct should also assist in explaining the variability in employees' reactions to negative events. Weiner's (1995) attributional theory has been applied to several domains within organizational settings, including personnel selection (Belec & Rowe, 1983; Struthers, Colwill & Perry, 1992; Tucker & Rowe, 1979), personnel decision-making (Ashkanasy, 1995; Green & Mitchell, 1979; Struthers, Weiner, & Allred, 1998), and coworker interactions (Struthers, Miller, Boudens, & Briggs, in press). Weiner's (1995) theory describes the process individuals engage in when making inferences about the causes of outcomes and how these inferences affect their judgments of responsibility, emotions, and social interactions. Consistent with Folger's (1987, 1993) RCT, individuals expect and desire both the procedures they receive and the outcomes of

events to be favorable. Consequently, individuals are more likely to engage in causal attributional thinking following unfair procedures, unfair outcomes, or both (Weiner, 1985; Wong & Weiner, 1981). It has been found that unexpected or negative events heighten an individual's sensitivity to be influenced by external cues (Brockner & Wisenfeld, 1996; DeNisi, Cafferty, Meglino, 1984). Thus, when unfair outcomes are regarded as negative and unexpected, it increases an individual's likelihood of being affected by procedural information. Furthermore, individuals encountering unfair procedures can believe that favorable outcomes are not ensured in the future. For instance, if a manager implements layoffs in an inconsistent manner, layoff survivors, or those who remain with the organization, might believe that they will also encounter unfair procedures in the future (Brockner et al., 1994).

According to Weiner's (1995) theory, individuals tend to search for the cause following a negative event. Individuals often attempt to determine whether there had been personal or situational causality involved. It is only with personal causality that inferences of responsibility can be construed. This occurs as an individual's actions are often viewed as both controllable and intentionally committed. On the other hand, situational factors are not regarded as controllable or intentional, and as a result, an individual is less likely to be held accountable for negative outcomes that are attributed to a given situation. Both controllability and intentionality are among the general properties of attributions of responsibility that influence interpersonal emotions and behaviors (Betancourt & Blair, 1992). In addition, causes inferred for negative events are also differentiated along the locus and stability causal dimensions. That is, individuals are

more likely to be held accountable for negative events that are attributed to something about them (i.e., internal locus) that is viewed as unstable over time (e.g., effort). In comparison, individuals are held less accountable for negative events that are attributed to events that are external to them (i.e., external locus) and stable over time (e.g., low socioeconomic status).

When an individual makes inferences of responsibility for a negative event, feelings of anger are often generated against a perceived wrongdoer (Averill, 1982, 1983; Frijda, 1986; Weiner, 1986). Weiner (1995) states that anger is a direct result of an individual's perception that a moral code has been violated, and in turn, a perceived wrongdoer is often held accountable for the negative event. In complement to Folger's (1986) theory, Weiner (1995) found that anger is often a value judgment that follows from the belief that another person could and should have done otherwise, such as the provision of fair interpersonal treatment. Furthermore, anger has been found to elicit a tendency to retaliate with some form of aggression to prevent the perceived harmdoer from continuing the unfavorable behavior (Betancourt & Blair, 1992). For example, if a manager is perceived to be responsible for unfair interpersonal treatment, an employee will likely experience feelings of anger, which in turn can lead to an increased tendency for an employee to engage in some form of retaliation. However, it has been shown that anger can be lessened if the person undergoing that feeling receives information that decreases his/her perceptions of a manager's control. As an example, layoff victims may transfer their feelings of anger toward a manager if they learn that the layoffs resulted from situational factors that had been beyond a manager's control. Thus, Weiner's (1995)

theory makes clear predictions about how an employee might respond to a layoff decision and provide information about why the reactions occur.

The attribution framework was chosen for several reasons. First, attributions can play an important role in examining what an individual will perceive as fair, and might also provide the reasons for the perceived unfairness. Second, attributions may provide an explanation for the interaction between interactional and distributive justice (Brockner & Wisenfeld, 1996). That is, the attribution framework might help to explain how high levels of interactional justice can mitigate individuals' negative reactions following an unfavorable outcome. Third, organizational justice theories might be considered more complete by examining the role of managerial accountability in determining peoples' perceptions and reactions to layoff practices. And finally, while there is a great deal of empirical research on the justice framework in layoff contexts, there is a lack of research which examines the link between justice and attributions.

Fairness and Accountability

There has been little empirical research that has examined the role of accountability with regard to individuals' perceptions of fairness. Previous research has suggested that individuals make inferences from the procedures and interpersonal treatment they received from a decision-maker (Bies & Shapiro, 1987, 1988). In both laboratory and field studies, Bies and Shapiro (1987, 1988) examined whether causal accounts or explanations provided by a decision-maker contributed to an individual's perception of fairness. These authors found that perceptions of fairness increased when a manager provided explanations for a negative outcome. It was suggested that

explanations contributed to the appearance of fair procedures by allowing individuals to determine whether the messenger had suppressed his/her biases and acted according to the roles of social conduct (Leventhal et al., 1980). That is, the provision of explanations affected fairness judgments by eliminating the perceptions of a messenger's motives or intentions (Bies, 1987).

Further research by Rousseau and Anton (1988) and Rousseau and Aquino (1993) examined whether individuals take into account the actions or responsibilities of a decision-maker in determining their perceptions of fairness following a negative work event. Employees' perceptions of fairness with regards to job terminations have been examined to determine a victim's reactions to their being laid-off. Participants were presented with hypothetical profiles in which the levels of distributive justice and aspects of procedural justice pertaining to a layoff were manipulated. As well, these studies examined whether explanations for negative outcomes mitigated employees' negative reactions toward the decision-maker. Similar to earlier findings (Bies & Shapiro, 1987, 1988), the authors found that providing employees with adequate explanations for termination decisions increased their perceptions of the fairness of the outcome and legitimated the actions of the decision-maker. Employees who were informed that their layoffs had been due to economic and technological changes had increased perceptions of fairness of the layoff as well as the decision-maker relative to individuals who did not receive explanations for the layoffs (Rousseau & Anton, 1988, Rousseau & Aquino, 1993). Thus, it is apparent that following negative outcomes, it is in the best interest of managers to provide their employees with high levels of procedural justice to increase

both the employees' perceptions of fairness of the event as well as the decision-maker's actions.

A parallel can be made between the notion of interactional justice as conceived by Bies (1986) and the relational approaches that include the group value model (Lind & Tyler, 1988) and the relational model of authority (Tyler & Lind, 1990). It has been suggested that all of these approaches involve what has been referred to as "dignity concerns", which pertain to the manner in which individuals are treated (Folger, in press). More specifically, they involve concerns when one's self-identity or social status is perceived to be threatened. For example, when a manager provides an inadequate and/or insincere explanation (i.e., violation of interactional justice), employees are likely to take this as a sign of managerial contempt and feelings of insult may result (Folger, in press). This can be viewed as similar to making a person feel isolated from a group that an individual considers important to their identity -- a manager could be considered to be violating aspects of recognition if status to a group member was denied (Folger, in press). This suggests that the procedures are what are considered important in determining group members' perceptions of fairness. Although the type of demeanor or indignity may vary from the individual to the group level, which is exhibited through interactional versus procedural justice, it has been suggested that the underlying accountability determinants are similar (Folger, in press). As a result, it seems that as procedural justice is to the relational approach, accountability is to interactional justice in explaining its underlying psychological mechanisms.

The Present Research

Although previous studies have examined employees' perceptions of a manager's obligations and responsibilities with regards to a negative outcome (Folger, in press; Rousseau & Anton, 1988; Rousseau & Aquino, 1993), research has not yet examined whether individuals make inferences about a manager's conduct in regards to the level of interpersonal treatment they receive. As previous research has suggested that interactional justice might be the most direct way of inferring intent (Folger, in press), this study can assist in explaining why studies of violations of interactional justice often outweigh reportings of procedural and distributive injustices (Folger, in press).

Both Folger's (1987, 1993) referent cognition theory and Weiner's (1995) attributional theory of social conduct can be used to explain the importance of accountability in predicting an individual's perceptions and reactions to layoff practices. Aspects of these theories form the bases for the present study, which examined whether an employee's inferences of managerial accountability predicted their perceptions of fairness, feelings of resentment, and retaliatory intentions. Although these theories stem from different areas of justice, this study will examine how aspects of RCT and attribution theory can be used to extend justice theories to include accountability. In addition, even though these theories discuss the importance of intentionality, it has never been measured directly (Quigley & Tedeschi, 1996). The present research extends on previous studies by measuring employees' perceptions of fairness as well as their behavioral intentions. It is important to emphasize that this study does not attempt to determine the relative value of the organizational justice versus attribution frameworks.

but rather the utility of both theories for furthering our understanding of individuals' perceptions and reactions following a negative outcome. In this study, the levels of interactional justice and accountability will be varied to examine whether respondents take into account these dimensions in determining their perceptions of fairness, feelings of resentment, and retaliatory intentions. Thus, the following hypotheses will be examined:

H₁: Interactional justice explains significant variance in predicting individuals' fairness perceptions, feelings of resentment, and retaliatory intentions.

H₂: Accountability explains significant incremental variance in addition to interactional justice in predicting individuals' fairness perceptions; feelings of resentment, and retaliatory intentions.

Previous research on impression management has suggested that fairness can be socially construed and the idea that people seek to attach the label of fairness to their behaviors has become one of the most important implications of impression management (Greenberg, 1990). In accordance with impression management theories, it has further been suggested that following a negative outcome, the sensitivity or sincerity of an individual's actions can be inferred by the explanations provided. An individual's failure to provide an explanation for a negative outcome has been found to lead others to view one's actions as insincere or insensitive and this insincerity can be viewed as a violation of a "right to know" (Greenberg, 1990), especially when it is regarded as controllable or intentionally committed. Research has not examined whether perceptions of managerial

intentionality that follow from the provision of an inadequate explanation heighten an individual's negative perceptions and reactions. Thus, it is predicted that under conditions of low interactional justice, when an inadequate explanation has been provided, low levels of accountability elicit individuals to have higher perceptions of fairness, and lower feelings of resentment and retaliatory intentions than at high levels of accountability. That is, individuals who do not hold a manager accountable for the provision of an inadequate explanation will react more positively than individuals who hold a manager accountable for his/her actions.

When individuals are provided with an explanation for a negative outcome that is perceived to be sincere, it has been shown to mitigate individuals' negative perceptions and behavioral outcomes (Campbell, 1999). When an explanation is perceived to be insincere or given in an insensitive manner, however, it has been found to increase perceptions of unfairness (Greenberg, 1990). Previous research has suggested that this occurs as a result of what has been referred to as "hallow justice". This concept refers to an individual's attempt of attaining the benefits of being recognized as fair to avoid negative reactions without actually behaving fairly (Greenberg, 1990). It is conceivable for an adequate explanation to mitigate negative perceptions and behavioral reactions following a negative event, as long as the explanation is not perceived to be manipulative. If, however, the explanation is perceived as manipulative, it is likely to backfire if insincerity is suspected (Liden & Mitchell, 1988). Consequently, even when individuals are provided with an adequate explanation for a negative outcome, it still must be construed as sincere for individuals to react positively. Research has not yet examined

whether perceptions of intentionality that follow from the provision of an adequate explanation heighten an individual's positive perceptions and behavioral intentions. It is therefore predicted that at high levels of interactional justice, low levels of accountability will elicit employees to have lower perceptions of fairness and higher feelings of resentment and retaliatory intentions than at high levels of accountability. That is, individuals who regard the manager's actions as intentional will react more positively than individuals who do not regard the manager's actions as intentionally committed. Thus, the following hypotheses were examined:

- H₃: At low levels of interactional justice, low levels of accountability elicit employees to have higher perceptions of fairness than the high accountability condition. At high levels of interactional justice, low levels of accountability elicit lower perceptions of fairness than the high accountability condition.
- H₄: At low levels of interactional justice, low levels of accountability elicit employees to have lower feelings of resentment than in the high accountability condition. At high levels of interactional justice, low levels of accountability elicit higher feelings of resentment than in the high accountability condition.
- H₅: At low levels of interactional justice, low levels of accountability elicit employees to have lower intentions to retaliate than in the high accountability condition. At high levels of interactional justice, low levels of accountability elicit higher intentions to retaliate than in the high accountability condition.

Policy-Capturing

The present study applied a policy-capturing approach to test the hypotheses presented above. In this approach, respondents are presented with a series of decision situations and are required to make judgments based on multiple sources of information, which are often referred to as cues. Multiple profiles are generated, with the levels of the cues varying across the set of profiles. Ideographic regression is used to analyze the series of judgments made on the profiles and to determine the contribution of the cue information in determining an individual's judgment policy. In using this methodology, one can assess the number of cues used as well as the use of nonlinear policies.

The policy-capturing methodology is based on Brunswik's (1955) probabilistic functionalism theory of perception. This theory postulates that experiments should be representative of the natural ecology of the environment in which the behavior of interest occurs. As a result, careful consideration should be given to the situations sample from an environment to enhance their level of generalizability (McIntyre & James, 1995). Researchers using this approach are most interested in examining the different weights that raters assign in making their judgments, as well as the reliability and consistency with which they make their judgment decisions (Cooksey, 1996).

Policy-capturing analyses lack an external criterion and instead focus on manipulating several cues concurrently to determine an individual's cue weighting system or judgment policy. That is, policy-capturing describes the rating policy or strategy used by an individual rater by examining how raters use different pieces of information in making judgment decisions.

The typical policy-capturing study proceeds as follows. A rater is presented with a series of decision situations called "profiles" in which the values of the attributes, or "cues", are varied. The rater evaluates a number of stimuli, each of which is characterized by one or more dimensions, having several possible levels. Ideographic regression techniques are then used to examine how a rater weights and combines cue information in making decisions. In using this technique, the judgments are regressed onto the cues. The resulting regression equation represents an individual's idiosyncratic method of combining and weighting information. The beta coefficients indicate the relative weightings of the predictor elements for the rater's decisions. The multiple R's indicate the consistency with which the rater uses the cues from scenario to scenario. The goal of policy-capturing is to understand a person's decision-making policy by observing the relationship between the predictor variables or cues and the decision-making by the individual (Slovic & Lichtenstein, 1971). This technique is typically carried out for a set of raters, with weights calculated for each rater based on the same profiles. Rating policies can then be compared across raters.

