THE IMPACT OF FAIRNESS, ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST,

AND PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT ON

POLICE OFFICER PERFORMANCE

by

Paul Davis Reynolds, B.A., M.S.

A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Council of
Texas State University in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
with a Major in Criminal Justice
August 2015

Committee Members:

    Joycelyn M. Pollock, Chair

    Beth A. Sanders

    Bob E. Vasquez

    Matthew J. Hickman

FAIR USE AND AUTHOR'S PERMISSION STATEMENT

Fair Use

This work is protected by the Copyright Laws of the United States (Public Law 94-553, section 107). Consistent with fair use as defined in the Copyright Laws, brief quotations from this material are allowed with proper acknowledgment. Use of this material for financial gain without the author's express written permission is not allowed.

Duplication Permission

DEDICATION

To my brother Mark, who has always been my biggest hero and inspiration.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to acknowledge several individuals who helped me in the completion of this paper and degree. First, I wish to acknowledge my dissertation chair and mentor, Dr. Joy Pollock, who continued to challenge me and always pushed me to strive for excellence. I could never thank you enough for all your unwavering support over the last few years. I would also like to thank my amazing dissertation committee of Dr. Beth Sanders, Dr. Bob Vasquez, and Dr. Mathew Hickman for your contributions, guidance, and support throughout the dissertation process.

I also want to thank my parents, Fred and Sharon Reynolds, for all the sacrifices you made throughout the years to help me reach my goals. I love you both very much. Last, but most importantly, I want to thank my beautiful wife Amy and our two amazing daughters, Sayler and Hayden, for filling my life with so much joy and laughter.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

ix

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure   **Page**

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Abbreviation	Description
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CWB	Counterproductive Work Behaviors
GTask	General Task Performance
OCB	Organizational Citizen Behaviors
POS	Perceived Organizational Support
PTask	Patrol Task Performance
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
SPB	Self-Protective Behaviors
TRUST/POS	Organizational Trust and Perceived Organizational Support Combined Latent Factor

ABSTRACT

One of the strongest predictors of employee performance among organizational factors is organizational justice, while social exchange theory has emerged as the prominent paradigm to explain the processes that link perceived fairness to performance. However, there is scant research on how perceptions of fairness and justice relate to workplace behaviors among police officers. This research addressed this shortfall by analyzing the relationship between perceptions of organizational justice and work performance.

Also examined are the potential mediating effects of social exchange indicators (organizational trust and perceived organizational support). Work performance measures included organizational citizenship behaviors, patrol task performance, general task performance, defiance, self-protective behaviors, and three dimensions of counterproductive work behaviors (production deviance, self-protective behaviors, and defiance). Data were collected utilizing an online self-report survey distributed to police officer associations in a southern state.

Findings from structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis showed that overall fairness was positively related to police and general task performance, a combined measure including organizational trust and perceived organizational support (trust/support), while negatively related to self-protective behaviors, deviance, and defiance. Trust/support was negatively related to self-protective behaviors, defiance, and patrol task. In regard to mediation, perceived organizational support and trust partially

mediated the effect of overall fairness on self-protective behaviors, deviance, and patrol task. Findings suggest that police administrators may be able to enhance police officer overall work performance and ultimately their quality service to the community, by enhancing overall fairness perceptions of the organization among police officers.

I. INTRODUCTION

"The point is this: whoever sows sparingly will also reap sparingly,

and whoever sows bountifully will also reap bountifully."

-2 Corinthians 9:6 (ESV)

"Justice, there is no justice in a police department" (Reynolds & Hicks, 2014, p. 1). This statement, from a patrol officer of eight years, demonstrates the general nature of police officers' perceptions of fairness within their organization. What is concerning about this officer's statement, is not only that it is a reflection of police officers' beliefs about fairness, but also that these negative perceptions of fairness may translate into poor job performance. The recent media hype over police-citizen interactions illustrates the importance of organizational fairness. Police, just like citizens, value being treated with respect and fairness. When police officers perceive that they are not being treated fairly, their frustration and resentment are aimed inward to the administration, but may also be directed at the general public, and the consequences can be poor community relations.

A majority of police performance studies have focused exclusively on negative work-related behaviors. In general occupational literature, negative work-related behaviors are consolidated under the broad term of counterproductive behaviors (Coliquitt et al., 2013; Spector et al., 2006; Spector & Fox, 2005). Counterproductive behaviors, or negative work-related behaviors, in police literature are termed as police deviance (Punch, 2009). Police deviance covers a whole spectrum of behavior, including: various forms of corruption (i.e., for personal financial gain), police crimes (i.e., illegal behavior by officers), and police misconduct (i.e., rule violations, abuse of authority).

While some police scholars suggest various counterproductive work-related behaviors are rampant among the ranks (Punch, 2009), others argue that these behaviors are isolated to only a few officers (Porter & Warrender, 2009). A primary reason for this discrepancy among researchers is in the definition and measurement of negative work behavior (Punch, 2009; Varela, Boccaccini, Scogin, Stump, & Caputo, 2004). For instance, there is disagreement over operationalizing police misconduct as only abuses of authority or power (i.e., excessive force) or violations of departmental policy (i.e., use of tobacco products while on duty). Thus, if police misconduct is expressed in terms of officers using excessive force, it may be rare, but misconduct operationalized as rule violations no doubt occur much more frequently. Furthermore, accepting gratuities (e.g., accepting a free cup of coffee) and taking a bribe (e.g., receiving pecuniary rewards for misuse of discretion) can both be considered acts of corruption, but drastically differ in both severity of the act and frequency.

There are also many types of behaviors engaged in by officers that are detrimental to an organization and have nothing to do with interactions with the public. These behaviors are common to employees in general, but are rarely studied in policing. Such behaviors include lying to bosses, stealing supplies, sleeping on the job, and taking excessive breaks (Colquitt et al., 2013; Spector et al., 2006; Spector & Fox, 2005).

Regardless of how negative workplace behaviors are categorized or measured, most would agree that these types of work behaviors are present across law enforcement agencies at the local, state, and federal level. This is evident by the numerous examples shown by media and social outlets daily (Eitle, D'Alessio, & Stolzenberg, 2014; Pollock & Reynolds, 2014). For example, a photo of a Camden County metro police officer

sleeping in his patrol car went viral on social media in August of 2013 and daily accounts of officer misbehavior are posted by the Cato Institute online (www.policemisconduct.net). Eitle and colleagues (2014) referenced that the National Police Misconduct Reporting Program (NPMRP), the most comprehensive collection of police misconduct, reported over 8,304 incidents between the years 2009-2010 alone. Just in the month of March 2015, the CATO Institute posted over a 100 instances of alleged misconduct, including acts of theft, sexual assault, excessive force, false arrests, and untruthfulness (Cato Institute, 2015).

Most people would agree—regardless of frequency or severity of these acts—that the majority of these behaviors are unprofessional, unethical, and detrimental to organizational goals and effectiveness (Pollock & Reynolds, 2014). Furthermore, leaders and policymakers should take an active role in reducing these types of behavior (Fischer, 2014; President's Task Force on 21st Century Policing, 2015). A primary reason proffered by scholars and practitioners is that these types of behavior reduce police legitimacy among citizenry, which hinders law enforcement effectiveness in maintaining order (Fischer, 2014; Tyler, 2004, 2006).