The policy-capturing approach has been used in a variety of organizational settings. Researchers have used policy-capturing techniques to study managers' pay raise and pay allocation decisions (Deshpande & Schoderbek, 1993; Sherer, Schwab, & Heneman, 1987), the importance of tasks within jobs (Sanchez & Levine, 1989), disciplinary decisions (Klaas & Wheeler, 1990), job choice decisions (Cable & Judge, 1994; Judge & Bretz, 1992; Rynes & Lawler, 1983), employment interviews (Dougherty, Ebert, & Callender, 1986), and the fairness of layoff processes (Hemingway, 1998;

Rousseau & Anton, 1988; Rousseau & Aquino, 1988). Although there have been a few studies that have examined organizational justice and attribution theories separately using a policy-capturing approach, the present study is an initial attempt to examine the contributions of both these theories together.

Policy-capturing techniques seem well suited to examine what information employees' use in making judgments about their manager following a negative work outcome. More specifically, the present study applied policy-capturing methods to: (a) investigate the relative contribution of managerial accountability and level of interpersonal treatment on raters' judgments, (b) examine participants' interactive policies in making judgments, (c) explore rater reliability and consistency across profiles, and (d) compare raters on various individual difference variables through exploratory analyses.

Methods

Participants

Sixty-seven management students from the University of Calgary volunteered to complete a questionnaire examining the way employees use various types of information to make judgments about a manager during the process of a hypothetical layoff. Four participants were dropped from the analysis because of missing data. These participants did not provide responses for the majority of the questionnaire. The remaining participants consisted of Master's of Business Administration (MBA) students ($n = 41$) and business school undergraduates ($n = 22$). Fifty-nine percent of the participants were male and 41% were female. Participants ranged in age from 21 to 51 years with an average age of 29 years ($SD = 6.72$). The majority of respondents (68%) indicated that

they had been in an organization where layoffs occurred, while 24% had been laid off themselves. In addition, 68% of the respondents indicated a minimum of two years of supervisory or managerial experience, and 16% of respondents had been involved in conducting layoffs. This sample constituted both a group of "reasonable third parties" (Bok, 1978), as well as individuals with business and managerial experience.

Participants were considered to be familiar with the task domain and the type of decisions they made in the profiles were considered to be congruent with those they have made in their organizations (Cooksey, 1996).

Stimulus Materials

Context. A layoff context was chosen because the incident was familiar to employees in most organizations. In addition, the context had to be sufficiently negative to arouse participants' sense that their manager had potentially violated a moral code of conduct (Boon & Sulsky, 1997). Finally, it was important that the manipulations of the cues of interest would be possible within the selected context.

Contextual Background Information. A contextual paragraph was included on the initial instruction form to provide respondents with background information on the employee and the organization (see Appendix A). It was important to provide participants with background information to be clear about what the participants must know and assume about the judgment task and the cue profiles when making their judgment decisions. As well, it was important to minimize the likelihood of respondents engaging in their own contextual developments about the employee in the profiles (Cooksey, 1996). Respondents were informed that a well-established

telecommunications company in western Canada was undergoing restructuring. They were also informed of: (a) the duration the employee had worked with the organization, as researchers have shown that seniority often plays a role in determining who will be laid-off by an organization (Rousseau & Aquino, 1993); (b) the relationships the employee developed in the organization; and (c) the past and present performance levels exhibited by the employee. In particular, it was stated that the employee worked with the organization for an eight year period, which is considered long-term, had established good working relations with coworkers and management, and had received above average performance reviews over the last few years.

Respondents were asked to consider this information before engaging in the rating task to minimize their likelihood of attributing the layoff to the performance level of the employee (Rousseau & Aquino, 1988). In other words, as it was stated that the employee had adequately performed the tasks of the job and had developed strong working relations, the decision scenarios that followed reflected the termination of a satisfactory or competent employee. This type of employee is considered the typical case when layoffs or terminations are due to a decline in the demand for workers stemming from competition or changing technology (Rousseau & Aquino, 1993). The employee's gender was kept neutral and a male manager was kept constant throughout the profiles.

Cue Selection

Organizational justice and attribution theories were examined to determine the cues of interest (Bies & Moag, 1986; Folger, in press; Folger & Bies, 1989; Weiner, 1995). Cues were identified and generated based on a group of experts consisting of

three professors and a graduate student as well as a review of the extant literature. In determining the number of cues, considerations were given to raters' cognitive limitations and the potential for information redundancy. Since research in decision-making suggests that combinations of three or fewer cues can lead to judgments with a high degree of accuracy (Cooksey, 1996; Sanchez & Levine, 1989; Slovic & Lichtenstein, 1971; Ullman & Doherty, 1984), two cues were considered sufficient to account for most of the variance in the ratings in this study. In particular, dichotomous levels of accountability and interactional justice were manipulated in the profiles as follows:

Accountability. The present study focused on the moral accountability of others' conduct in an attempt at explaining social fairness (Folger, in press). Moral accountability refers to the duty of a manager to perform consistent with certain prescribed standards by fulfilling duties, obligations, and other societal expectations (Folger, in press; Schlenker et al., 1994). The manager's actions were operationalized in terms of whether his/her treatment toward the employee had been regarded as intentional or unintentional (Folger, in press). More specifically, high levels of accountability were operationalized in terms of intentional or controllable managerial conduct, whereas low levels of accountability were operationalized in terms of unintentional or uncontrollable managerial conduct.

Interactional Justice. In the present study, interactional justice refers to the level of interpersonal treatment exhibited by a manager (Bies & Moag, 1986, Konovsky and Brockner, 1996). Low levels of interactional justice were operationalized in terms of a

lack of respectful treatment and inadequate information provided by the manager. High levels of interactional justice were operationalized in terms of respectful treatment and adequate information provided by the manager toward the employee.

A managerial explanation can be thought of as comprising both the content of the message, in terms of what the manager says, and the interpersonal conduct of the messenger, in terms of the manager's demeanor (e.g., Bies & Shapiro, 1988; Greenberg, 1990). The present study focused on the provision of an explanation from which inferences of dignity and respect could be construed (Bobocel, in press; Hopkins & Hopkins, 1999). For example, when an employee is provided with an adequate explanation for a given outcome, the time and effort that is taken to do so has been shown to symbolize to employees that they are being treated with dignity and respect (Tyler & Bies, 1990). Dichotomous levels of the cue variables were generated because it was unrealistic for raters to comprehend additional levels and it would be difficult to create cue levels that described a manager's conduct as "somewhat" or "partially" intentional, or exemplify a manager that exhibited "some" degree of interpersonal treatment.

Profile Generation

Twenty hypothetical profiles were written for this study. Five of these profiles were randomly selected, duplicated, and randomly interspersed within the 20 profiles, giving a total of 25 profiles. The additional five profiles were included solely to assess the degree of intra-rater reliability among responses. Ten profiles were developed for each cue to ensure the results of multiple regression would be stable (Kline & Sulsky, 1995).

Five different situations in which the employee was informed of the layoff were used in creating the profiles. Various situations were created to enhance task appeal and to minimize respondent fatigue (Slovic & Lichtenstein, 1971). The situations were created by a panel of experts consisting of three professors, an outplacement consultant, and a graduate student with both research and practical experience in the areas of organizational downsizing and justice in the workplace. Counterbalancing was used to systematically vary the order of the conditions in the experiment to distribute the effects of time of testing (e.g., practice and fatigue), so they were not confounded with conditions.

Profiles of a hypothetical layoff were created by combining the variable cues into descriptive paragraphs. Each profile contained a level of one cue with a level of the other cue varying across profiles. Orthogonality was established among the cues by creating an equal representation of the cue combinations. The resulting 25 scenarios were systematically varied into three different orders and participants were randomly assigned to one of the three orders of the profile task. This process was carried out to minimize order effects and stereotypical or standardized rating processes (Rousseau & Aquino, 1993). By varying the order of the different situations, it was also anticipated that participants would consider reading each scenario more carefully (Judge & Martocchio, 1995).

A pre-test was conducted to determine the participants' level of profile comprehension, their ease of task completion, and the duration necessary to complete their judgements of the profiles (Boon & Sulsky, 1997). A sample profile is shown in Appendix B.

Measures

Perceptions of Fairness. Three items were adapted and modified from Skarlicki and Folger (1998) to determine participants' general perceptions of fairness. The items were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale. Participants were asked to indicate whether they felt they were treated fairly despite the outcome (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). Participants also indicated whether they felt they were treated with dignity and respect (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). In addition, they were asked to indicate whether they felt they had been treated fairly overall (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). The three items were summed to compute an overall fairness score for each participant by taking the mean of the three items. Higher scores indicated greater perceptions of fairness. The internal consistency was measured by Cronbach's alpha for perceptions of fairness across the 35 participants for each of the 20 profiles. For this measure, the alphas ranged from .50 to .98 with an average alpha of .89.

Resentment. Three items were adapted and modified from Skarlicki and Folger (1998) to determine whether participants felt resentment toward their manager. The items were measured using a 7-point Likert-type scale. Participants were asked to indicate whether they would feel upset (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree), resentment (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree), and anger (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree) toward the manager. The three items were summed to compute an overall resentment score for each participant by taking the mean of the three items. Higher scores indicated greater feelings of resentment. The internal consistency was measured by Cronbach's alpha for feelings of resentment across the 35

participants for each of the 20 profiles. For this measure, the alphas ranged from .81 to 1.00 with an average alpha of .95.

Retaliatory Intentions. Three items were adapted and modified from Skarlicki and Folger (1998) to determine whether participants were likely to engage in organizational retaliatory behaviors (ORB's). The items were measured using a 7-point Likert-type scale. Participants were asked to indicate whether they were willing to criticize (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree), protest (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree), and voice their opinion (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree), against this process. The three items were summed to compute an overall retaliation score for each participant by taking the mean of the three items. Higher scores indicated greater intentions to retaliate. The internal consistency was measured by Cronbach's alpha for retaliatory intentions across the 35 participants for each of the 20 profiles. For this measure, the alphas ranged from .68 to .97 with an average alpha of .89.

Manipulation Checks. Participants responded to two items after each profile that assessed whether they were using the interactional justice and accountability cues as intended. The items were measured using a 5-point Likert-type scale. They were asked to indicate whether the manager had given them a complete and adequate explanation for the company's decision, which reflected the level of interactional justice (1 = adequate explanation, 5 = inadequate explanation). They were also asked to indicate whether the manager had done all that he could to keep the employee informed or had intentionally withheld information, which tapped the level of accountability (1 = did all that he could, 5 = intentionally withheld information).

Locus of Control. The 16-item Work Locus of Control Scale (WLCS) was examined as an individual difference variable (Spector, 1988) (see Appendix C). Locus of control is a personality variable that has been defined as a general expectancy that outcomes in life are controlled either internally or externally (Spector, 1988). Rotter (1966) defines internal locus of control as an individual's belief that they have control over events in their lives and external locus of control is defined as an individual's belief that other factors, such as luck or powerful others, determine events in their lives. Items on this scale include, "it takes a lot of luck to be an outstanding employee on most jobs", and "promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job". The items were summed to compute an overall locus of control score.

It has been suggested that people with a high internal locus of control are likely to believe that they can control outcomes in their lives. If they cannot control the event, they tend to consider the fairness of the processes they received in regards to the outcome. In comparison, individuals high on external locus of control are more likely to view others as responsible for events in their lives (Shapiro et al., 1995; Dozier & Miceli, 1985). Thus, it was anticipated that participants with a high external locus of control would be more likely to hold their managers accountable for their negative work outcomes, regardless of the level of interpersonal treatment they receive (Spector, 1988). Items were reverse coded where appropriate. The internal consistency as measured by Cronbach's alpha for this measure was .76.

Neuroticism. Neuroticism was measured using one of the scales of the neuroticism facet of the Revised NEO PI form (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Neuroticism

refers to the emotional stability of an individual (Costa & McCrae, 1992). The 8-item Angry-hostility subscale of this facet was used to measure neuroticism (see Appendix D). Items on this scale include, "it takes a lot to get me mad" and "at times I have felt bitter and resentful". The items were summed to create an overall neuroticism score.

Angry-hostility was examined to determine whether there were differences between those who are predisposed to view things negatively or tend to possess higher levels of anger or resentment versus those who do not possess such dispositional tendencies. It was anticipated that individuals scoring high on the angry-hostility scale would be more likely to hold others accountable for their actions. In doing so, it was expected that these respondents would have lower perceptions of fairness and higher feelings of resentment and intentions to engage in retaliatory forms of behavior (Folger & Skarlicki, 1999). The items on the scale were reverse coded where appropriate. The internal consistency as measured by Cronbach's alpha for this measure was .77.

Other Variables. Participants were asked to provide responses to six demographic items (see Appendix E). They were asked to indicate their age and gender. They were also asked to indicate the number of times they had been in an organization where layoffs have occurred, the number of times they have been laid off, the number of years of supervisory or personal managerial experience, and whether they had conducted any layoffs. These variables were chosen, as it was of interest to explore whether there were differences between participants depending on their familiarity and experience with the task domain (Cooksey, 1996). The items were recoded into dichotomous variables to facilitate between-groups comparisons.

Design and Procedure

The present study used a two (interactional justice: fair interpersonal treatment versus unfair interpersonal treatment) by two (accountability: intentional treatment versus unintentional treatment) within-subjects design. A policy-capturing approach was used to understand an individual's decision-making policy.

Business students were solicited to participate in this study during their lecture periods. Participants were informed that the purpose of the study was to examine the perceived fairness and reactions to layoff practices. Participants were given a package of materials containing two copies of the consent form (see Appendix F), instructions, the 25 hypothetical profiles rating task, a 16-item Work Locus of Control Scale (WLCS), an 8-item angry-hostility subscale of the neuroticism facet, and six demographic response questions. Participants signed the informed consent form that outlined the anonymity and confidentiality of their responses as well as their rights to a summary of the results.

Participants read the instructions that accompanied the profiles rating task. The instructions defined the nature of the task, the scale items, and provided contextual information to use for the profiles. Participants were asked to imagine themselves as the employee in the profiles. After reading each profile, participants were asked to make judgments about their responses to the incident as it had been described. Following the profiles, participants completed the Work Locus of Control Scale (WLCS) and components of the Neuroticism facet of the Revised NEO-PI form. Participants were also asked to provide demographic information at the end of the questionnaire. Participants spent approximately 45 minutes to complete the tasks. Upon completion, all materials

were returned to the researcher and participants were debriefed on the nature of the study. In exchange for their participation, a guest lecture was given to them on either employer-employee relations or decision-making in the workplace.