One of the most challenging obstacles for reducing negative organizational behaviors and promoting positive work behavior is the occupational environment in which police officers work (Eitle et al., 2014; Mastrofski, 2004; Pollock, 2014). Police work is highly discretionary and often performed with minimal direct supervision (Mastrofski, 2004; Pollock, 2014). Therefore, it is vital for police administrators and supervisors to have a way to promote positive performance outcomes, other than strictly by instrumental means (Tyler, 2011; Tyler, Callahan, & Frost, 2007). Enhanced

disciplinary practices, utilization of early-warning systems, enhanced selection criteria, and increased training throughout officer careers are often touted as solutions to the problem of police deviance (Frydl & Skogan, 2004; President's Task Force on 21st Century Policing, 2015). However, without fully understanding which factors may contribute to varying types of misbehavior, it is difficult for administrators to develop, implement, and evaluate policies to address this issue.

One organizational factor that has continuously been linked to employee behavior within the public and private workplace settings is that of workplace fairness (Colquitt, Greenberg, & Zapata-Phelan, 2005). Previous research has found that employees' perceptions of workplace fairness are formed over time and comprised of different fairness dimensions (Colquitt et al., 2005). There is also support that the longer the amount of time an employee is at an organization, the more an employee may perceive that organization as being unfair. For example, Lambert, Hogan, and Griffin (2007) found that correctional officers with more tenure were less likely to perceive their organization as being fair. Increased perceptions of injustice can impede working relationships based on group value and group engagement models (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2003; Tyler & Lind, 1992), According to these models, employees use fairness perceptions to make judgments as to one's status and contributing worth within a group or organizational context. In addition, fair treatment provides comfort that the individual will not be mistreated or taken advantage of by the organization. According to Tyler and Blader (2000), the need for acceptance and positive affirmation of self-worth is vital for a person beyond pecuniary benefits because fairness helps fill emotional needs.

Relationships are important because they not only help meet emotional needs, but they are critical for positive reciprocation between individuals (Blau, 1967). Social exchange theory (Blau, 1967; Homans, 1958) is based on the idea of reciprocation in relationships where people's actions are based upon a cost benefit analysis. Thus, people have certain expectations of how their actions should be reciprocated given varying types of relationships and base their actions accordingly to promote the most beneficial outcome. Therefore, mistreatment in the form of perceived unfairness violates people expectations of how they should be treated which hinders relationships.

Fortunately, research has provided a framework for the understanding of how justice (fairness and justice are often used interchangeably in organizational research) perceptions are formed and how individuals react to these perceptions (Colquitt et al., 2005). That is to say, organizations are able to enhance justice perceptions by incorporating fairness in their management system. Fair management systems could enhance reciprocal relationships (Cropanzano, Bowen, & Gilliland, 2007) by implementing policies consistent with perceived normative rules of justice, such as equitable outcomes, unbiased and consistent procedures, treating people with respect and dignity, and effective communication through truthful, accurate, and complete explanations regarding outcomes and procedures (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2005; Cropanzano et al., 2007). Normative rules of justice, in simplistic form, can be best understood as general expectations most individuals agree upon in regard to fairness. Therefore, although fairness is subjective in nature, there is a common consensus as to what most people would view as fair in general terms (Cropanzano et al., 2007). Enhancing perceptions of justice within an organization is

important because perceptions of justice are related to positive and negative work-related

behaviors and attitudes (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001, 2013;

Viswesvaran & Ones, 2002).

<div align="center">**Organizational Justice**</div>

Organizational justice provides a viable theoretical approach to an understanding

of how perceptions of fairness within an organization are formed and how these

perceptions affect employee behaviors and attitudes. The term organizational justice was

originally used by Greenberg (1987) to explain the role of perceived fairness within the

workplace (Colquitt et al., 2005; Greenberg, 1990) and the interactions between

employees and organizations (Krischer, Penney, & Hunter, 2010). Therefore,

organizational justice research takes a *descriptive* approach, based on perceptions of what

is fair versus a traditional *prescriptive* approach to studying justice that focuses on which

acts are truly just or fair (Cropanzano et al., 2007).

Organizational justice is most often expressed as consisting of three separate, but

interactive and interrelated concepts: (a) distributive, (b) procedural, and (c) interactional

justice, which is sometimes broken into distinct components of interpersonal and

informational justice (Cohen-Charach & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001, 2005;

Cropanzano et al., 2007). Distributive justice refers to the perceived fairness of an

outcome and is derived from early equity theory research (Adams, 1965) that focused on

perceptions of fair outcomes. Procedural justice refers to the processes used to determine

the outcome (Leventhal, 1980; Thibault & Walker, 1975). Interactional justice refers to

how employees are treated overall during the processes and outcomes (Bies & Moag,

1986) and is sometimes divided into two separate dimensions: interpersonal and informational justice.

Interpersonal justice refers to situations in which supervisors treat employees with dignity and respect and refrain from demeaning or inappropriate comments, while informational justice refers to the perceived fairness in organizational explanations for the existence of certain procedures and distributions in the workplace (Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Greenberg, 1993). These three dimensions can also act as antecedents to predict a global measure of overall perceptions of workplace fairness (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009). In general, organizational justice research focuses on how employees determine fair treatment within their organization and how their perceptions influence work-related attitudes and behaviors (Colquitt et al., 2005; Cropanzano et al., 2007). In line with organizational justice research, the study presented in this dissertation examined the perception of overall fairness within police departments on self-reported performances. There was no attempt to objectively measure the fairness of the police organizations.

Why Fairness Matters

Research has consistently shown that relationships exist between varying organizational dimensions and employee behaviors within the public and private workplace settings (Colquitt et al., 2005; Cropanzano et al., 2007). There are numerous reasons why fairness perceptions matter within an organization. One reason is that perceived fairness can provide motivation to engage in positive behaviors without the use of instrumental control mechanisms (discipline sanctions). A second important reason is that fairness judgments are used to evaluate one's status within a group or organization

that is then linked to employee satisfaction and individual behaviors and attitudes. Simply, fair treatment is internalized as being valued and accepted as part of the group. The primary focus of this research is how fairness influences behavior through a social exchange process.

Perceptions of fairness matter because these perceptions influence individuals' behaviors and attitudes. Consequently, understanding how perceptions of fairness affect employees is crucial to fully understand employee performance. If employees feel they are being mistreated, they will begin to believe that the organization is unfair and react according to these held beliefs.

Organizational leaders are dependent upon employees to meet organizational goals; employers need the cooperation of their employees, regardless of occupation (Tyler, 2011; Tyler et al., 2007). However, individuals differ not only in degree to which they are willing to follow rules and the law but also their reasons for compliance and cooperating with authorities (Tyler, 2004, 2006; Tyler & Fagan, 2008; Tyler & Huo, 2002). This holds true within work organizations as well as in society (Tyler, 2011). Promoting cooperation in terms of rule deference and pro-social work behaviors is even more crucial in organizations in which employees have limited supervision and often work autonomously, such as in policing (Tyler et al., 2007). As stated above, organizations have to promote positive work behaviors and attitudes by ways other than merely instrumental means that are often utilized, such as rewards and sanctions (Cropanzano et al., 2007; Tyler, 2011; Tyler et al., 2007).

Consistent with group-oriented theories, fairness provides a reference for which employees make judgments about one's standing and worth in the organization (Lind &

8

Tyler, 1988; Tyler & Blader, 2000; Tyler & Lind, 1992). Research has shown that fair procedures enhance perceptions that the organization authorities are trustworthy, while confirming that the employee is a valued member (Tyler & Blader, 2003; Tyler, Degoey, & Smith, 1996; Tyler & Lind, 1992).

The relational model of authority states that individuals take cues through interactions with others in terms of how they are treated, which individuals then use to make assessments concerning their relationships with others. Based on the relational model of authority (Tyler & Lind, 1992), the perception of fairness is influenced by three relationship factors:

- one's standing with an authority figure (e.g., one's supervisor) and the quality of interpersonal treatment that one receives;

- benevolence, which refers to the perception that authorities take into consideration the employees' views and how decisions will impact employees;

- the neutrality of the decisions; in other words, no one receives special treatment.

Fairness, Social Exchange, and Performance

Performance may be viewed as consisting of three separate dimensions: (a) task performance, (b) organizational citizenship behaviors, and (c) counterproductive work behaviors (Colquitt et al., 2013; Dalal, Baysinger, Brummel, & LeBreton, 2012; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). Task performance refers to actions that are typically required and expected within an employee's job role. Organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) are actions that benefit

the organization as a whole, but are typically not rewarded or go beyond normal work expectations. Counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs) are actions that harm the organization (Colquitt et al., 2013; Dalal et al., 2012). Overall, multiple meta-analyses have shown that fairness is linked to each of these three dimensions of work performance (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001, 2013). Fairness is related to increasing task performance and organizational citizenship behaviors, while perceptions of unfairness or injustice are related to increased counterproductive work-related behaviors (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001). Furthermore, a meta-analysis has shown that these three aspects of performance are distinct concepts although correlated (Dalal et al., 2012).

Previous research has also shown that the relationship between organizational justice and performance is mediated by varying indicators of social exchange (Colquitt et al., 2013). Indicators of social exchange include trust, organizational commitment, perceived organizational support, and leader member exchange (Colquitt et al., 2013). Recall that social exchange theory (Blau, 1967; Homans, 1958) is based on the idea of reciprocation in relationships where people's actions are based upon a cost benefit analysis. Thus, people have certain expectations of how their actions should be reciprocated given varying types of relationships and base their actions accordingly to promote the most beneficial outcome. From this perspective, perceived fairness is vital to fostering relationships in the social exchange process, and these relationships are linked to employee performance (Colquitt et al., 2013; Colquitt, LePine, Piccolo, Zapata, & Rich, 2012). Simply, perceived fairness promotes performance by enhancing positive reciprocal behaviors through a social exchange process.

Therefore, this research proposed that higher levels of social exchange through enhanced perceptions of overall fairness in police organizations would increase the extent that officers will reciprocate in the form of positive work performance. Employees who perceive that their organization is supportive and can be trusted will reciprocate with increased task performance and organizational citizenship behaviors and decreased counterproductive work-related behaviors. This hypothesis was partially supported by the findings of this study

Statement of Problem and Research Questions

Advances continue to be made regarding our understanding of how certain organizational factors influence police officers' behaviors (Beckman, Lum, Wyckoff, & Larsen-Vander Wall, 2003; Frydl & Skogan, 2004; Shane, 2012). However, even though fairness-related research has provided overwhelming support for the link between perceived fairness and work employee performance (Colquitt et al., 2001, 2013), there are still relatively few studies that examine the correlation between perceptions of organizational justice and performance outcomes within policing (Baker, Gordon, & Taxman, 2014; Tyler et al., 2007; Wolfe & Piquero, 2011). Although a link between fairness perceptions and counterproductive work-related behaviors has been established by at least one study (Reynolds & Hicks, 2014), Eitle et al. (2014) noted that "only a few studies examine the role of organizational factors predicting police misconduct other than police use of force" (p. 2).

Consistent with prior organizational justice research that examined outcomes associated with fairness judgments (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997), this study hopes to provide information as to the association between perceptions of overall fairness and

police officer performance. Furthermore, although social exchange has continued to gain support within other academic disciplines as a theoretical lens to study fairness reactions (Colquitt et al., 2013), this line of research is relatively absent in criminal justice literature. This research will help fill this void and increase our understanding of how two indicators of social exchange (perceived organizational support and perceived organizational trust) influence the relationship between perceived fairness and overall officer performance.

This research was based on self-reported data gathered from an online survey distributed to a non-probability sample of active members of a police officer association that represents officers from multiple agencies across a southern state in the United States. This professional association consisted of approximately 20,000 sworn law enforcement officers, all of whom received an email request to complete the survey. Two primary research questions guided this research:

1. What are the relationships between overall fairness, organizational trust, perceived organizational support, organizational citizenship behaviors, task performance, production deviance, self-protective behaviors, and defiance?

2. Do perceived organizational support and organizational trust mediate the effects between overall fairness and organizational citizenship behaviors, task performance, production deviance, self-protective behaviors, and defiance?

Confirmatory Factors Analysis (CFA) and structural equation modeling (SEM)/path analysis statistical techniques were used to analyze data and to answer hypotheses relating to the aforementioned research questions utilizing a statistical software program called STATA.

This study is presented in the following manner. Chapter II provides an overview of the literature pertaining to police and general overall work performance, organizational justice, social exchange, and justice related police research. Chapter III provides a methods section that includes research questions and corresponding hypotheses, data collection and sampling, conceptualization and operational definitions of research variables, the survey instrument, an explanation of analyses, and potential limitations. Chapter IV provides results of analyses, and Chapter V consists of a discussion of the findings, including policy implications and conclusions.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This literature review first provides an overview of the three primary facets of employee work performance: (a) task performance, (b) organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs), and (c) counterproductive work-related behaviors within both general organizational and criminal justice literature. All three are essential to our understanding of overall employee workplace performance (Colquitt et al., 2013; Masterson et al., 2000; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002) and sometimes referred to as the tripartite model of performance (Dalal et al., 2012). According to Dalal et al. (2012), these three dimensions "are the most widely studied domains of job performance and that they collectively provide a relatively comprehensive (yet parsimonious) accounting of the construct space of overall job performance" (p. E296).

Next, the review provides an overview of organizational justice and its relationship to work performance, including a description of the three dimensions of organizational justice: (a) distributive justice, (b) procedural justice, and (c) interactional justice (consisting of interpersonal and informational justice). This includes a discussion of support for the use of an overall fairness concept to measure perceptions of fairness with the police organization in lieu of specific organizational justice dimensions.

Third, there is a discussion of social exchange theory and research relating to two social exchange indicators—organizational trust and perceived organizational support, which has shown to mediate the relationship between perceived fairness and employee work behaviors. Finally, a review of police literature relating to fairness and aspects of police performance is provided.