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Manipulation Checks. Two 2 x 2 ANOVAs were conducted on measures of interactional justice and accountability for each individual to examine the effectiveness of the manipulations of the predictor cues. Forty-one respondents regarded the manipulations of interactional justice and accountability as intended. These participants regarded low levels of interpersonal treatment in the low condition and high levels of interpersonal treatment in the high condition. As well, participants viewed low levels of managerial accountability in the low condition and high levels of managerial accountability in the high condition. Twenty-two participants (14 MBA and eight management undergraduate students) failed to regard the predictor variables as intended and were excluded from further analyses. This process is in accordance with previous policy-capturing studies that have focused on analyzing a subgroup of the total sample (Judge & Bretz, 1992; York, 1989). It was considered appropriate to discard the participants who were not regarding the cues as intended, as validity at the individual level is paramount in policy-capturing studies. A series of t-tests were run to examine whether demographic differences existed between the individuals who regarded the predictor variables as intended and those who failed to do so. No significant differences were found at the .05 level between these two groups.

Cue Interrelations. For the remaining 41 participants (27 MBA and 14 management undergraduate students) who used the cues as intended, it was also deemed important to assess whether they were differentiating between the cues in making their judgments. However, cue intercorrelations were present with the use of subjective cue weightings. Intercorrelations were computed between each individual's interactional justice and accountability subjective cue ratings. Cue intercorrelations below .70 indicated that individuals were differentiating between the cues (Pedhazer, 1982; Rousseau and Aquino, 1993). Seven participants (four MBA and three management undergraduate students) had cue intercorrelations above .70 and were excluded from further analyses, as they were not differentiating between the cues. The remaining 35 participants (24 MBA and 11 management undergraduate students) with low to moderate cue intercorrelations were included in subsequent analyses. Their intercorrelations ranged from .03 to .70 and averaged .47.

Although the sample size had been reduced to a modest size, previous research has suggested that as few as ten respondents have been shown to be an adequate number to draw inferences about individuals' decision-making processes (Cooksey, 1996; Slovic & Lichtenstein, 1971). As well, the number of profiles created helped to ensure that the results of multiple regression would be stable, as a minimum of ten profiles were created for each cue (Kline & Sulsky, 1995).

Cue Weightings. To assess the consistency with which participants were applying their subjective cue weightings, point-biserial correlations were computed between the statistical, or the manipulated cue values in the profiles, and the subjective cue

weightings. The mean point-biserial correlations for interactional justice, $r_{pbis} = -.77$ (note: the statistical interactional justice cue is negative as it was reverse coded) and for accountability, $r_{pbis} = .61$ indicated that participants were fairly consistent in their assignment of subjective values. The subjective cue weightings were used in further analyses as they allow for more variability among participants' responses and present a more accurate representation of individuals' judgments than the statistical cue values (Cooksey, 1996; Klass & Wheeler, 1990). Furthermore, the experimenter or other external individuals may not perceive the dimensions in a similar manner to the individual (Krantz & Rode, 1984).

Order Effects. The potential for order effects across the three different versions of the profile task was also examined. A one-way ANOVA was used to test for order effects among the predictor and criterion measures. No significant differences were found at the .05 level. This indicated that there were no differences in responses among participants between the three different versions of the profile task. As a result, subsequent analyses were collapsed across the three different profile orderings.

Demographic Information

Participants included in the analyses consisted of MBA students ($n = 24$) and management undergraduate students ($n = 11$). No significant differences were found between MBA and undergraduate students at the .05 level among the predictor and criterion measures. Thus, the results were collapsed across the two participant groups. Sixty-three percent of the participants were male and 37% were female. Participants ranged in age from 21 to 45 years with an average age of 29 years ($SD = 6.12$). The

majority of the participants (69%) indicated that they have been in an organization where layoffs have occurred, and 20% have experienced a layoff themselves. In addition, 69% of the respondents indicated a minimum of two years of supervisory or managerial experience and 14% have conducted layoffs.

Hypothesis Testing

It was hypothesized that interactional justice (H_1) and accountability (H_2) would explain significant variance in predicting individuals' perceptions of fairness, feelings of resentment, and retaliatory intentions. To assess the relative weights given to each of the cues and the extent to which these weights might differ in regards to the type of judgement considered, multiple regression analyses were carried out for each participant (Boon & Sulsky, 1997). This was performed using interactional justice and accountability as the predictor variables and the participants' perceptions of fairness, feelings of resentment, and retaliatory intentions as the criterion variables. This method has often been utilized to determine the variance accounted for by each cue, apart from all the other cues (Kline & Sulsky, 1995). The standardized regression coefficients (i.e., beta weights) for the 35 participants are summarized in Table 1, including their significance levels. These coefficients estimate the weight each participant assigned to each of the cues in making their judgment decisions. The summary statistics for the standardized beta weights are included in Table 2.

Accurate descriptions of participants' policies require that the cues be statistically independent of one another (Ullman & Doherty, 1984). In this study, cue intercorrelations were present with the use of subjective cue weightings. This precluded

Table 1

Individual Participants' Standardized Beta Weights for Each Cue

SS	IJFair ¹	ACCFair ²	IjxAFair ³	IJRes ⁴	ACCRes ⁵	IJxARes ⁶	IJRet ⁷	ACCRet ⁸	IJxARet
01	-.338.	-.594**	.451	.383*	.581**	-1.097*	.339	.588*	-.182
02	-.297	-.659*	1.202	.260*	.735**	-.890	.286*	.724**	-.438
03	-.448**	-.569**	-.212	.213*	.853**	-.324	.397**	.743**	-.276
04	-.184	-.790**	-.173	.163	.779**	.036	.222	.703**	.165
05	-.321**	-.764**	.626	.270*	.744**	-1.089*	.384*	.612**	-.554
06	-.541**	-.565**	-.545	.331*	.681**	.005	.482**	.687**	.158
07	-.056	-.678**	.029	-.017	.613**	.147	.163	.171	.688
08	-.225**	-.873**	-.287	.376**	.772**	-.043	.271*	.766**	-.049
09	-.297	-.659**	1.202	.260*	.735**	-.890	.286*	.724**	-.438
10	-.224	-.753**	.893	.208	.736**	.330	.259	.636**	1.010
11	-.389*	-.573**	.807	.072	.875**	.327	-.027	.919**	-.432
12	-.150	-.863**	.241	.036	.921**	.050	.293*	.718**	.292
13	-.320*	-.720**	.502	.239*	.847**	.251	.124	.602**	-.376
14	-.634**	-.428**	.767**	.603*	.449**	-1.086**	.473*	.425*	-.689
15	-.175	-.778**	-.600	.330**	.760**	.471*	.187	.804**	.154
16	-.221	-.765**	.808	.235	.756**	-1.050	.212	.766**	1.037
17	-.206	-.791**	.726	.217	.760*	.250	.321	.544*	.629
18	.003	-.942**	.709	.003	.914**	-.148	.227	.711**	-.049
19	-.209	-.754**	.651	.229*	.780**	-.563	.159	.767**	.886
20	-.276*	-.748**	.306	.248**	.837**	.278	.106	.649**	-.199
21	-.159	-.785**	-.590	.308**	.758**	.261	.170	.822**	.141
22	-.200	-.729**	.434	.231	.753**	-.106	.216	.783**	.055
23	-.323	-.607**	1.328	.380*	.512*	-1.119	.119	.817**	-.581
24	-.309*	-.701**	.813	.353*	.655**	-.583	.269	.691**	1.392
25	-.295*	-.742**	.352	.295**	.810**	.261	.268	.306	-.350
26	.060	-.933**	.134	-.049	.287	-.534	-.077	.588*	.085
27	-.380*	-.555**	1.105*	.190*	.856**	-.104	.146	.869**	.068
28	-.194*	-.845*	.425	.196	.794*	.133	.297	.647*	.338
29	-.124	-.889**	.420	.053	.907**	.102	.336*	.629**	.543
30	-.270*	-.764**	.740*	.261*	.762**	.175	.298	.643**	.568
31	-.223	-.746**	.283	.298	.522*	-.768	.355*	.586**	-.694
32	-.204	-.756**	1.372*	.168	.811**	-1.348**	.304**	.730**	-.086
33	.344**	-.796**	.251	.296**	.819**	-.111	.343	.329	-.468
34	-.195	-.653**	.522	.296*	.704**	-.352	-.118	.649**	-.726
35	-.088	-.677**	1.945	.108	.743**	-1.739	-.121	.747**	-3.246

Note: *p < .05, **p < .01.

Table 1 (continued)

Table 1 (*continued*).

1. IJFair refers to the interactional justice cue for fairness.
2. ACCFair refers to the accountability cue for fairness.
3. IJxAFair refers to the interaction between interactional justice and accountability for fairness.
4. IJRes refers to the interactional justice cue for resentment.
5. ACCRes refers to the accountability cue for resentment.
6. IJxARes refers to the interaction between interactional justice and accountability for resentment.
7. IJRet refers to the interactional justice cue for retaliation.
8. ACCRet refers to the accountability cue for retaliation.
9. IJxARet refers to the interaction term between interactional justice and accountability for retaliation.

Table 2

Summary Statistics for the Standardized Beta Weights

Cue	Mean	Std Dev.	Range
IJFair ¹	-.231	.17	-.634 - .344
ACCFair ²	-.727	.11	-.942 - -.428
IjxAFair ³	.504	.58	-.600 - -1.945
IJRes ⁴	.230	.13	-.049 - .603
ACCRes ⁵	.738	.14	.287 - .921
IjxARes ⁶	-.310	.59	-1.739 - .471
IJRet ⁷	.228	.15	-.121 - .482
ACCRet ⁸	.660	.16	.171 - .919
IjxARet ⁹	-.047	.77	-3.246 - 1.392

Note. N = 35.

1. IJFair refers to the interactional justice cue for fairness.
2. ACCFair refers to the accountability cue for fairness.
3. IJxAFair refers to the interaction between interactional justice and accountability for fairness.
4. IJRes refers to the interactional justice cue for resentment.
5. ACCRes refers to the accountability cue for resentment.
6. IJxARes refers to the interaction between interactional justice and accountability for resentment.
7. IJRet refers to the interactional justice cue for retaliation.
8. ACCRet refers to the accountability cue for retaliation.
9. IJxARet refers to the interaction term between interactional justice and accountability for retaliation.

the direct interpretation of the standardized beta weights, which can be misleading indicators of cue importance under conditions of cue intercorrelations (Cooksey, 1996). Therefore, to test Hypotheses 1 and 2, usefulness indices (UIs) (Darlington, 1968) were computed for each cue to obtain estimates of the degree to which participants were attending to the cues in their ratings. UIs represent the unique contribution of the specific cues to the judgment process. To compute the UI of a cue, the cue is removed from the regression equation and the multiple R^2 is recomputed based on the remaining cues. The UI of the removed cue is the drop in the proportion of variance divided by the total amount of variance accounted for by all cues (Seitz, 1988).

The statistical significance of each UI was computed to determine the cues that contributed significantly to each participant's rating strategy (Cohen & Cohen, 1975). As shown in Table 3 and 4, the number of cues used by participants varied between judgments. For fairness judgments, accountability was a significant cue for all of the rating policies. However, interactional justice contributed significantly to 14 of the 35 rating policies. Therefore, approximately 60% of the individuals' rating policies did not use the information provided in the interactional justice cue in determining judgments of fairness.

For resentment judgments, accountability was a significant cue for 97% of the rating policies, whereas interactional justice contributed significantly to 20 of the 35 rating policies. Therefore, approximately 3% and 43% of the rating policies did not use the information provided by the accountability and interactional justice cues, respectively.

For retaliation intention judgments, accountability was a significant cue for 91% of the rating policies, whereas, interactional justice contributed significantly to 12 of the 35 rating policies. Therefore, approximately 9% and 66% of the rating policies did not use the information provided by the accountability and interactional justice cues, respectively.

Although the UIs provide relative weights of the cue information that individuals use in their decision-making policies, they do not provide information on the direction in which the ratings were adjusted according to the cue information. Therefore, the signs of the standardized beta weights were examined (see Table 1). A positive standardized Beta weight indicates that participants provided increasingly higher ratings with increasing cue values. A negative standardized Beta weight suggests that participants assigned lower ratings with increasing cue values.

The standardized Beta weights for the ratings of fairness were in the negative direction for the interactional justice cue (i.e., as interactional justice was reverse coded), with the exception of three individuals with ratings in the positive direction. For the accountability cue, all standardized Beta weights were negative. For the ratings of resentment, the standardized Beta weights were positive for the interactional justice and accountability cues, with the exception of two individuals who had negative standardized Beta weights for the interactional justice cue. Finally, for ratings of retaliatory intentions, the standardized Beta weights were positive for both the interactional justice and the accountability cues, with the exception of a single individual with a negative standardized Beta weight for the interactional justice cue.

Table 3

Usefulness Indices (UI's) for the Cue Variables

SS	UIijfair ¹	UIaccfair ²	UIijres ³	UIaccres ⁴	UIijretn ⁵	UIaccretn ⁶
01	.45	.54**	.25*	.75**	.26	.74*
02	.18	.82*	.10*	.90**	.13*	.87**
03	.39**	.61**	.06*	.94**	.22**	.78**
04	.14	.86**	.03	.97**	.07	.93**
05	.15**	.85**	.11*	.89**	.29*	.71**
06	.48**	.52**	.19*	.81**	.33**	.67**
07	.01	.99**	.00	1.00**	.40	.60
08	.07**	.93**	.20**	.80**	.12*	.88**
09	.18	.82**	.10*	.90**	.13*	.87**
10	.07	.93**	.08	.92**	.15	.85**
11	.32*	.68**	.01	.99**	.00	1.00**
12	.04	.96**	.00	1.00**	.14*	.86**
13	.16*	.84**	.07*	.93**	.03	.97**
14	.69**	.31**	.64*	.36**	.55*	.45*
15	.04	.96**	.15**	.85**	.06	.94**
16	.09	.91**	.09	.91**	.06	.94**
17	.07	.93**	.07	.93*	.25	.75*
18	.00	1.00**	.00	1.00**	.05	.95**
19	.06	.94**	.08*	.92**	.03	.97**
20	.12*	.88**	.09**	.91**	.03	.97**
21	.04	.96**	.14**	.86**	.04	.96**
22	.06	.94**	.08	.92**	.08	.92**
23	.21	.79**	.34*	.66*	.02	.98**
24	.17*	.83**	.22*	.78**	.13	.87**
25	.11*	.89**	.12**	.88**	.44	.56
26	.00	1.00**	.02	.98	.03	.97*
27	.32*	.68**	.05*	.95**	.03	.97**
28	.05*	.95*	.06	.94*	.17	.83*
29	.02	.98**	.00	1.00**	.21*	.79**
30	.11*	.89**	.11*	.89**	.18	.82**
31	.08	.92**	.25	.75*	.27*	.73**
32	.07	.93**	.04	.96**	.14**	.86**
33	.15**	.85**	.11**	.89**	.52*	.48
34	.07	.93**	.15*	.85**	.03	.97**
35	.02	.98**	.02	.98**	.03	.97**

Note. *p < .05, ** p < .01.

Table 3 (continued)

Table 3 (continued).

1. UIijfair refers to the UI for the interactional justice cue value for fairness ratings.
2. UIaccfair refers to the UI for the accountability cue value for fairness ratings.
3. UIijres refers to the UI for the interactional justice cue value for resentment ratings.
4. UIaccres refers to the UI for the accountability cue value for resentment ratings.
5. UIjretn refers to the UI for the interactional justice cue value for retaliation ratings.
6. UIaccresn refers to the UI for the accountability cue value for retaliation ratings.

Table 4

Summary of Usefulness Indices (UIs) (% of Variance Accounted for)

Cue	N*	Percentages (%)	Mean	Std. Dev.	Range
UI ijfair ¹	14	40	.15	.16	.00 - .69
UI accfair ²	35	100	.85	.16	.31 - 1.00
UI ijres ³	20	57	.12	.12	.00 - .64
UI accres ⁴	34	97	.88	.12	.36 - 1.00
UI ijretn ⁵	12	34	.16	.15	.00 - .55
UI accresn ⁶	32	91	.84	.15	.45 - 1.00

Note. N = 35. * The number of participants for whom a given cue was significant ($p < .05$) (i.e., the number of participants using a given cue in making judgments of fairness, resentment, and retaliation intentions).

1. UIijfair refers to the UI for the interactional justice cue for fairness ratings.
2. UIaccfair refers to the UI for the accountability cue for fairness ratings.
3. UIijres refers to the UI for the interactional justice cue for resentment ratings.
4. UIaccres refers to the UI for the accountability cue for resentment ratings.
5. UIjretn refers to the UI for the interactional justice cue for retaliation intention ratings.
6. UIaccresn refers to the UI for the accountability cue for retaliation intention ratings.

Hypotheses 3, 4, and 5 proposed that interactional justice and accountability interact to predict individuals' fairness perceptions, feelings of resentment, and retaliatory intentions, respectively. That is, at low levels of interactional justice, it was predicted that low levels of accountability would elicit higher perceptions of fairness and lower feelings of resentment and retaliatory intentions than at high levels of accountability. At high levels of interactional justice, it was predicted that low levels of accountability would elicit lower perceptions of fairness and higher feelings of resentment and retaliatory intentions than at high levels of accountability.

Configural analyses were conducted for each participant to determine if they were using the cues in an interactive manner. The interactions were tested by calculating the increase in R^2 when the interaction terms were added to the linear components of interactional justice and accountability. In 26% of the cases, one or more significant interactive components were found within the regression equations computed for each individual. These judgments can be examined independently for each criterion variable. For the regression equations examining fairness judgments, 11% of participants used an interactive policy for one or more of the dimensions. For the regression equations examining resentment ratings, 14% of the participants used an interactive policy for one or more of the dimensions. Finally, for the regression equations examining judgments of retaliatory intentions, there were no significant interaction components found. These findings suggest that the majority of participants used a linear policy in making their judgments of fairness, resentment, and retaliation intentions.

Examination of the four participants who had significant interaction components for fairness judgments revealed a consistent pattern. In most cases, at low levels of interactional justice, low levels of accountability elicited higher perceptions of fairness than at high levels of accountability. At high levels of interactional justice, low levels of accountability elicited higher perceptions of fairness than high levels of accountability. Of the five participants with significant interaction components for resentment judgments, four seemed to follow a consistent pattern. At low levels of interactional justice, low levels of accountability elicited lower feelings of resentment than high levels of accountability, whereas at high levels of interactional justice, low levels of accountability elicited lower feelings of resentment than at high levels of accountability. Taken together, the patterns for judgments of fairness and resentment were consistent with the predictions at low levels of interactional justice; however, these patterns were inconsistent with the predictions at high levels of interactional justice.

Exploratory Analyses

In addition to testing the hypotheses, it was deemed interesting to examine a series of questions at both the ideographic and nomothetic level. Three questions guided subsequent analyses. The first question looked at how consistent are people in: (a) applying their rating policies, (b) their judgments of duplicate profiles, and (c) their application of policies as a function of individual difference variables. The second question examined whether policies for weightings of interactional justice and accountability differ as a function of individual difference variables. And the third

question examined whether rater policies differ on judgment decisions (i.e., fairness, resentment, and retaliatory intentions) as a function of individual difference variables.

Prior to conducting any between-subjects analyses, Fisher's r to z transformation was used to standardize the multiple R values and intraclass correlations. The standardization of these values was required because of the violation of the normality assumption when correlations are not transformed (Kline & Sulsky, 1995; Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996).

Judgment Consistency

Multiple R values were generated to determine how consistently participants assigned weights to different cue values. Higher Multiple R values result when raters assign consistent weightings to the cues across the profiles (Kline & Sulsky, 1995). Table 5 contains the multiple R values for each participant. Multiple R values for Fairness ranged from .70 to .97 ($M = .89$, $SD = .07$); multiple R values for Resentment ranged from .34 to .97 ($M = .89$, $SD = .12$); and multiple R values for Retaliation ranged from .30 to .94 ($M = .82$, $SD = .15$). In general, participants were consistent in their ratings of the hypothetical profiles, as reasonable multiple R values range from .75 to .95 or higher (Cooksey, 1996). Moderate to high multiple R values also suggested that participants were not affected by response fatigue, since they exhibited consistency in the factors they considered across the profiles (Judge & Martocchio, 1995; Klaas & Wheeler, 1990).

Six participants had one or more multiple R values below .75, thus the best linear model for their rating strategy accounted for less than 50 percent of the variance in their ratings. However, these participants were included in further analyses as low multiple R

Table 5

Individual Participants' Multiple Rs. and Intraclass Correlations (ICCs)

SS	MultipleR ¹ (Fairness)	Intraclass ² (Fairness)	MultipleR ³ (Resent)	Intraclass ⁴ (Resent)	MultipleR ⁵ (Retal'n)	Intraclass ⁶ (Retal'n)
01	.823	.801	.880	.288	.812	.774
02	.895	.591	.927	.622	.926	.878
03	.808	.623	.935	.681	.929	.640
04	.930	.862	.900	.897	.874	.797
05	.949	.868	.923	.762	.849	.816
06	.817	.526	.766	.775	.853	.444
07	.695	.268	.609	1.000	.296	.147
08	.973	.572	.962	.650	.892	.582
09	.895	.591	.927	.622	.926	.878
10	.918	.927	.873	.962	.838	.730
11	.843	.726	.913	.474	.909	.381
12	.955	.909	.941	.976	.913	.590
13	.880	.907	.946	.661	.658	.755
14	.956	.601	.790	.630	.807	.410
15	.892	.435	.974	.487	.911	.674
16	.938	.951	.947	.878	.943	.991
17	.937	.977	.901	.971	.783	.793
18	.951	.870	.916	.900	.865	.766
19	.914	.951	.953	.893	.891	.978
20	.880	.901	.949	.661	.692	.708
21	.888	.435	.950	.487	.918	.614
22	.875	.753	.920	.685	.937	.709
23	.865	.970	.812	.870	.894	.779
24	.939	.928	.927	.871	.913	.968
25	.881	.875	.943	.704	.473	.688
26	.925	.789	.338	.721	.579	.878
27	.885	.818	.949	.996	.938	.941
28	.952	.909	.899	.988	.827	.882
29	.970	.909	.939	.988	.877	.882
30	.960	.994	.936	.974	.859	.977
31	.899	.913	.763	-.009	.863	.725
32	.921	.723	.948	.344	.938	.926
33	.940	.902	.934	.891	.538	-.915
34	.755	.378	.856	.213	.650	.612
35	.754	.192	.835	.524	.760	.455

Note. N = 35.

1. Multiple R (fairness) refers to the multiple R value for the fairness criterion variable.
2. Intraclass (fairness) refers to the intraclass correlation for the fairness criterion variable.
3. Multiple R (resent) refers to the multiple R value for the resentment criterion variable.
4. Intraclass (resent) refers to the intraclass correlation for the resentment criterion variable.
5. Multiple R (retal'n) refers to the multiple R value for the retaliation intentions criterion variable.
6. Multiple R (retal'n) refers to the intraclass correlation for the retaliation intentions variable.

values do not indicate whether individuals are paying attention to cues as intended or performing a task in a careless manner. Instead, it is more likely that low multiple R values indicate that a raters' policy is not well modeled by a linear equation (Cooksey, 1996).

In addition, the participants' mean ratings and standard deviations for their judgments of fairness, feelings of resentment, and retaliatory intentions are included in Table 6. A visual inspection of the mean ratings of fairness ($\underline{M} = 3.35$, $SD = .44$), resentment ($\underline{M} = 4.50$, $SD = .50$), and retaliation intentions ($\underline{M} = 3.84$, $SD = .86$), suggests that the judgment ratings were fairly consistent across respondents.

Intrarater Agreement

Intraclass correlation coefficients (ICC's) were also calculated for the three judgment ratings by examining the extent to which participants provided similar ratings across the five duplicate profiles (see Table 5). The intraclass correlation is often used to assess the reliability of repeated measures (Kline & Sulsky, 1995). The mean intraclass correlations were considered reasonable for the judgment ratings of fairness ($\underline{M} = 0.69$, $SD = .38$), resentment ($\underline{M} = 0.70$, $SD = .26$), and retaliation intentions ($\underline{M} = .76$, $SD = .17$).

Individual Differences Among Consistency and Reliability Ratings

To examine whether there were group differences in participants' consistency and reliability measures, a series of t-tests were run using the standardized multiple R values and intraclass correlations as dependent variables and individual difference factors as the grouping variables. I examined whether there were consistency and reliability

Table 6

Individual Participants' Means and Standard Deviations for Cue Weightings and Ratings on
Fairness, Resentment, and Retaliatory Intentions

SS	Mean (SD) (Interactional Justice)	Mean (SD) (Accountability)	Mean (SD) (Fairness)	Mean (SD) (Resentment)	Mean (SD) (Retaliation)
01	3.40 (1.54)	3.15 (1.66)	2.93 (1.71)	5.15 (1.61)	4.75 (1.40)
02	3.25 (1.21)	3.20 (1.40)	3.55 (1.21)	4.42 (1.23)	4.30 (1.13)
03	3.25 (1.80)	2.90 (1.97)	4.02 (2.18)	4.25 (2.20)	4.15 (1.98)
04	3.15 (1.53)	3.30 (1.63)	3.27 (1.65)	4.92 (1.52)	4.13 (0.98)
05	3.00 (1.56)	3.30 (1.66)	3.65 (1.50)	4.00 (1.70)	3.60 (1.56)
06	3.30 (1.78)	3.00 (1.97)	4.00 (2.38)	4.15 (2.28)	4.20 (2.17)
07	3.50 (1.43)	3.45 (1.43)	3.47 (1.23)	4.75 (1.28)	2.12 (0.79)
08	3.30 (1.69)	3.20 (1.61)	3.80 (2.07)	4.07 (2.00)	3.55 (1.92)
09	3.25 (1.21)	3.20 (1.40)	3.55 (1.21)	4.42 (1.23)	4.30 (1.13)
10	3.20 (1.54)	3.40 (1.43)	3.27 (1.36)	4.07 (1.42)	2.93 (0.92)
11	3.35 (1.39)	3.40 (1.43)	3.33 (1.71)	3.97 (1.86)	3.12 (1.29)
12	2.65 (1.79)	3.30 (1.63)	3.40 (2.29)	4.30 (2.36)	3.77 (1.98)
13	3.50 (1.57)	2.95 (1.47)	3.10 (1.76)	4.57 (1.93)	3.58 (1.83)
14	2.75 (1.71)	2.95 (1.76)	4.00 (1.85)	4.30 (2.05)	4.22 (1.57)
15	3.10 (1.74)	3.10 (1.71)	3.77 (2.16)	4.13 (2.12)	3.42 (1.92)
16	3.15 (1.63)	3.60 (1.60)	3.48 (2.11)	4.45 (2.12)	3.87 (2.05)
17	3.15 (1.66)	3.25 (1.45)	3.17 (1.83)	4.15 (1.98)	2.88 (1.26)
18	2.60 (1.82)	3.20 (1.64)	3.62 (2.14)	4.15 (2.31)	3.88 (2.03)
19	3.25 (1.62)	3.70 (1.56)	3.43 (2.02)	4.53 (2.16)	3.82 (1.98)
20	3.50 (1.57)	3.00 (1.49)	3.23 (1.85)	4.65 (2.04)	3.60 (1.90)
21	3.10 (1.74)	3.10 (1.71)	3.50 (2.15)	4.03 (2.03)	3.38 (1.87)
22	3.25 (1.21)	3.15 (1.50)	3.43 (1.35)	4.42 (1.33)	4.23 (1.16)
23	2.95 (1.73)	3.65 (1.35)	2.95 (1.55)	4.37 (1.31)	3.88 (1.38)
24	3.15 (1.63)	3.70 (1.59)	3.42 (2.09)	4.50 (2.06)	3.80 (2.06)
25	3.50 (1.57)	3.05 (1.54)	3.25 (1.88)	4.65 (1.20)	4.03 (3.00)
26	3.40 (1.88)	3.20 (1.96)	2.98 (2.09)	5.92 (1.68)	5.83 (2.07)
27	3.35 (1.63)	3.40 (1.54)	2.98 (1.88)	4.77 (2.41)	3.82 (1.64)
28	2.60 (1.64)	3.15 (1.46)	3.37 (2.34)	4.30 (2.35)	3.82 (2.12)
29	2.60 (1.82)	3.20 (1.70)	3.40 (2.32)	4.35 (2.41)	3.70 (2.06)
30	3.20 (1.64)	3.35 (1.40)	3.22 (1.95)	4.12 (2.13)	2.68 (1.24)
31	3.20 (1.80)	3.30 (1.72)	3.10 (1.37)	4.78 (1.31)	4.87 (1.09)
32	3.25 (1.21)	3.15 (1.46)	3.50 (1.29)	4.45 (1.24)	4.23 (1.11)
33	3.20 (1.70)	3.60 (1.54)	2.92 (1.86)	4.48 (2.35)	2.03 (1.36)
34	3.45 (1.54)	2.95 (1.47)	3.25 (1.45)	4.55 (1.63)	3.25 (1.55)
35	4.25 (0.91)	4.15 (1.04)	1.55 (0.89)	6.35 (0.93)	6.53 (0.83)

Note. N = 35.

differences among respondents in terms of whether they have conducted layoffs, whether they have been in an organization where layoffs have occurred, and their supervisory or managerial experience. These factors were chosen as it was expected that there might be differences between participants depending on their familiarity and experience with the task domain (Cooksey, 1996). More specifically, it was of interest to explore whether participants who were more familiar or experienced in the given domain would provide more consistent and reliable judgment ratings. In addition, given the increased attention to gender differences in the workplace (Mueller & Wallace, 1996; Phelan, 1994), it was of interest to explore whether participants' consistency and reliability ratings differed as a function of their gender.