Understanding Police Work Performance

Research on police performance includes two separate approaches. The first approach focuses on organizational or environmental antecedents and is based on the idea that employee performance is influenced by external factors, such as leadership, perceptions of organizational justice, organizational structure, and environment (Adams & Buck, 2010; Guffey, Larson, Zimmerman, & Shook, 2007; Johnson, 2012; Klinger, 2004; Wolfe & Piquero, 2011). The second approach focuses on identifying employee personality characteristics that are related to positive work behaviors and attitudes (Arrigo & Claussen, 2003; Brown & Frank, 2006; Cochrane, Tett, & Vandecreek, 2003; Cuttler & Muchinsky, 2006; Fyfe & Kane, 2006; Greene, Piquero, Hickman, & Lawton, 2004; Guffey et al., 2007; McElvain & Kposowa, 2008; Sanders, 2003, 2008; Weiss, Vivian, Weiss, Davis, & Rostow, 2012; White, 2008; White & Kane, 2013).

Both organizational factors (such as fairness) and personality traits have been shown to be related to employee behavior. Perception of fairness is one of the strongest organizational factors related to performance (Colquitt et al., 2005; Cropanzano et al., 2007), particularly counterproductive work behaviors (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). The personality trait, "negative affect" has been shown to be not only a strong predictor of counterproductive work behaviors (CWB), but also a moderator between perceptions of fairness and many employee behaviors and attitudes (Dalal et al., 2012; Penney & Spector, 2005). This is one reason why some researchers have suggested combining both approaches (Colquitt et al., 2013).

Although both approaches can be viewed as having a similar underlying goal of identifying ways of enhancing police effectiveness and services, the two have different

implications regarding organizational change. The first approach focuses on the employer

by identifying ways that the organization can promote the most production and highest

quality of service given the employees that an organization has available. The second

focuses on improving the work force by identifying employees who will be the most

productive or least likely to harm the organization. Even though individual characteristics

are important for our overall understanding of employee performance, this particular

research is focused on the organizational influence of fairness within a police

organization and the importance of social exchange for two main reasons. First, fairness

has shown to be one the strongest predictors of employee performance (Colquitt et al.,

2005; Cropanzano et al., 2007). Second, research has consistently shown that the large

majority, if not all employees, are influenced by workplace fairness to some extent,

regardless of their individual traits (Tyler, 2011).

Thus, similar to other organizations, police administrators need to find other

viable means to increase performance other than through screening and selection. For

example, police officers go through rigorous selection and training processes. This

suggests that departments by and large already have the personnel to be effective. Yet,

one cannot wonder if departments are doing all they can, given the amount of misconduct

portrayed in media and social outlets (Eitle et al., 2014; Punch, 2009). It may be that

organizations are trying, but simply not implementing the best policies in the most

effective manner. For example, Fox, Spector, and Miles (2001) recommended that

> consideration of justice, autonomy, and employees' feelings need to be included
> in the design of jobs and human resources systems – not because it is "the nice
> thing to do," but because of its ramification in kinds of behaviors that, even in
> covert and subtle ways, may do serious harm to the organization or its members.
> (p. 306)

Overall Work Performance

Researchers have begun viewing employee performance as consisting of three components (Dalal, 2005). This tripartite model of performance includes: (a) task performance, (b) organizational behaviors, and (c) counterproductive behaviors (Colquitt et al., 2013; Dalal et al., 2012; Masterson et al., 2000; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). Task performance refers to the completion and effectiveness of expected acts. Organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) consist of voluntary behaviors that exceed core tasks and often are not rewarded or required, but benefit the organization. Counterproductive work behaviors (CBWs) refer to intentional actions harmful to legitimate interests of the organization (Colquitt et al., 2013; Dalal et al., 2012).

Some researchers have operationalized OCBs and CWBs as inverse measurements. However, they are distinct concepts (Dalal, 2005) and often influenced by different antecedents (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). For an example, a bored patrol officer on the graveyard shift may do extra security checks of buildings (OCBs) or the officer may decide to find a hideaway and sleep (CWBs). Thus, one act is performing beyond expectations of the job, while the other would be considered a harmful activity. However, it may also be possible for the officer to engage in both types of behaviors during the same shift, but for different motivating factors. Furthermore, the absence of one does not equal the presence of the other. Just because people do not go out of their way in their job does not mean they engage in counterproductive behaviors.

Task Performance

This component of work performance is sometimes referred to as job criterion or in-role behavior. Borman and Motowidlo (1997) described these tasks as the

"effectiveness with which job incumbents perform activities that contribute to the organization's technical core either directly by implementing a part of the technological process, or indirectly by providing it with needed materials or services" (p. 99).

Researchers have utilized multiple techniques to measure task performance within the general organizational literature, such as self-reports, supervisory and peer observations, employee evaluations, or available secondary data, such as organizational records. Large varieties of indicators have been used to operationalize task performance, typically unique to the occupational tasks relevant to the organization from which the sample is drawn. For example, a factory worker's task performance may be measured by the number of products assembled within a given time period, while a taxi driver's performance may be measured as the number of fares earned during a shift.

In police literature, numerous activities have been used as measures of officers' task performance:

- use of force (Armeli, Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Lynch, 1998),

- tickets (Armeli et al., 1998; Engel, 2000; Shane, 2010, 2013),

- arrests (Brown & Frank, 2006; Engel, 2000; Shane, 2010, 2013),

- DUI stops (Arenli et al., 1998; Mastrofski, Ritti, & Snipes, 1994),

- tasks relating to problem-oriented policing (Dejong, Mastrofski, & Parks, 2001),

- drug arrests (Johnson, 2009a), (g) security checks (Johnson, 2009b),

- clearance rates of cases,

- departmental lawsuits (Johnson, 2012),

- on duty-motor vehicle accidents (Shane, 2010, 2013),

- failures to appear in court (Shane, 2010, 2013),

- number of injuries and sick days (Shane, 2010, 2013),

- number of complaints (Shane, 2010, 2013),

- self-initiated investigations and stops (Shane, 2010, 2013),

- reports completed (Shane, 2010, 2013).

However, some researchers have used general measures of task performance by asking questions pertaining to how well an officer meets certain expectations of their supervisors or assigned duties (Tyler et al., 2007).

One of the biggest difficulties facing researchers when studying task performance is that officers are granted an enormous amount of discretion in how they perform their job. Thus, when, where, and how officers perform tasks are heavily influenced by personal choices (Frydl & Skogan, 2004). For example, Famega, Frank, and Mazerolle's (2007) observations of police officers found that over three-fourths of police officer patrol time is undirected. Given the discretion that officers have, coupled by the many different types of order maintenance duties officers perform daily, it is hard to quantify how much and to what extent objective measures should be used to asses performance. Who is the better officer—one who makes a lot of traffic stops or an officer who makes time to converse with members of the community? Both acts are important to fulfilling their role.

In addition to officer discretion, previous police studies suggest that specific organizational and environmental factors influence employees' specific work behaviors. For instance, the following have been shown to influence task performance:

- Whether a work task is a departmental priority (Johnson, 2009a; Mastrofski et al., 1994).

- Which shift detail an officer works (Johnson, 2009a, 2009b; Mastrofski et al., 1994).

- How the department rewards specific activities (Johnson, 2009a; Mastrofski et al., 1994).

- The amount of allotted time given to a particular task (Dejong et al., 2001; Johnson, 2009a, 2009b; Mastrofski et al., 1994).

- The amount of training the officer has received relating to the expected job task (Dejong et al., 2001; Johnson, 2009a; Mastrofski et al., 1994).

- Whether the specific task is part of the job performance evaluation process (Dejong et al., 2001).

- The extent and types of immediate supervision (Engel, 2000; Engel & Worden, 2003; Johnson, 2009b).

- Variances in organizational level influences; such as differences between precinct performance expectations (Hassell, 2007; Reuss-Ianni, 1993).

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

The term organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) was first used by Bateman and Organ (1983). OCB can be defined as an "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, 1988, p. 4). Blakely, Andrews, and Moorman (2005) defined organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) as "job behaviors that exist outside the technical core of the job yet serve the

organization by supporting the psychological and social context of work" (p. 259). These behaviors are sometimes referred to as pro-social or extra-role behaviors within the general literature. OCBs are sometimes referred to and described in earlier research as extra-role behaviors.

Katz (1964), who is often given credit for the concept of extra-role behaviors, suggested that employees may perform behaviors above that of normal work requirements or expectations in order to help the organization succeed. According to Tyler (2011), these are extra-role behaviors and are normally not influenced through traditional instrumental means such as rewards and sanctions. As discussed by Organ (1997), this does mean that employees may not be recognized or rewarded for these behaviors by an employer, but that there is no guarantee of such rewards, since the actions are beyond the described job requirements or expected task performance.

Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, and Bachrach's (2000) meta-analysis showed support for seven subcomponents or types of organizational citizen behavior: helping behavior, sportsmanship, organizational loyalty, organizational compliance, individual initiative, civic virtue, and self-development:

Helping Behavior can be conceptualized as voluntarily acting beyond normal expectations in regards to helping others or trying to prevent future problems from occurring (p. 516). For example, an officer stops to help an individual change a tire rather than simply offering to call a service truck or not even stopping to offer assistance at all because it is not a "crime problem."

Sportsmanship refers to maintaining a positive attitude, thus not letting circumstances change the employee's demeanor or a willingness to put the organization's needs before their own (p. 517). For instance, an officer keeps a positive outlook even when directing traffic in adverse weather or maintains good humor when he has to work overtime to finish a call.

Organizational Loyalty describes staying committed to the organization and supporting organizational goals even under unfavorable circumstances (p. 517). An

officer displays organizational loyalty when an officer tells others that the organization is a great place to work or stands up for the organization when people make critical remarks.

Organizational Compliance can be viewed as an employee's ardent willingness or free will to follow rules and policies without monitoring or the threat of force. In this case, an officer will not leave his designated area to go eat or refuses to take free coffee even though other officers do, because it violates departmental policy (p. 517).

Individual Initiative reflects putting extra effort or pride into one's work or volunteering for activities that others normally would not want to do (p. 524). An example would be that of an officer volunteering to have a politician or media person ride-along during his/her shift or an officer who makes extra business checks at night.

Civic Virtue can be described as taking an active role in improving the organization by making suggestions or attending events and staying current and informed regarding events or information relevant to the organization and specific job (p. 525). For instance, an officer may stay abreast of current Supreme Court decisions that may impact departmental policies or makes a recommendation to improve a problem in the officer's sector.

Self-Development involves voluntary actions that the employee takes to improve his abilities, skills, or knowledge to enhance their work performance (p. 525). For instance, an officer continues his/her education at a university or takes a course to learn some advanced facet of police work.

Organ (1988) purported that OCBs aggregated over time could provide many substantial benefits to an organization. Podsakoff et al. (2000) also described many benefits to an organization, such as:

- enhancing coworker and managerial productivity;

- freeing up resources so they can be used for more productive purposes;

- reducing the need to devote scarce resources to purely maintenance functions;

- helping to coordinate activities both within and across work groups;

- strengthening the organization's ability to attract and retain the best employees;

- increasing the stability of the organization's performance

- enabling the organization to adapt more effectively to environmental changes. (pp. 543-545)

Antecedents of OCB have been researched under four primary categories: (a) individual characteristics, (b) task characteristics, (c) organizational characteristics, and (d) leadership behaviors (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Although each of the predictors mentioned above is important to understanding OCB, research has found that organizational fairness is one of the primary antecedents. One reason proffered by researchers is that perceptions of fairness are internalized as the organization values the employee and their contributions (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ, 1993; Tyler & Lind, 1992). From this view, employees want the organization to succeed, because the employee feels part of the organization, so engages in activities that help the organization. However, many scholars have suggested that fairness fosters pro-social behaviors such as OCB through a process of reciprocation based on the concepts of social exchange (Colquitt et al., 2013; Masterson et al., 2000; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002). From this view, an employee responds in a manner that is reciprocal to the organization's actions. Thus the person may feel an obligation to help the organization, because the organization has helped that person.

Counterproductive Work-Related Behaviors

This broad term of counterproductive work behaviors (CWB) used in literature often encompasses many overlapping behavioral domains relating to negative workplace behaviors, such as workplace deviance (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Robinson & Bennett, 1995), anti-social behavior (Aquino & Douglas, 2003), organizational retaliatory behavior (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), and organizational misbehavior (Vardi & Wietz, 2004). Notwithstanding conceptual differences, most of these constructs overlap and

measure many similar types of behaviors that include acts of aggression, hostility, sabotage, theft, and withdrawal (Spector & Fox, 2005).

According to Bennett and Robinson (2000), previous research has provided numerous explanations for why employees engage in counterproductive work behaviors, "ranging from reactions to perceived injustice, dissatisfaction, role modeling, and thrill-seeking" (p. 349). Furthermore, researchers have found that these types of behaviors, albeit varying in severity, occur rather frequently in some manner in most organizations and can cost organizations billions of dollars (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Vardi & Weitz, 2004). Robinson and Bennett (1995) defined these types of acts as "voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of the organization, its members, or both" (p. 556). For the purpose of this research, CWB was generally defined as intentionally harmful behaviors directed toward the organization or its members (Spector & Fox, 2005).

Robinson and Bennett's (1995) seminal study on typologies of workplace deviance and Sharlicki and Folger's (1997) study on retaliatory work behaviors provide a solid framework in which to approach studying counterproductive work-related behaviors within police organizations. Robinson and Bennett (1995) posited that acts can be categorized in terms of types, level of severity, and the target against which the acts are directed. Robinson and Bennett (1995) created four primary classifications: (a) production deviance, such as taking excessive breaks; (b) property deviance, such as sabotaging equipment or stealing from the company; (c) political deviance, such as spreading rumors and gossiping; and (d) personal aggression, such as verbal abuse. Other researchers have categorized negative work-related behaviors differently. Spector et al.

24

(2006) proposed five categories: (a) abuse toward others, (b) sabotage, (c) theft, (d) production deviance, and (e) workplace withdrawal. Meanwhile, Vardi and Wietz (2004) recommended dividing actions into ones that benefit the person, actions that benefit the organization, and actions intended to be harmful or damaging.

In addition to types or categories, behaviors can be viewed in terms of seriousness. For example, leaving work early would be considered less severe than endangering or harming coworkers. Furthermore, the acts can be grouped based on whether the act is directly against the organization, such as working slow; or, toward individuals, such as gossiping about coworkers (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). However, what makes these types of behaviors hard to study is that employees are more likely to engage in less extreme, more covert, indirect forms of harmful behaviors toward the organization or its representatives rather than overt, direct behaviors in reaction to unfair treatment (Spector & Fox, 2005).