Only one significant group difference was found among the reliability and consistency measures, $t(33) = -2.16, p < .05$. Specifically, the standardized multiple R values for participants' resentment who had conducted layoffs ($M = 1.23$) was found to be significantly lower than for those who had not conducted layoffs ($M = 1.61$). Results showed that there were significant group differences among the consistency measures of resentment. See Table 7 for the correlation matrix of the individual difference variables.

Individual Differences Among UIs

To examine whether there were group differences in participants' assignment of weights to interactional justice and accountability, a series of t-tests were run using the usefulness indices as dependent variables and individual difference factors as the grouping variables. I examined whether there were differences on cue weighting depending on whether the respondents have been in an organization where layoffs have

Table 7

Correlation Matrix

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Gender	--										
2. Age	.028	--									
3. Occur	-.116	.356*	--								
4. Layoff	-.384*	.291	.339*	--							
5. Supervise	-.244	.448**	.205	.339*	--						
6. Conduct	.145	-.485**	-.276	-.408*	-.276	--					
7. WLCS	-.226	-.325	-.114	.093	-.129	.187	--	(.76)			
8. Neuroticism	.011	-.334*	-.135	.117	-.288	-.002	.248	--	(.77)		
9. Fairness	-.119	.053	.078	.106	.121	-.090	-.265	-.025	--		
10. Resentment	.126	.029	-.223	-.060	-.078	.000	.097	.005	-.756**	--	
11. Retaliation	.073	-.066	-.350*	-.173	-.121	.270	.104	.061	-.373*	.700**	--

Note. N=35. *p < .05, **p < .01. Reliability estimates are provided in parentheses for WLCS and Neuroticism along the diagonal.

1. Gender is coded '1' for male and '2' for female.
2. Age is a continuous variable.
3. Occur refers to whether the individual has been in an organization where layoffs have occurred and is coded '1' for no and '2' for yes.
4. Layoff refers to whether a layoff has been experienced and is coded '1' for no and '2' for yes.
5. Supervise refers to whether the individual has a minimum of two years of supervisory/ managerial experience and is coded '1' for 0-2 years and '2' for over two years.
6. Conduct refers to whether the individual has conducted layoffs and is coded '1' for yes '2' for no.
7. WLCS refers to the Work Locus of Control Scale.
8. Neuroticism refers to the angry-hostility scale of the Neuroticism facet.
9. Fairness is a criterion variable.
10. Resentment is a criterion variable.
11. Retaliation (retaliation intentions) is a criterion variable.

occurred and whether they have experienced a layoff. These factors were examined as it was expected that participants with layoff exposure would assign higher ratings to accountability than interactional justice, as research has shown that individuals react more strongly to an event that is salient to them (Brockner & Wisenfeld, 1996).

Participants' neuroticism and locus of control scores were also examined. As mentioned previously, it was expected that respondents with high neuroticism scores and high external locus of control scores would assign higher weightings to accountability than interactional justice (Folger & Skarlicki, 1999; Shapiro et al., 1995). I also explored whether there were any gender differences among the UI weightings. No significant results were found at the .05 level, which indicates that participants did not differ on their weighting of interactional justice and accountability as a function of the individual characteristics examined in this study.

Individual Differences Among Criterion Measures

In determining whether there were any group differences in the criterion variables, a series of t-tests were run using the criterion measures as dependent variables and individual difference factors as the group variables. I examined whether respondents differed on these measures depending on whether they have been in an organization where layoffs have occurred and whether they have experienced a layoff. As indicated above, these factors were examined as research has shown that individuals are more likely to react to an event that is salient to them (Brockner & Wisenfeld, 1996). It was expected that respondents with layoff exposure would assign lower ratings of fairness and higher ratings of resentment and retaliatory intentions. Participants' locus of control and

neuroticism scores were also examined. As mentioned above, it was expected that respondents with high locus of control and high neuroticism scores would react more negatively to the event. It was anticipated that these respondents would assign lower ratings of fairness and higher ratings of resentment and retaliation intentions than individuals with a high internal locus of control and/or a low neuroticism score (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Spector, 1988). I also explored whether there were any gender differences among the criterion variables.

Only one significant group difference was found among the criterion measures. Results showed a significant difference in retaliation intentions when examining whether participants were in an organization where layoffs have occurred, $t(33) = 2.145, p < .05$. Specifically, retaliatory intentions for individuals that have not been in an organization where layoffs have occurred were significantly higher ($M = 4.27$) than for those who have been in an organization where layoffs have occurred ($M = 3.64$).

Discussion

The primary objectives of this study were fourfold: First, this study examined whether employees take into account a manager's conduct in addition to the level of interpersonal treatment they receive in making judgments of fairness, resentment and retaliatory intentions. Second, this study examined whether raters use nonlinear policies in determining their perceptions and reactions to layoff practices. Third, this study examined the consistency and reliability of raters' decision-making policies. And finally, this study explored whether rater policies differ as a function of individual difference

variables. The findings of this study as they relate to these objectives will be discussed in turn.

Main Findings

Objective 1

Linear Rating Policies. The results of this study convey a number of interesting insights into the participants' rating policies. Hypothesis 1 proposed that interactional justice would explain significant variance in predicting individuals' perceptions of fairness, feelings of resentment, and retaliatory intentions. The results suggest that individuals take into account the level of interpersonal treatment they receive in making their judgment decisions. That is, individuals who were given an adequate explanation for the layoff were more likely to have (1) higher perceptions of fairness, (2) lower feelings of resentment, and (3) lower intentions to engage in retaliatory forms of behavior than individuals who were not given an adequate explanation for the negative event. These findings are consistent with previous research that has suggested that procedures, including interpersonal treatment, matter most when outcomes are unfair or undesirable (Brockner & Wisenfeld, 1996; Folger, in press). Thus, it is not surprising that high levels of interactional justice were an important factor that individuals considered following a negative event. The results also show that participants' weightings of interactional justice varied across the three judgments examined in this study. More participants used interactional justice in making their judgments of resentment than fairness, and more participants used interactional justice in making their judgments of resentment than

retaliation intentions. These results suggest that individuals select, weight, and combine different contextual cues depending on the type of judgment they are making.

Hypothesis 2 proposed that accountability would explain significant incremental variance in addition to interactional justice in predicting individuals' perceptions of fairness, feelings of resentment, and retaliatory intentions. In contrast to the findings reported for interactional justice, the results show there was a pervasive tendency for participants to weight accountability consistently high across judgments of fairness, resentment, and retaliatory intentions. The results also highlight the importance of managerial accountability during the layoff process, which is a significant contribution of this study. That is, individuals who held their manager accountable were more likely to (1) perceive unfairness, (2) feel resentful, and (3) intend to engage in retaliatory forms of behavior than individuals who did not hold their manager accountable.

These findings extend previous research that has found accountability to be an important dimension in which individuals evaluate negative events (Folger, in press; Weiner, 1995). Previous findings have shown that when individuals face an unfavorable or unexpected outcome, they tend to search for explanations that will enable them to assign responsibility (Wong & Weiner, 1981). The present study has found that a manager can also be held accountable for their level of conduct, regardless of whether they were responsible for a negative outcome. Although this explanation remains tentative, as range restriction was not apparent among the predictor variables, it is suggestive that accountability offsets interactional justice in predicting individuals' perceptions and reactions to layoff fairness (see Table 6).

Taken together, these findings suggest that individuals consider the explanations they receive as well as the social conduct of a manager in making judgments about the fairness of a layoff, as well as their feelings of resentment, and intentions to engage in retaliatory forms of behavior. These results also suggest the need to incorporate accountability into the existing theories of justice (Folger, in press).

Objective 2

Interactive Rating Policies. Hypotheses 3, 4, and 5 predicted interactions between interactional justice and accountability as individuals formed judgments of fairness (H_3), resentment (H_4), and retaliatory intentions (H_5). By taking all of the judgements into account for all three criterion variables, results indicated that approximately one third of the participants exhibited significant interaction components in their rating policies.

Participants who employed interactive policies did not do so consistently across the judgment decisions, however. For example, participants may have used an interactive policy in ascribing judgments of fairness, but not when making judgments of resentment or retaliation intentions. Through visual inspection, it was apparent that certain characteristics were common to the individuals with interactive policies. Of the seven participants using interactive policies in their rating judgments, all have been in an organization where layoffs occurred, all but one have conducted layoffs and/or have not experienced a layoff themselves, and all but two were male respondents. Future research should therefore examine these individual difference variables further.

In general, however, the majority of respondents exhibited linear rating policies. This finding is consistent with previous policy-capturing studies that have found linear

forms of decision-making to be used more frequently by individuals than interactive policies (Cooksey, 1996). However, it is possible that respondents may still use interactive policies in their judgment decisions outside the realm of this study. In other words, the manner in which people make decisions in this study may or may not be representative of how they make decisions in "real life" (Brehmer, 1984).

Significant interactions were found for decisions of fairness and resentment for some of the participants; however, there may be several reasons as to why most of the respondents were not using the pieces of information in a nonlinear fashion as predicted. One reason to account for these unexpected findings may be that participants were going beyond the information in the profiles in making their rating decisions. Although contextual information was provided to participants before engaging in the rating task, it is possible that respondents were engaging in their own contextual development based on their own previous work experiences and this could have ramifications for the types of decisions being made (Cooksey, 1996). Furthermore, by examining the multiple R values, it appears that the participants with low multiple R values were often not using the cues provided.

A second possible reason for the unexpected findings may be explained by the simulations or artificially construed profiles that may have elicited different judgment processes than those in real life. It is possible that participants used less complex policies in policy-capturing than they would in making real life decisions. This difference might be due to the respondents' inability to describe their actual thought processes (Nesbitt & Wilson, 1977), or due to the potential cognitive limitations associated with processing

multiple scenarios (Rousseau & Anton, 1988). Therefore, the results of this study may reflect the limitations of this methodology.

Third, the lack of expected findings might also be explained by the fact that some of the combinations were not equivalent for accountability at low and high levels of interactional justice (see Appendix G). This may have led participants to interpret the cues slightly differently across the profiles and assign lower ratings than expected for the fairness measures and higher ratings than expected for the resentment and retaliation intentions measures.

Although this study set out to exclusively examine the effects of interactional justice, the manner in which the employee was informed of the layoff varied between profiles. For example, in some profiles the employee was informed of the layoff via an accidental email or through the company newsletter, whereas in others the employee was informed of the layoff directly from the manager. This was intended to enhance the interactional justice component; however, it is possible that respondents were taking into account the procedures in addition to the level of interpersonal treatment they received, thereby possibly confounding the results.

Another explanation for the unexpected findings might be from the order in which the information was presented in the profiles. Recent research (Van den Bos, Vermunt, & Wilkes, 1997) has suggested that information presented first, whether procedural or distributive, has a greater impact on reactions than information presented later on. In the profiles, the negative outcome involving information about the layoff was the initial piece of information presented to respondents, followed by information on the interpersonal

treatment provided by the manager, and the level of managerial accountability. This order was considered important to provide respondents with information in a way that was consistent with how it is actually presented to raters in a usual course of events (Cooksey, 1996).

Recent research has also suggested that when a negative outcome is considered salient, it might encourage a tendency to offset the effects of information that is presented later (Van den Bos, Vermunt, & Wilkes, 1997). More specifically, it might lead to an inclination to externalize blame away from oneself by reducing the perceived fairness of the procedures or level of interpersonal treatment, as unfavorable outcomes from a fair procedure implies self blame. Thus, it is possible that employees attributed blame or held their manager accountable whether or not they were given an adequate explanation for the negative outcome.

Although this may seem plausible, it is highly unlikely for three reasons. First, memory demands on participants were minimal. There was no time lag between the time that participants read the scenarios and made their judgment decisions. Second, the present data cannot examine participants' cognitive patterns. This means it is not possible to examine whether participants read the information in the profiles in the order in which it was presented before making their judgment decisions. It is possible that participants re-read the contextual information in the profiles while assigning ratings to the judgment task. And finally, if primacy effects were present it would be more problematic because it would indicate that respondents were exclusively paying attention to the primary pieces of information in the profiles (Cooksey, 1996). From an examination of the UIs, it is

clear that respondents were assigning weights to both interactional justice and accountability in making their judgment decisions.

Objective 3:

Comparing Consistency and Reliability Ratings. The standardized multiple R values and intraclass correlations were examined across participants to assess the consistency with which individuals were making their judgments of fairness, resentment, and retaliation intentions (see Table 5). The results suggest that the majority of respondents who exhibited high multiple R values also had high intraclass correlations. The values obtained in this study were fairly consistent with those found in other policy-capturing studies (Boon & Sulsky, 1997). However, approximately 10 participants for each judgment exhibited high multiple R scores but fairly low intraclass correlations. For example, although participants 9 and 15 exhibited multiple R scores for fairness judgments of .90 and .89, which indicates high consistency, they exhibited low intraclass correlations of .44 and .59, which reflects low intra-rater reliability. This suggests that participants could be fairly consistent in their ratings across profiles without being consistent within repeated profiles. In spite of a few cases, overall participants' judgments were relatively stable across all judgment ratings.

Comparing Multiple R values and UIs. I also compared the multiple R ratings with the UI values for interactional justice and accountability across participants. It was interesting to note that the majority of participants maintained high multiple R values, even when only a single UI was statistically significant. These results suggest that participants attained high multiple R values whether they were using one or both of the

cues in making their judgment decisions. Moreover, from inspection of Tables 3 and 6, participants with low multiple R values were the same individuals who were not using the cues in making their rating decisions. For example, participants 7 and 25, exhibited low multiple R values of .30 and .47 on measures of retaliation intentions, indicating low consistency, and they did not attain significant UI weightings. As a whole, these findings illustrate the various ways of determining when participants were most consistent and reliable in their ratings.

Objective 4

Exploratory analysis was conducted on various individual difference factors to examine whether respondents differed in their (a) multiple R values and intraclass correlations, (b) UI weightings, and (c) judgment ratings. To facilitate the interpretation of the findings, the individual difference variables have been grouped into three categories: layoff exposure, personality factors, and gender.