Sharlarcki and Folger (1997) were among the first researchers to explore the relationship between organizational justice and counterproductive work behaviors. In particular, they examined the association between procedural, distributive, and interactional justice on manufacturing workers' workplace retaliatory behaviors, which they defined as "adverse reactions to perceived unfairness by disgruntled employees toward their employer" (Sharlarcki & Folger, 1997, p. 434). They postulated that when employees perceive mistreatment, these experiences will create negative emotions such as anger that results in retaliatory behaviors. Surveys were administered to evaluate perceptions of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice, and peer observations were used to measure specific counterproductive behaviors. These behaviors included

theft, wasting resources, refusing to follow orders, talking back, and many other similar acts utilized by Robinson and Bennett (1995) to measure workplace deviance. Overall, Sharlarcki and Folger (1997) found that fairness in terms of employee outcomes, procedures, and treatment was negatively related to counterproductive work behavior. Simply, the more injustice workers perceive in their organization, the more likely they will engage in retaliatory behaviors.

Organizational Justice

The term organizational justice was first coined by Greenberg (1987) and has been offered as a theory to explain variances in employee behaviors and attitudes (Colquitt et al., 2005; Greenberg, 1990). Organizational justice is most often conceptualized as consisting of three distinct dimensions of justice: (a) distributive, (b) procedural, and (c) interactional justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Some researchers have found support for four distinct dimensions of justice, in which elements of interactional justice are subdivided into interpersonal justice and informational justice (Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001, 2013). Although these primary dimensions of justice share some commonality, each is a different construct, thus providing distinct variation in predictability depending on the outcome measured (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2005, 2013).

Distributive Justice

This dimension of justice derives from equity theory (Adams, 1963, 1965). Equity theory is based on an exchange relationship ratio between the worker's outcomes to the worker's rewards based upon a comparison to other standards. Adams (1965) postulated that perceptions of unfairness will spawn tension that employees will attempt to resolve

to restore a perception of balance (Adams, 1965). For instance, employees will compare their work and their employee evaluations to other employees. If they perceive their evaluations are unfair based on their work compared to others, the employees will engage in some action to restore the balance (Adams, 1965).

Research has shown that individuals use a variety of comparison outcomes to determine fairness within an organizational context such as pay, office space, layoffs, job challenges, and job security (Ambrose, 2002). The equity rule is best described by Levethal (as cited in Colquitt, 2001) as "a single normative rule which dictates rewards and resources be distributed in accordance with recipients' contributions" (p. 389). Distributive justice was expanded by Leventhal (1976) to include three allocation rules: (a) equity, (b) equality, and (c) need (Colquitt et al., 2005). Equity refers to receiving an outcome equivalent to one's effort; equality refers to equal outcomes for self and others regardless of inputs; and needs is associated with allocation of resources based upon the relative needs of the individual (Leventhal, 1976).

Procedural Justice

During the late 1980s, research by Thibault and Walker (1975) and Leventhal (1980) began to shift focus from outcomes to procedural aspects of justice used to derive outcomes (Ambrose, 2002; Colquitt et al., 2005). Procedural justice stems from early legal studies conducted by Thibaut and Walker (1975) from observations of courtroom settings in which perceptions of the fairness of the process used to determine verdicts and the perceived fairness of the verdict itself were often distinct (Thibaut & Walker, 1975). From this research, two procedural justice criteria were established: (a) voice, which

refers an individual's ability to have a say during the proceedings and (b) control, which

is the ability or power to have some influence over the outcome (Colquitt, 2001, p. 388).

Studies of procedural fairness were conducted later in non-legal settings by

Leventhal (1980), who identified the following constructs:

- decision control (the employer allows the employee to have some influence on
  the outcome);

- consistency (policies and procedures are consistent within the organization
  across people and time);

- bias suppression (employers utilize objective and neutral ways to make
  decisions);

- accuracy (employers ensure that information is accurate);

- correctability (employees feel they have the opportunity to correct inaccurate
  assessments or bad outcomes);

- representativeness (all employees who are affected are heard); and,

- ethicality (processes upholding ethical and moral standards)

Even though the majority of early organizational justice researchers focused on

consistent procedures and rules that lead to perceptions of fairness because it is believed

that rules result in correct outcomes (Thibaut & Walker, 1975; Leventhal, 1980), some

researchers suggested that fair procedures were important to people for reasons unrelated

to fair outcomes. Lind and Tyler (1988) argued that fairness had both a self-interest

component and a relational component. The self-interest perspective contends that

fairness is important in terms of achieving the greatest personal gain, while the relational

component suggests that fairness is important in terms of providing individuals

information about their status in a group (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler & Lind, 1992). Fair

treatment, in terms of procedures, symbolizes that the individual is a valued member of

the group and that his or her contributions are appreciated (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler &

Bladder, 2000; Tyler & Lind, 1992). From this perspective, a primary reason why

employees put so much emphasis on and care about procedures when dealing with

authorities is that fairness conveys perceived worth and inclusion in the group. For

example, in Reynolds and Hicks (2014) research, several officers described feeling

expendable and stated that the department did not care about them, when asked how

perceived unfair events made them feel. While some researchers have incorporated the

relational component into a procedural justice measure, others have viewed perceived

treatment as a separate dimension (Bies & Moag, 1986; Colquitt, 2001). Researchers

have found that perceptions of procedural fairness within the organization is related to

compliance and negatively related to counterproductive behaviors (Cohen-Charash &

Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Lind & Tyler, 1988; Sharlicki & Folger, 1997; Tyler

et al., 2007).

Interactional Justice

Although many researchers have focused primarily on the impact of distributive

justice (perceived fair outcomes) and procedural justice (perceived fair procedural rules),

research has consistently shown that employees not only consider outcomes and

procedures, but also how they are treated by others when developing perceptions of

fairness (Colquitt et al., 2005). From this perspective, individuals take into account both

the actions that supervisors make when they implement procedures and the explanations

given for the decisions when making fairness judgments (Bies & Moag, 1986).

Therefore, interactional justice includes two underlying components. Informational justice relates to how employees are treated. Interpersonal justice component refers to the manner in which information is distributed (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2005; Cropanzano et al., 2007). The interpersonal justice component is reflective of employees' views that their supervisors should treat them with dignity and respect and refrain from demeaning or inappropriate comments (Bies & Moag, 1986). When employees feel that they have been treated with politeness, dignity, and communicated with in a sensitive and respectful manner by those in authority, they are more likely to judge the experience as fair (Bies & Moag, 1986; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). The informational justice component is concerned with the perceived fairness in an organization's explanations for the existence of certain procedures and the decisions made in the workplace (Colquitt et al., 2001, 2013; Greenberg, 1993).

Both the three and four dimensional models of justice have received support (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001, 2013). Of the dimensions, interactional justice appears to have the most direct influence on positive work behaviors such as OCB; particularly the interpersonal aspect of that dimension. For example, Williams, Pitre, and Zainuba (2002) conducted a study among employees in various organizations. Results showed only interactional justice was related to the intention of engaging in organizational citizenship behaviors. These results supported earlier findings by Moorman (1991). A meta-analysis by Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001), based on perceptual measures by employees who felt they were treated fairly or not, showed that treating employees in a just manner was related to employees being more likely (a) to

comply with regulations, (b) to increase conscientiousness, and (c) to act in ways altruistic toward others.

Although the three or four dimensions of justice have been shown to be distinct, they are often correlated and have been shown to have interactive properties (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001). For example, fair procedures are shown to be more important in influencing fairness judgments when outcomes are negative (Tyler, 2006, 2011). Ambrose, Seabright, and Schminke's (2002) study on workplace sabotage found that distributive, procedural, and interactional justice have been shown to have an additive effect. Skarlicki and Folger (1997) found that distributive injustice only mattered in influencing retaliatory behaviors when procedural justice and interactional justice were low. Simply, unfavorable outcomes became more detrimental when the procedures used to derive the outcome and the treatment during the procedural process were perceived as unfair.

Holistic Fairness Model

Some researchers have argued that a holistic approach to studying fairness should be utilized to examine perceptions of justice within particular groups or organizations, positing that individual fairness judgments are based on multiple experiences of different aspects of justice (Lind, 2001; Lind & Tyler, 1988). From an holistic standpoint, when employees make fairness assessments of the workplace they take into account all their experiences which include outcomes, processes, and treatment during these events. Thus an employee may feel that a particular process or outcome was unjust, but still perceive the organization overall as being fair. Using this framework, an employee will have

perceptions of normative rules of justice (i.e., distributive, procedural, and interactional) and an overall/holistic perception of fairness.

Ambrose and Schminke (2009) completed two studies to test these assumptions. In the first study, they used a holistic measure of justice as well as measures of the various types of justice described above. Confirmatory factor analysis showed that the overall justice measure was distinct from the four other dimensions, including a summative scale incorporating the four different dimensions. In the second study, Ambrose and Schminke (2009) found that overall justice mediated the effects of four justice dimensions on the follow employee attitude measures: (a) job satisfaction, (b) commitment, and (c) turnover. These findings suggest that researchers can examine either specific dimensions of justice or an overall fairness construct.

Fairness and Performance

Research under the umbrella term of organizational justice has established that perceptions of fairness are related to performance, although different researchers use different outcome measures, and different measures of perceptions of justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). For example, numerous studies have found relationships between the three (or four) justice dimensions and the three facets of employee behavior: (a) task performance, (b) organizational citizenship, and (c) counterproductive behaviors (Ambrose et al., 2002; Masterson et al., 2000; Shalarcki & Folger, 1997; Tyler, 2011).

In addition to performance, perceptions of fairness have also been shown to be linked to other work-related outcomes and attitudes, including but not limited to, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, trust, organizational commitment, and perceived organizational support (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001, 2013;

Viswesvaran & Ones, 2002). Research has also shown that employees not only react to and respond in relation to their own perceptions of mistreatment, but also that of their coworkers (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009; Folger, Cropanzano, & Goldman, 2005; Spencer & Rupp, 2009).

As a whole, meta-analyses have found that perceptions of fairness have been linked to increased organizational citizenship behaviors, task performance, trust, perceived organizational support, and other positive work-related attitudes and behaviors, while perceptions of unfairness have been shown to increase counterproductive work behaviors (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001, 2013; Viswesvaran & Ones, 2002). Perceptions of workplace injustice have also been shown to be associated with both interpersonal and organizational workplace stressors (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001). These negative justice experiences or stressors are related to negative emotions such as anger and cynicism (Fox et al., 2001; Reynolds & Hicks, 2013; Skarli & Folger, 1997) that can lead to employees acting in ways to restore balance (Adams, 1965) such as CWBs (Fox et al., 2001; Penney & Spector, 2005; Shalarcki & Folger, 1997).

Research has also demonstrated that employees' status and position within an organization can influence reactions to events. Aquino, Tripp, and Bies (2006) conducted a field study and experimental study of victimization in an organization, examining three organizational factors relating to victim response (revenge, forgiveness, reconciliation). The three organizational factors examined were (a) *relative hierarchical status* of the victim, the position of the victim relative to the aggressor's position in the organization (e.g., employee-coworker vs. employee-supervisor); (b) *absolute hierarchical status* of the victim, the victim's position in the organization (e.g., patrol officer or supervisor);

and (c) *procedural justice climate*, which refers to the manner in which the organization promotes fair outcomes and redresses acts of injustice. They found that when victims have a lower status than the offender and when the procedural justice climate is low, the victims will pursue revenge. Furthermore, these research studies showed that procedural justice climates were related to forgiveness and reconciliation.

Simply, when an employee is a victim and cannot rely on the organization to punish the offender, the victim will administer his/her own personal justice. From this research, if officers feel that the department will not address the perceived mistreatment by a supervisor, then they will respond in vengeful behaviors. Conversely, when an employee has faith that the organization will sanction the wrongdoer (e.g., procedural justice climate), the employee is more likely to reconcile or forgive. This is important because patrol officers make up the majority of citizen-police encounters, but often hold the lowest absolute hierarchal status and relative hierarchal status within the department. Thus, they would most likely be the ones who would engage in counterproductive behaviors such as revenge. Aquino et al. (2006) remarked, "Our findings suggest that how people respond to such experiences is not just a function of individual factors or traits; rather, environmental variables such as power and procedural justice climate are critical in shaping individual responses" (p. 666).

Social Exchange

Over 50 years ago, Homans (1958) presented the idea that social exchanges are not limited to economic exchanges but are also exchanges of social behaviors. Homans (1958) remarked that,

> Social behavior is an exchange of goods, material goods but also non-material ones, such as the symbols of approval or prestige. Persons that give much to

others try to get much from them, and persons that get much from others are under pressure to give much to them. (p. 606)

Therefore, perceptions of fairness matter within workplace settings because perceptions of fair treatment can impact many types of *social exchange relationships* (Cropanzano, Bryne, Bobocel, & Rupp, 2001).

Blau (1967) stated that social exchange involves voluntary actions that are performed in hopes that future unspecified positive behaviors will be reciprocated by other parties, and it is the hope for a future return that motivates the social exchange process. From this viewpoint, social exchange can be understood in terms of reciprocation between parties. This could be between employees and supervisors or even between employees and the organization (Aryee, Budhar, & Chen, 2002; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Furthermore, the social exchange process can be initiated through fair organizational practices (Aryee et al., 2002; Colquitt et al., 2013), in that fairly treated employees will create a perceived obligation to reciprocate back in the future (Aryee et al., 2002; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Colquitt et al., 2013).

Conversely, unfair treatment may negate one's obligation to reciprocate in a positive manner and actually promote retaliation (El Akremi, Vandenberghe, & Camerman, 2010). From this perspective, fairness is vital to fostering relationships, which are linked to positive officer performance, in terms of promoting reciprocation through the social exchange process (Colquitt et al., 2012). Thus, social exchange can be viewed as a mediating factor between fairness and employees' behaviors. As posited by Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005), "social exchange relationships evolve when employers 'take care of employees' which thereby engenders beneficial consequences" (p. 882).

35

Social Exchange and a Multifoci Approach

Some researchers have suggested that individuals often hold specific individuals or entities as blameworthy and direct their behavioral and attitudinal responses toward that entity (Lavelle, Rupp, & Brockner, 2007; Liao & Rupp, 2005; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002; Rupp, Shao, Jones, & Liao, 2014). This approach is considered multifocal in that an organization is not a single entity; in other words, an employee may attempt to undermine an inconsiderate boss when treated unfairly, but not hold the organization as a whole accountable.