Layoff Exposure.

I examined whether participants' consistency and reliability ratings, UI weightings, and judgment ratings differed as a function of whether they (a) have been in an organization where layoffs occurred, (b) have experienced a layoff themselves, (c) have had supervisory or managerial experience, and (d) have conducted layoffs.

Consistency and Reliability Ratings. It was expected that participants who had been in an organization where layoffs occurred, conducted layoffs, or had supervisory/managerial experience would be more consistent in their judgment ratings, as they would be more familiar with the types of decisions being made (Brehmer & Joyce,

1988). Instead, there was some evidence that participants who had not conducted layoffs were significantly more consistent than those who had conducted layoffs in their weightings of the cues in forming their judgments of resentment. Although explanations offered for this difference should remain tentative, it is possible that individuals who have conducted layoffs have more experience to draw from and may be going beyond the cues and using additional information in making their rating judgments. In contrast, participants who had not conducted layoffs have less experience to draw inferences from and are more likely to rely on the cue information provided in the profiles in making their rating judgments. Thus, individuals who have not conducted layoffs (i.e., less experience) were more consistent in their judgment ratings.

Counter to my expectations, no other significant differences were found. Although speculative, an explanation for these findings is that even though many participants may not have had direct layoff exposure in their own work experiences, they could be familiar with the task domain more indirectly as a result of their knowledge of others who had experienced a layoff outside of their particular employment setting (Brehmer & Joyce, 1988). It is also possible that respondents' familiarity with the types of decisions being made may have resulted from their experience making judgments of fairness, resentment, and retaliation in other organizational contexts.

UI Weightings. I also examined whether there were differences reported for the UI weightings among individuals who have been in an organization where layoffs occurred and/or whether they have experienced a layoff themselves. It was anticipated that these individuals would be more likely to view the layoff in a negative light

(Hemingway, 1998). Previous research has suggested that individuals are likely to react to an event that is negative or salient to them (Brockner and Wisenfeld, 1996). It was therefore expected that individuals who have been in a similar position would react more negatively to a manager's conduct, regardless of the level of interpersonal treatment they received. Consequently, it was expected that they would assign higher weightings to accountability than interactional justice in their judgments of fairness, resentment and retaliatory intentions. Results indicated that there were no significant differences between either group of participants, which suggests that participants, regardless of their layoff experiences, regarded the event as equally important and severe.

Judgment Ratings. I also examined whether participants differed in their judgments of fairness, resentment, and retaliatory intentions as a function of their layoff exposure. It was anticipated that individuals with layoff exposure would consider the event more salient and react more negatively than respondents without layoff exposure (Brockner & Wisenfeld). There was some evidence that individuals who have not been in an organization where layoffs occurred had significantly higher ratings of retaliatory intentions than individuals who have been in an organization where layoffs have occurred.

Although this finding may seem counterintuitive, there are two plausible explanations. First, individuals who have been in an organization where layoffs have occurred may be more likely to understand the processes involved and recognize that it is possible to overcome the negative effects of downsizing. As well, this finding seems to support previous research that found that individuals may be less likely to retaliate when

the target, usually a manager, is more powerful than the employee involved (Homans, 1961). Employees who have been in an organization where layoffs have occurred may have been offered other opportunities within the organization or referred to other companies, both of which would have been denied if they engaged in retaliation against a former manager or organization. Overall, it is important to note that these explanations are all tentative and further research should consider examining when employees would be more likely to engage in retaliatory forms of behavior and whether the organization or a manager would be the most likely target of retaliation.

Personality Factors

I examined whether participants' UI weightings of interactional justice and accountability, and their judgment ratings of fairness, resentment, and retaliation intentions differed as a function of their work locus of control (Spector, 1988) and neuroticism (Costa & McCrae, 1992) scores. As indicated earlier, it was expected that individuals with a high external locus of control score and/or a high neuroticism score would be more likely to hold others accountable for a negative event. Consequently, it was anticipated that they would assign higher weightings to accountability than interactional justice. As well, it was expected that they would assign lower ratings for fairness judgments and higher ratings for resentment and retaliation intention judgments than individuals with a high internal locus of control score and/or a low neuroticism score. Counter to my expectations, no significant differences were found. This suggests that individuals' responses did not differ as a function of their locus of control and neuroticism scores. Future research, however, should still consider examining these

personality variables further as differences may exist when using different types of samples or cue variables.

Gender

I examined whether participants' consistency and reliability ratings, UI weightings, and judgment ratings differed as a function of their gender. As indicated earlier, it was of interest to explore the possibility of gender differences given the increased attention to gender in the workplace (Mueller & Wallace, 1996; Phelan, 1994). No significant differences were found, which suggests that individuals' responses did not differ as a function of their gender. Future research should continue to examine gender differences, as they may exist among other samples or other cue variables. For example, as a male manager was kept constant across all of the profiles, future research should consider varying the gender of the manager and examine whether gender differences exist among respondents.

Theoretical implications

There are several important theoretical implications of this study. First, this study was an initial attempt to examine how aspects of Weiner's (1995) attributional theory of social conduct and Folger's (1987; 1993) referent cognition theory complement each other in explaining how individuals perceive and react to layoff practices. Although these theories have unique aspects to them, many parallels were drawn between them in explaining how individuals interpret a negative event. These theories have been used to explain the process that an individual goes through in making sense of a negative

outcome and they help to explain why some individuals feel resentful following a negative event, whereas others do not.

Second, previous research has suggested that organizational justice theories can be enriched by the incorporation of accountability (Folger, in press). This study is an initial attempt at extending organizational justice theories by illustrating that accountability is an important determinant in predicting individuals' perceptions of fairness, feelings of resentment, and retaliatory intentions. Future research in this area should take accountability into account, otherwise they risk under-specified models.

Third, this study extends both attributional research and the study of Organizational Retaliatory Behaviors (ORBs) into the context of organizational downsizing. In doing so, this study has examined factors, including interactional justice and accountability, that can bring about individuals' tendency to engage in ORBs. This study has therefore contributed to our understanding of the role of ORBs in a layoff context. Future research should examine additional factors that may bring about an individual's tendency to engage in ORB's.

And finally, this study found that respondents who have conducted layoffs were less consistent in their resentment ratings than participants who have not conducted layoffs. This finding suggests that individuals' use of the cue information may differ depending on their previous experiences. This study also found that individuals who have not been in an organization where layoffs occurred had higher intentions to retaliate than individuals with layoff exposure. This finding illustrates that individuals without layoff exposure may not understand the processes involved or the consequences of

engaging in retaliation. These findings suggest that raters may differ in their level of consistency and judgment ratings depending on whether they have had layoff exposure.

Apart from these findings, this study found that participants' ratings did not differ as a function of the individual difference variables. As a whole, it appears that the findings are not unique to a particular group of respondents, as a similar pattern of results emerged across most of the individual difference variables. Future research should consider examining other individual difference factors, as there may be other variables that differentiate participants' judgment ratings.

Practical Implications

There are many practical implications of this study that might help improve the practice of management during the layoff process. First, the information from this study can be used to inform managers in their downsizing efforts to be cautious of the manner in which they treat their employees, as interactional justice may be the most direct way of inferring intent (Folger, in press). Furthermore, employees are often concerned that a manager fulfills societal expectations of appropriate social conduct. Thus, managers conducting layoffs need to be aware of their conduct to help minimize employees' negative perceptions and behavioral reactions.

In addition, it is a small cost for managers to change their behavior toward employees, in comparison to the larger costs that are often associated with employees' negative reactions to layoffs. This study found that individuals who were given an adequate explanation for the layoff and who did not hold a manager accountable were less likely to engage in retaliatory forms of behavior.

Finally, the implementation of layoffs not only has implications for the victims, but it also affects the survivors who remain with an organization following a layoff (Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998). Research has indicated that the severity of survivors' reactions is often dependent on the manner in which layoffs are conducted (Kets & Balazs, 1997). Research has shown that organizations that treat their employees fairly during the layoff process have a better chance of retaining the loyalty of the surviving workers (Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998). Thus, it is important for managers to downsize in a humane way to maintain trusting relationships with those who remain following a layoff (Rousseau & Anton, 1988).

Overall, as organizations today are increasingly implementing layoffs, "the real question [has become] how downsizing is done, rather than whether to downsize" (Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998). By treating employees fairly during the layoff process and following societal expectations of social conduct, managers can establish more effective relationships with both victims and survivors of layoffs, and in doing so, it will help to reduce the potential for negative perceptions and behavioral reactions.

Strengths and Limitations

The present study differs from the typical policy-capturing study in various ways. First, it focuses on individuals' perceptions of fairness, feelings of resentment, and retaliatory intentions instead of a single judgment decision that is typical of studies using this methodology (Sanchez & Levine, 1989). Second, three items were used to capture each of the rating judgments. Thus, participants' judgments were considered to be more reliable than would be possible with a single item measure. And third, the judgments made reflect personal beliefs about just and appropriate managerial conduct. It has been

suggested that such judgements can provide insights to managers that would not be possible with other types of methodologies (Rousseau & Anton, 1988).

There are many additional strengths that can be noted from this study. The data were examined at both an ideographic and nomothetic level. The ideographic approach involved a detailed examination of participants' responses that highlights individual variations in cognitive processing that would have otherwise remain undetected in nomothetic approaches that rely exclusively on aggregate data (Boon & Sulsky, 1997; McIntyre & James, 1995). This approach also enabled comparisons to be made between individuals on various individual difference factors. In addition, the consistency and reliability with which participants made their judgment decisions was also investigated. And finally, the hypothetical profile task enabled the assessment of various combinations of the cue values and established greater control than is possible with other research designs, such as field studies.

By controlling for many sources of extraneous variation, it was possible to attain increased clarity in understanding individuals' perceptions and reactions to layoffs. However, an increase in clarity might have lead to a decrease in experimental realism, which is often a concern among researchers using hypothetical vignettes (Aronson, Ellsworth, Carlsmith, & Gonzales, 1990; as cited in Boon & Sulsky, 1997). For example, the use of "paper people" in the profiles instead of the use of real people in an organizational setting is one such concern. It has been suggested, however, that paper people do not lead to considerable distortions in the policies obtained and they can be used to predict judgments about "real people" when the characteristics of the task are

familiar to a rater (Brehmer & Joyce, 1988). Another potential concern involved the number of profiles that participants were asked to read and provide ratings to within a given time period. Previous research, however, has suggested that different cognitive processes may be evoked by a task that involves several hypothetical judgments and making such judgments are likely to develop stable policies in their rating judgments over time (Cable & Judge, 1994; Ullman & Doherty, 1984).

A number of steps were taken to minimize the concerns of external validity. In this study: (1) students with prior work experience were sampled, many of whom had been in an organization where layoffs have occurred; (2) the experimental treatments were considered realistic because the cues used were derived through the use of experts and from a review of the relevant literature; and (3) the hypothetical decisions correspond to decisions made by employees in organizations (Judge & Martocchio, 1995).

Apart from these attempts, caution should still be taken in generalizing these findings for the following reasons. First, the management and undergraduate business students sampled may not reflect the judgments of the business community in general or a broader population. Second, it should be noted that the intercorrelations among the dimensions preclude definitive statements about either the importance of each cue in the decision process or the number of cues really used by respondents in their ratings (Sanchez & Levine, 1989). This follows as the UI's are considered a rough approximation of the relative importance of the cue and not as an index of its exact weight (Ullman & Doherty, 1984). Furthermore, the UIs are not sensitive to the direction of the relationship between the predictor variables and the criterion. Third, as mentioned

earlier, it is possible that respondents were paying attention to the manner in which the information was conveyed (i.e., procedural justice) in making their rating decisions. As well, although participants were asked to imagine themselves as the employee in the profiles, they reflected the perspectives of third parties observers, which might also have implications for the results obtained.

Future Research

This study represented an initial attempt at examining the contributions of attribution theory to the organizational justice domain. Clearly, the findings suggest the importance of incorporating accountability to further our understanding of individuals' perceptions and reactions to layoff practices. Future research should consider examining why accountability was rated consistently high across judgment ratings, whereas interactional justice varied between ratings of fairness, resentment, and retaliatory intentions. As well, future research should examine the factors that determine why some people use more complex policies than others and the circumstances under which they are likely to do so, as the data cannot answer this question.

As the present study solely focused on the effects of interactional justice and accountability, future research should also consider examining how other components of justice interact with accountability in determining individuals' perceptions and behavioral intentions. It is possible that employees take into account organizational layoff policies and their consistent use as aspects of procedural justice in making judgments about the fairness of a layoff. In doing so, individuals might consider the conduct of the individual implementing such policies when making judgments of layoff fairness and their future

behavioral reactions. Furthermore, as this study was conducted in a laboratory environment, future research should consider looking toward applied settings and other samples to test the generalizability of the findings.

In addition, it was possible that participants were going beyond the information provided in the profiles in making their judgment ratings. Future research should look to examine whether there are additional cues not included in this study that may be important determinants of layoff judgments. As mentioned earlier, it is possible that individuals pay attention to the manner in which they are informed of the layoff. Thus, future studies should examine whether individuals' perceptions and reactions to layoff practices differ depending on the context in which they were informed of the layoff. In addition, it is possible that individuals take into account whether the manager is sensitive to the situation of the individual who is being laid-off. For example, there may be different reactions toward a manager if the situation of the layoff victim is/is not taken into account. Other variables should therefore be examined and a pre-test can be used to ensure that participants are using the contextual information provided. And finally, future research might consider examining other individual difference variables, such as employees' reactions in comparison to referent others. Despite the limitations of the policy-capturing approach, this method has proven to be a useful tool for studying individuals' decision-making policies.

References

- Adams, J. S. (1965). Inequity in social exchange. In L. Berkowitz (Eds.), Advances in experimental social psychology (Vol. 2, pp. 267-299). New York: Academic Press.
- Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. (1991). Multiple regression: testing and interpreting interactions. California: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Aronson, E., Ellsworth, P.C., Carlsmith, J.M., & Gonzales, M.H. (1990). Methods of research in social psychology (2nd Ed). Toronto: McGraw-Hill.
- Ashkanasy, N. M. (1995). Supervisory attributions and evaluative judgments of subordinate performance: A further test of the Green and Mitchell model. In M. J. Martiko (Eds.), Attribution theory: An organizational perspective (pp. 3-6). Delray Beach, Fl: St. Lucie Press.
- Averill, J. R. (1982). Anger and aggression: An essay on emotion. New York: Springer-Verlag.
- Averill, J. R. (1983). Studies on anger and aggression: Implications for theories of emotion. American Psychologist, 38, 1145-1160.
- Ball, G. A., Trevino, L. K., & Sims, H. P. (1994). Just and unjust punishment: influences of subordinate performance and citizenship. Academy of Management Journal, 37, 299-322.
- Belec, B. E., & Rowe, P. M. (1983). Temporal placement of information, expectancy, causal attributions, and overall final judgments in employment decision-making. Canadian Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 15, 106-120.

Betancourt, H., & Blair, I. (1992). A cognition (attribution)-emotion model of violence in conflict situations. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 18, 343-350.

Bies, R. J. (1987). The predicament of injustice: The management of moral outrage. In L. L. Cummings & B. M. Straw (Eds.), Research in organizational behavior, (pp. 289-319). Greenwich, Conn: JAI Press.

Bies, R. J. (in press). Interactional (in)justice: The sacred and the profane. In J. Greenberg & R. Cropanzano (Eds.), Advances in Organizational Justice. Lexington, MA: New Lexington press.

Bies, R. J., & Moag, J. S. (1986). Interactional justice: Communication criteria of fairness. In R. J. Lewicki, B. H. Sheppard, & M. Bazerman (Eds.), Research on negotiation in organizations (Vol. 1, pp. 43-55). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Bies, R. J., & Shapiro, D. L. (1987). Interactional fairness judgments: The influence of causal accounts. Social Justice Research, 1, 199-218.

Bies, R. J., & Shapiro, D. L. (1988). Voice and justifications: Their influence on procedural fairness judgments. Academy of Management Journal, 31, 676-685.

Bobocel, D. R., McCline, R. L., & Folger, R. (in press). Letting them down gently: Conceptual advances in explaining controversial organizational policies. In C. L. Cooper & D. M. Rousseau (Eds.), Trends in Organizational Behavior (Vol. 4). Sussex, England: John Wiley & Sons.

Bok, S. (1978). Lying: Moral choice in public and private life. New York: Random House.

Boon, S.D., & Sulsky, L.M. (1997). Attributions of Blame and Forgiveness in Romantic Relationships: A Policy-Capturing Study. Journal of Social Behavior and Personality, *12*, 19-44.

Brehmer, B. (1979). Preliminaries to a psychology of inference. Scandinavian Journal of Psychology, *20*, 193-210.

Brehmer, B., & Joyce, C.R.B. (1988). Human judgment: The SJT view. Amsterdam: North Holland Elsevier.

Brehmer, B., & Svensson, C. (1976). Learning to use functional rules in inference tasks. Scandinavian Journal of Psychology, *17*, 313-319.

Brockner, J., Konovsky, M. A., 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*, 397-409.

Brockner, J., & Wisenfeld, B. M. (1996). An integrative framework for explaining reactions to decisions: Interactive effects of outcomes and procedures. Psychological Bulletin, *2*, 189-208.

Brunswik, E. (1955). Representative design and probabilistic theory in functional psychology. Psychological Review, *62*, 193-217.

Cable, D., & Judge, T. (1994). Pay preferences and job search decisions: A person-organization fit perspective. Personnel Psychology, *47*, 317-348.

Cameron, K. S. (1994). Strategies for successful organizational downsizing. Human Resource Management, *33(2)*, 189-211.

Campbell, M. C. (1999). Perceptions of price unfairness: Antecedents and consequences. Journal of Marketing Research, 36, 187-199.

Cascio, W.F. (1995). Whither industrial and organizational psychology in a changing world of work? American Psychologist, 50, 928-939.

Cohen, J., & Cohen, P. (1975). Applied multiple regression/correlation analyses for the behavioral sciences. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Cooksey, R. W. (1996). Judgment analysis: Theory, methods, and applications. San Diego, CA: Academic Press, Inc.

Costa, T. P., & McCrae, R. R. (1992). Revised NEO Personality Inventory and NEO Five Factor Inventor. Odessa Florida: Psychological Assessment Resources, Inc.

Cronbach, L. J., & Meehl, P. H. (1955). Construct validity in psychological tests. Psychological Bulletin, 52, 281-302.

Cropanzano, R., & Folger, R. (1989). Referent cognitions and task decision autonomy: Beyond equity theory. Journal of Applied Psychology, 74, 293-299.

Cropanzano, R., & Folger, R. (1991). Procedural justice and worker motivation. In R. M. Steers & L.W. Porter (Eds.), Motivation and work behavior (2nd ed., pp. 131-143). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Cropanzano, R., & Prehar, C. A. (1999). Using social exchange theory to distinguish procedural from interactional justice. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Atlanta, GA.

Cropanzano, R., & Randall, M. L. (1993). Injustice and work behavior: A historical review. In R. Cropanzano (Ed.), Justice in the workplace: Approaching fairness in human resource management (pp. 3-20). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Darley, J. M., & Huff, C. W. (1990). Heightened damage assessment as a result of the intentionality of the damage-causing act. British Journal of Social Psychology, *29*, 181-188.

Darlington, R. B. (1968). Multiple regression in psychological research and practice. Psychological Bulletin, *69*, 161-182.

Dawes, R.M. (1971). A case study of graduate admissions: Application of three principles of human decision making. American Psychologist, *26*, 180-186.

DeNisi, A. S., Cafferty, T. P., & Meglino, B. M. (1984). A cognitive view of the performance appraisal process: A model and research propositions. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, *33*, 360-396.

Deshpande, S., & Schoderbek, P. (1993). Pay-allocations by managers: A policy-capturing approach. Human Relations, *46*, 465-479.

Dougherty, T.W., Ebert, R.J., & Callender, J.C. (1986). Policy capturing in the employment interview. Journal of Applied Psychology, *71*, 9-15.

Dozier, J., & Miceli, M. P. (1985). Potential predictors of whistleblowing: A prosocial behavioral perspective. Academy of Management Review, *10*, 823-836.

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: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

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

Folger, R. (1994). Workplace justice and employee worth. Social Justice Research, 7, 225-241.

Folger, R. (in press). Toward a General Theory of Fairness. [to be submitted as a chapter for publication].

Folger, R., & Baron, R. A. (1996). Violence and hostility at work: A model of reactions to perceived injustice. In G. R. VanderBos & E. Bulatao (Eds.), Violence on the job: Identifying risks and developing solutions (pp. 51-85). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

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

Folger, R., & Cropanzano, R. (1998). Organizational justice and human resource management. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Folger, R., & Skarlicki, D. P. (1998). When tough times make tough bosses: Managerial distancing as a function of layoff blame. Academy of Management Journal, 41(1), 79-87.

Folger, R., & Skarlicki, D. P. (1999). A popcorn metaphor for workplace violence. In R.W. Griffin, A. O'Leary-Kelly, & J. Collins (Eds.), Dysfunctional behavior in organizations: Nonviolent dysfunctional behaviors (pp. 43-82). Greenwich: JAI press.

Frijda, N. (1986). The emotions. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Frijda, N. H. (1988). The law of emotion. American Psychologist, 43, 349-358.

Green, S. G., & Mitchell, T. R. (1979). Attributional processes of leaders in leader-member interactions. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 23, 429-458.

Greenberg, J. (1988). Cultivating an image of justice: Looking fair on the job. Academy of Management Executive, 2, 155-157.

Greenberg, J. (1990). Looking fair vs. being fair: Managing impressions of organizational justice. Organizational Behavior, 12, 111-157.

Greenberg, J. (1991c). Social fairness and employees' reactions to layoffs. Unpublished Manuscript.

Greenberg, J. (1993b). The intellectual adolescence of organizational justice: You've come a long way, maybe. Social Justice Research, 6, 135-149.

Greenberg, J. (1994). Using socially fair treatment to promote acceptance of a work site smoking ban. Journal of Applied Psychology, 79(2), 288-297.

Greenberg, J., Lind, E. A., Scott, K. S., & Welchans, T. D. (1995). [Wrongful termination litigation in response to perceived injustice among layoff victims.] Unpublished raw data.

Greenberg, J., & Ornstein, S. (1983). High status job title as compensation for underpayment: A test of equity theory. Journal of Applied Psychology, 68(2), 285-297.

- Grover, S. L. (1991). Predicting the perceived fairness of parental leave policies. Journal of Applied Psychology, 76, 247-255.
- Heider, F. (1958). The psychology of interpersonal relations. New York: Wiley.
- Hemingway, M. (1998). The perceived fairness of layoff practices. Paper presented at the 13th Annual Conference of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Dallas, TX.
- Homans, G. C. (1961). Social behavior: Its elementary forms. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World.
- Hopkins, W. E., & Hopkins, S. A. (1999). The ethics of downsizing: Perception of rights and responsibilities. Journal of Business Ethics, 18, 145-156.
- Judge, T., & Bretz, R. (1992). Effects of work values on job choice decisions. Journal of Applied Psychology, 77, 261-271.
- Judge, T. A., & Martocchio, J. J. (1995). The role of fairness orientation and supervisor attributions in absence disciplinary decisions. Journal of Business and Psychology, 10, 115-137.
- Kets, de Vries, M.F.R., & Balazs, K. (1997). The downside of downsizing. Human Relations, 50, 11-50.
- Klass, B., & Wheeler, H. (1990). Managerial decision making about employee discipline: A policy capturing study. Personnel Psychology, 43, 117-133.

Kline, T. J. B., & Sulsky, L. M. (1995). A policy-capturing approach to individual decision-making: A demonstration using professor's judgements of the acceptability of psychology graduate school applicants. Canadian Journal of Behavioral Science, 27(4), 393-404.

Konovsky, M. A., & Brockner, J. (1996). Managing victim and survivor layoff reactions: A procedural justice perspective. In R. Cropanzano (Eds.), Justice in the workplace: Approaching fairness in human resource management (pp. 133-153). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

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

Konovsky, M. A., & Folger, R. (1991a). The effects of procedures, social accounts, and benefits level of victims' layoff reactions. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 21, 630-650.

Krantz, S. E., & Rode, S. (1984). Depressive attributions: Selection of different causes or assignment of different dimensional meanings? Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 47, 193-203.

Leventhal, G. S., Karuza, J., & Fry, W. R. (1980). Beyond Fairness: A theory of allocation preferences. In G. Mikula. Justice and social interaction. (pp.167-218). New York: Springer-Verlag.

Liden, R. C., & Mitchell, T. R. (1988). Ingratiation behaviors in organizational settings. Academy of Management Review, 13, 572-587.

Lind, E. A., & Lissak, R. I. (1985). Apparent impropriety and procedural fairness judgments. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 21, 19-24.

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

Malatesta, R. M., & Byrne, Z. S. (1997). The impact of formal and interactional justice on organizational outcomes. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology. St Louis, MO.

Masterson, S. S., & Taylor, M. S. (August, 1996). The Broadening of Procedural Justice: Should interactional and procedural components be separate theories? Paper presented at the National meeting of the Academy of Management, Cincinnati, OH.

McCormack, R. L. (1956). A criticism of studies comparing item-weighting methods. Journal of Applied Psychology, 40, 343-344.

McIntyre, M.D., & James, L.R. (1995). The inconsistency with which raters weight and combine information across targets. Human Performance, 2, 95-111.

Miceli, M. P. (1993). Justice and pay system satisfaction. In R. Cropanzano (Eds.), Justice in the workplace: Approaching fairness in human resource management (pp. 257-283). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Miceli, M. P., & Lane, M. C. (1991). Antecedents of pay satisfaction: A review and extension. In K. M., Rowland & G. R. Ferris (Eds.), Research in personnel and human resource management (Vol. 9, pp. 235-309). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Mikula, G., Petrik, B., & Tanzer, N. (1990). What people regard as unjust: types and structures of everyday experiences of injustice. European Journal of Social Psychology, 20(2), 133-149.

Mishra, K. E., & Spreitzer, G. M. (1998). Preserving employee morale during downsizing. Sloan Management Review, 39, 83-95.

Mueller, C. W., & Wallace, J. E. (1996). Justice and the paradox of the contended female worker. Social Psychology Quarterly, 59, 338-349.

Neuman, J. H., & Baron, R. A. (1996). Aggression in the workplace. In R. Giacalone and J. Greenberg (Eds.), Antisocial behavior in organizations (pp. 37-67). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Pedhazur, E. J. (1982). Multiple regression in behavioral research (2nd Ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston.

Phelan, J. (1994). The paradox of the contended female worker: An assessment of alternative explanations. Social Psychology Quarterly, 57, 95-107.

Quigley, B. M., & Tedeschi, J. T. (1996). Mediating effects of blame attributions of feelings of anger. Personality and Social Psychology, 22, 1280-1288.

Ralston, D. A. (1985). Employee ingratiation: The role of management. Academy of Management Review, 10, 447-487.

Richman, L.S. (1993, September 20). When will the layoffs end? Fortune, 54-56.

Robinson, S., & Bennett, R. J. (1995). A typology of deviant workplace behaviors: A multidimensional scaling study. Academy of Management Journal, 38, 555-572.

Rotter, J. B. (1966). Generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement. Psychological Monographs, 80, (1, whole No. 609).

Rousseau, D. M., & Anton, R. J. (1988). Fairness and implied contract obligations in job terminations: A policy-capturing study. Human Performance, 4, 273-289.

Rousseau, D. M., & Aquino, K. (1993). Fairness and implied contract obligations in job determinations: The role of remedies, social accounts, and procedural justice. Human Performance, 6, 135-149.

Rynes, S., & Lawler, J. (1983). A policy-capturing investigation of the role of expectancies in decision to pursue job alternatives. Journal of Applied Psychology, 68, 620-631.

Sanchez, J., & Levine, E. (1989). Determining important tasks within jobs: A policy-capturing approach. Journal of Applied Psychology, 74, 336-342.

Schlenker, B. R., Britt, T. W., Pennington, J. W., Murphy, R., & Doherty, K. J. (1994). The triangle model of responsibility. Psychological Review, 101, 632-652.

Schlenker, B. R., Britt, T. W., Pennington, J., Murphy, R., & Doherty, K. (1994). The triangle model of responsibility. Psychological Review, 101, 632-652.

Seitz, C. (1988). Contextual factors in performance ratings: A policy capturing approach. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Bowling Green State University, Bowling Green.

Shapiro, D. L., Lewicki, R. J., & Devine, P. (1995). When do employees choose deceptive tactics to stop unwanted organizational change? A relational perspective. Research on Negotiation in Organizations, 5, 155-184.

Sherer, P., Schwab, D., & Henenman, H. (1987). Managerial salary-raise decisions: A policy capturing approach. Personnel Psychology, 40, 27-38.

Skarlicki, D. P., Ellard, J. H., & Kelln, B. R. C. (1998). Third party perceptions of a layoff: Procedural, derogation, and retributive aspects of justice. Journal of Applied Psychology, 83, 119-127.

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

Skarlicki, D. P., & Folger, R. (1998). A Test of a General Theory of Fairness. Unpublished Manuscript, The University of Calgary.

Skarlicki, D. P., Folger, R., and Tesluk, P. (1999). Personality as a moderator in the relationship between fairness and retaliation. Academy of Management Journal, 42, 100-108.

Slovic, P. (1969). Analyzing the expert judge. A descriptive study of a stockbroker's decision processes. Journal of Applied Psychology, 53, 255-263.

Slovic, P., & Lichtenstein, S. (1971). Comparison of bayesian and regression approaches to the study of information processing in judgment. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 6, 649-744.

Spector, P. E. (1988). Development of the Work Locus of Control Scale. Journal of Occupational Psychology, 61, 335-340.

Struthers, C. W., Colwill, N. L., & Perry, R. P. (1992). An attributional analysis of decision making in a personnel selection interview. Journal of Applied Psychology, 22, 801-818.

Struthers, C. W., Miller, D. L., Boudens, C., & Briggs, G. (in press). Effects of causal attributions on coworker interactions: A social motivation perspective. Basic and Applied Social Psychology.

Struthers, C. W., Weiner, B., & Allred, K. (1998). Effects of causal attributions on personnel decisions: A social motivation perspective. Basic and Applied Social Psychology, 20, 155-166.

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

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (1996). Using Multivariate Statistics. (3rd ed.). New York: Harper Collins College Publishers Inc.

Tucker, D. H., & Rowe, P. M. (1979). Relationship between expectancy, causal attributions, and final hiring decisions in the employment interview. Journal of Applied Psychology, 64, 27-34.

Tyler, T. R., & Bies, R. J. (1990). Beyond formal procedures: The interpersonal context of procedural justice. In J. S. Cavroll (Eds.), Applied social psychology and organizational settings (pp. 77-98). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Tyler, T. R., & Lind, E. A. (1990). Intrinsic versus community-based justice models: When does group membership matter? Journal of Social Issues, 46(1), 83-94.

Tyler, T. R., & Smith, H. J. (1997). Social Justice and social movements. In D. Gilbert, S. T. Fiske, & G. Lindzey (Eds.), Handbook of social psychology (4th ed., pp.595-629). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Ullman, D. G., & Doherty, M. E. (1984). Two determinants of the diagnosis of hyperactivity: the child and the clinician. In M. L. Wolraich, & D. K. Routh (Eds.), Advances in behavioral pediatrics (Volume 5, pp. 167-219). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Van den Bos, K., Vermunt, R., & Wilke, H. A. M. (1997). Procedural and distributive justice: What is fair depends more on what comes first than on what comes next. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 72, 95-104.

Weiner, B. (1985). An attributional theory of achievement motivation and emotion. Psychological Review, 92, 548-573.

Weiner, B. (1986). An attributional theory of motivation and emotion. New York: Springer-Verlag.

Weiner, B. (1995). Judgments of responsibility: A foundation for a theory of social conduct. New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

Wong, P.T.P., & Weiner, B. (1981). When people ask "why" questions and the heuristics of attributional search. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 40, 650-663.

York, K. M. (1989). Defining sexual harassment in workplaces: A policy-capturing approach. Academy of Management Journal, 32, 830-850.

Appendix A

Instructions

Imagine yourself as an employee in a well-established telecommunications company in western Canada that employs approximately 800 workers. You have been employed by the organization for 8 years. During this time, you have developed good working relations with your coworkers and manager. Over the past few years, your performance reviews have indicated that your performance level with the company was above average. You are aware that the company is considering some economic and technological restructuring.

Please read the following short situations of the interactions between yourself as the employee and your manager. There are 25 descriptions in total. After each situation, you are asked to make a series of judgments about the situations.

Please use the scale below to answer the following questions. Indicate the number which most closely represents the extent to which you agree or disagree with the sentence:

- 1 = strongly disagree
- 2 = disagree
- 3 = slightly disagree
- 4 = neither agree nor disagree
- 5 = slightly agree
- 6 = agree
- 7 = strongly agree

Please ask if you have any questions.

Thank you in advance for your time.

Appendix B

Sample Profile

You are waiting in your manager's office to discuss your concerns about the company's restructuring. While you are waiting, you see a memo on the desk dated three weeks ago. The memo states that your position is among those with the company that will be terminated at the end of the month. When you asked about the memo, your manager verifies the news but *does not* tell you any details. You found out from your coworkers that your manager had known about the memo for some time but *had failed* to inform you earlier.

- | | |
|---|---|
| <p>1. My manager gave me a complete and adequate explanation for the company's decision</p> <p style="text-align: center;">1 2 3 4</p> | <p>My manager did <i>not</i> give me a complete and adequate explanation for the company's decision.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">5</p> |
| <p>2. My manager <i>did all he</i> could to keep me informed</p> <p style="text-align: center;">1 2 3 4</p> | <p>My manager <i>intentionally</i> withheld information from me</p> <p style="text-align: center;">5</p> |

The items below concern your opinion of this event.
Circle one of the numbers for each of the following items.

- | | | | | | | |
|-------------------|-------------------|----------|----------------------------|----------------|-------|----------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| strongly disagree | disagree slightly | disagree | neither agree nor disagree | slightly agree | agree | strongly agree |

If this were me, I would feel,...

- | | | | |
|---|-------------------|---------|----------------|
| | strongly disagree | neutral | strongly agree |
| 3. I was treated <i>fairly</i> despite the outcome. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | | |
| 4. <i>anger</i> toward my manager. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | | |
| 5. <i>resentment</i> toward my manager. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | | |
| 6. my manager treated me with <i>dignity</i> and <i>respect</i> . | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | | |
| 7. <i>upset</i> toward my manager. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | | |
| 8. overall, that I was treated <i>fairly</i> by my manager | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | | |

Here are some possible actions that you might take toward your manager.

Please consider each of them independently.

- | | |
|--|---------------|
| 9. If this were me, I would <i>criticize</i> the way the situation was handled by my manager (e.g., publicly criticize the manager, write a letter to the organization, etc.). | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 10. If this were me, I would <i>voice my opinion</i> against the way my manager handled the process (e.g., speak to my manager, speak to my manager's supervisor, speak to coworkers, etc.). | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 11. If this were me, I would <i>protest</i> against the way my manager handled the process (e.g., speak poorly of my company to others, spread rumors, etc.). | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |

Appendix C

Work Locus of Control Scale (WLCS)

Please answer the following questions.

Use the scale below to answer the following questions. Circle the number after each sentence that most closely represents the extent to which you agree or disagree with the sentence.

- 1 = disagree very much
 2 = disagree moderately
 3 = disagree slightly
 4 = agree slightly
 5 = agree moderately
 6 = agree very much

	disagree very much	1	2	3	4	5	6	agree very much
1. A job is what you make of it. (R)		1	2	3	4	5	6	
2. On most jobs, people can pretty much accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish. (R)		1	2	3	4	5	6	
3. If you know what you want out of a job, you can find a job that gives it to you. (R)		1	2	3	4	5	6	
4. If employees are unhappy with a decision made by their boss, they should do something about it. (R)		1	2	3	4	5	6	
5. Getting the job you want is mostly a matter of luck.		1	2	3	4	5	6	
6. Making money is primarily a matter of good fortune.		1	2	3	4	5	6	
7. Most people are capable of doing their job well if they make the effort. (R)		1	2	3	4	5	6	
8. In order to get a really good job you need to have family members or friends in high places.		1	2	3	4	5	6	
9. Promotions are usually a matter of good fortune.		1	2	3	4	5	6	
10. When it comes to landing a really good job, who you know is more important than what you know.		1	2	3	4	5	6	
11. Promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job. (R)		1	2	3	4	5	6	
12. To make a lot of money you have to know the right people.		1	2	3	4	5	6	
13. It takes a lot of luck to be an outstanding employee on most jobs.		1	2	3	4	5	6	
14. People who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded for it. (R)		1	2	3	4	5	6	
15. Most employees have more influence on their supervisors than they think they do. (R)		1	2	3	4	5	6	
16. The main difference between people who make a lot of money and people who make a little money is luck.		1	2	3	4	5	6	

Note. (R) indicates reverse coded items.

Appendix D

Neuroticism Facet of the Revised NEO PI Form

Read each statement carefully. For each statement circle the response that best represents your opinion.

Circle **SD** if you *strongly agree* or the statement is definitely false.

Circle **D** if you *disagree* or the statement is mostly false.

Circle **N** if you are *neutral* on the statement, you cannot decide, or the statement is about equally true and false.

Circle **A** if you *agree* or the statement is mostly true.

Circle **SA** if you *strongly agree* or the statement is definitely true.

- | | | | | | |
|--|----|---|---|---|----|
| 1. I often get angry at the way people treat me. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 2. I'm an even-tempered person. (R) | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 3. I am known as hot-blooded & quick tempered. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 4. I am not considered a touchy or temperamental person. (R) | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 5. I often get disgusted with people I have to deal with. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 6. It takes a lot to get me mad. (R) | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 7. At times I have felt bitter and resentful. | SD | D | N | A | SA |
| 8. Even minor annoyances can be frustrating to me. | SD | D | N | A | SA |

Note. (R) indicates reverse coded items.

Appendix E

Individual Difference Variables

Please complete the following questions:

1. Gender M__ F__
 2. Age ____
 3. What is the number of times you have been in an organization where layoffs have occurred? 0__ 1__ 2__ 3__ 3+__
 4. What is the number of times you have been laid off? 0__ 1__ 2__ 3__ 3+__
 5. Years of supervisory or personal management experience____
 6. Have you ever had to lay off employees? Yes__ No____
-

Appendix F

CONSENT FORM

Research Project Title: **The Role of Accountability in Determining Layoff Victims' Perceptions of Fairness. Levels of Resentment and Retaliatory Intentions: A Policy-Capturing Approach.**

Investigator: Deborah Miller

This consent form, a copy of which has been given to you, is only part of the process of informed consent. It should give you the basic idea of what the research is about and what your participation will involve. If you would like more detail about something mentioned here, or information not included here, please ask. Please take the time to read this form carefully and to understand any accompanying information.

The purpose of this research is twofold. The first objective is to determine whether judgments of managerial accountability predict an employee's perceptions of fairness. The second objective is to examine whether these perceptions predict an employee's level of resentment and retaliatory intentions. Accountability refers to whether the treatment of the employee by the manager is regarded as intentional or accidental.

You will be asked to imagine yourself as an employee of an organization and read short situations (one paragraph) of the interactions between you (as the employee) and your manager. There are 25 descriptions in total. After each situation, you will be asked to make a series of judgments about the situations. As well, you will be asked to complete 2 short personality questionnaires and provide demographic information. It is expected that the entire study will take approximately 35 minutes to complete.

Your signature on this form indicates that you have understood to your satisfaction the information regarding participation in the research project and agree to participate. In no way does this waive your legal rights nor release the investigators, sponsors, or involved institutions from their legal and professional responsibilities. You are free to not answer specific items or questions in interviews or on questionnaires. You are free to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. Your continued participation should be as informed as your initial consent, so you should feel free to ask for clarification or new information throughout your participation. If you have further questions concerning matters related to this research, please contact: Deborah Miller (403) 220-8930 at the University of Calgary.

If you have any questions concerning your participation in this project, you may also contact the Psychology Department Ethics Committee (T.B. Rogers; A255B; 220-6378; email tbrogers@ucalgary.ca).

Participant

Date

Investigator

Date

A copy of this consent form has been given to you to keep for your records and reference. This research has the ethical approval of the University of Calgary.

If you wish a copy of the results of this study please indicate this by providing your name and address or fax number below:

Appendix G

Sample Profiles

Memo Context

1. You are waiting in your manager's office to discuss your concerns about the company's restructuring. While you are waiting, you see a memo on the desk dated three weeks ago. The memo states that your position is among those with the company that will be terminated at the end of the month. When you asked about the memo, your manager verifies the news but does not tell you any details. You found out from your coworkers that your manager had known about the memo but was directed by top management to keep the news from you until today. [L-L]
2. You are waiting in your manager's office to discuss your concerns about the company's restructuring. While you are waiting, you see a memo on the desk dated three weeks ago. The memo states that your position is among those with the company that will be terminated at the end of the month. When you asked about the memo, your manager verifies the news but does not tell you any details. You found out from your coworkers that your manager had known about the memo for some time but had failed to inform you earlier. [L-H]
3. You are waiting in your manager's office to discuss your concerns about the company's restructuring. While you are waiting, you see a memo on the desk dated three weeks ago. The memo states that your position is among those with the company that will be terminated at the end of the month. When you asked about the memo, your manager took the time to answer your questions and concerns. You found out from your coworkers that your manager had known about the memo but was directed by top management to keep the news from you until today. [H-L]
4. You are waiting in your manager's office to discuss your concerns about the company's restructuring. While you are waiting, you see a memo on the desk dated three weeks ago. The memo states that your position is among those with the company that will be terminated at the end of the month. When you asked about the memo, your manager took the time to answer your questions and concerns. You found out from your coworkers that your manager had known about the memo for some time but had failed to inform you earlier. [H-H]

Appendix G (*continued*)Accidental E-mail Context

1. Your manager informs you in person that your position with the company will be terminated as a result of the company's restructuring. Your manager however, did not apologize for this situation or take the time to listen to your questions and concerns. Earlier that day, an e-mail was accidentally sent to you from the CEO of the company to inform your manager to notify you of your layoff and not disclose a lot of details. [L-L]
2. Your manager informs you in person that your position with the company will be terminated as a result of the company's restructuring. Your manager however, did not apologize for this situation or take the time to listen to your questions and concerns. Earlier that day, an e-mail was accidentally sent to you from the CEO of the company to inform your manager to be sensitive to you when delivering this information. [L-H]
3. Your manager informs you in person that your position with the company will be terminated as a result of the company's restructuring. Your manager apologized for this unfortunate circumstance and took the time to listen to your question and concerns. Earlier that day, an e-mail was accidentally sent to you from the CEO of the company to your manager to notify you of your layoff and not disclose a lot of details. [H-L]
4. Your manager informs you in person that your position with the company will be terminated as a result of the company's restructuring. Your manager apologized for this unfortunate circumstance and took the time to listen to your question and concerns. Earlier that day, an e-mail was accidentally sent to you from the CEO of the company to inform your manager to be sensitive to you when delivering this information. [H-H]