Research has generally found support for source-target relationships (Lavelle et al., 2007; Liao & Rupp, 2005; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002; Rupp et al., 2014) and that employees attribute and distinguish fairness assessments to both their direct supervisor and the organization as a whole (Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002). For instance, Fox et al. (2001) found that organizational stressors (i.e., injustices) were closely associated with organizational CWB, while interpersonal conflict was associated more with interpersonal behaviors. Masterson et al. (2000) found that the influence of perceptions of procedural fairness on organizational outcomes was mediated by perceived organizational support. El Akarmi et al. (2010) found that perceived organizational support mediated the effect of distributive and procedural fairness on organizational directed deviance.

Rupp and Compranzano (2002) examined employees' multifoci work outcomes in relation to employees' multifoci justice perceptions. They found that perceptions of organizational justice (as opposed to perceptions of supervisors) were related to organizational-focused outcomes. However, perceptions of supervisor fairness were related to outcomes toward the organization and the supervisor. This suggests that

employees may hold the organization responsible for the treatment they receive from the supervisor.

Indicators of Social Exchange

Fairness has continuously been linked to employee behaviors within both the public and private workplace settings (Colquitt et al., 2005). Previous research has shown that the relationship between organizational justice dimensions and performance is mediated by varying indicators of social exchange theory (Colquitt et al., 2013). Social exchange posits that individuals weigh relationships in terms of a cost-benefit analysis. When individuals perceive that a relationship is more costly than beneficial, that individual will end the relationship if a better opportunity exists or will withdraw if another option is not available (Blau, 1967; Homans, 1958). Applying social exchange within a police organization, a police officer will try to work in an area where he/she perceives support. If the officer does not feel supported and cannot change his/her working relationships, then the officer may reduce productivity until an opportunity exists for change or he/she may seek other employment opportunities.

Several relational concepts have been used to measure social exchange within the organizational justice-related literature. Two of the concepts include perceived support from the organization and variations of trust (Colquitt et al., 2013; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Previous research has shown that when employees feel that they are supported by the organization and can trust the organization, they are more likely to reciprocate with enhanced task performance or organizational citizenship behaviors (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). For example, a recent meta-analysis by Colquitt et al. (2013) showed that both perceived organizational support and perceptions of trust are related to task performance and OCB, although, some research suggests that trust may

actually mediate the relationship between perceived organizational support and

performance in that perceived organizational support helps foster trust in the

organization, which leads to positive work behaviors (Chen, Aryee, & Lee, 2005).

Perceived Organizational Support (POS). This concept refers to employees'

"beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contribution and

cares about their well-being" (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986, p.

501). Although there were relatively few studies concerning perceived organizational

support (POS) prior to the mid-1990s, interest has begun to increase substantially over

the last decade (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Riggle, Edmondson, & Hansen, 2009),

particularly as an indicator of social exchange (Colquitt et al., 2013).

According to Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005), POS can be conceptualized as "the

quality of social exchange that takes place between an employee and the employer as a

whole" (p. 883). A meta-analysis by Riggle et al. (2009) showed that POS was positively

associated with organizational commitment, job satisfaction, job performance, and

negatively associated with intention to leave. Simply, employees make inferences as to

support perceived by the organization that subsequently influences the work performance

the employee gives back (Shore & Tetrick, 1991; Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick,

2002). Thus, an employee's level of commitment given to the organization is based on

the support that they perceive is coming from the organization. POS is similar to the

concept of organizational commitment in that both are reflective of relationships between

the employee and employer based on reciprocation. However, while organizational

commitment measures the extent that the employee is committed to the organization,

POS measures the extent in which the employees feel the organization is committed to

and values them (Eisenberger et al., 1988; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore & Tetrick, 1991). Although POS and affective commitment are related, research has shown that they are distinct concepts (Shore & Tetrick, 1991).

Research has shown evidence that POS mediates the relationship between perceptions of fair procedures and work-related outcomes and attitudes. For example, Masterson et al. (2000) found that POS fully mediated the relationship between procedural justice and job satisfaction. It also partially mediated the effect between procedural justice, organizationally directed citizenship behaviors, and organizational commitment. Rupp and Coprazano (2002) found POS mediated the influence of organizational procedural justice and organizational interactional justice on organizationally-directed citizenship behaviors. Research has also shown support that POS mediates the effects between fairness and organizationally-directed deviance (El Akarmi et al., 2010).

Research also provides evidence that POS can influence both supervisor and subordinate work behaviors. For instance, Shanock and Eisenberger's (2006) research on retail employees found that when supervisors perceived more organizational support (POS), they not only performed better, but they reciprocated these behaviors toward their subordinates. Furthermore, perceived supervisor support (PSS) was positively associated to in-role performance and extra-role performance. This suggests that police departments' fair treatment needs to extend to not only patrol-level officers, but through the entire rank structure.

An early study on the effect of perceived organizational support and police performance by Armeli et al. (1998) found that performance was linked to socio-

emotional needs and that perceived organizational support fulfills a variety of these

needs. Some of the socio-emotional needs include: (a) approval, (b) esteem, (c) emotional

support, and (d) affiliation. The more emotional needs were met through support, the

more that officers were willing to reciprocate back in the form of positive work

performance. Furthermore, the impact of POS on officer performance was influenced by

the strength of officers' socio-emotional needs (Armeli et al., 1998). This research

supports that POS not only fulfills emotional needs among officers, but fosters an

obligation to reciprocate back in the form of positive work performance, which is

consistent with social exchange principles. In addition to perceived organizational

support, trust is another indicator of social exchange that is shown to be related to

fairness perceptions and work performance. Recently, Boateng (2015) examined the

influence of POS on Algerian police officers' view of the police officers' effectiveness.

Results from the study showed that officers who perceived more perceived support from

their administration performed their designated duties more efficiently.

Organizational Trust. Research differentiates trust as three separate concepts

(Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007). Trustworthiness refers to trait attributes of the trustee

that include ability, benevolence, and integrity. Trust propensity refers to a person's

predisposition to trust others, while organizational trust is actively accepting vulnerability

based on perceived future benefits. It is a willingness to allow yourself to be vulnerable

regardless of your ability to control the other party (Colquitt et al., 2007; Mayer & Davis,

1999; Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995; Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis, 2007). As

described by Mayer et al. (1995), trust in another person or organization can vary

between relationships due to one's perception of another's trustworthiness and one's

propensity to trust. For example, a supervisor could have trustworthy attributes, but an officer may still not actively trust the supervisor in terms of actively letting one's self become vulnerable to the trustee or simply may not have a tendency to trust anybody in general regardless of that person's trustworthiness. Recently, research by Bianchi and Brockner (2012) found that an individual's propensity to trust influenced one's perception of procedural and interactional justice, even when exposed to identical information. In addition, fairness mediated the positive influence of trust propensity and work-related attitudes. Bianchi and Brockner (2012) posited, "that one reason people who are more trusting exhibit more positive work attitudes is because they are more likely to believe they are treated fairly" (p. 46).

Trust is particularly relevant to policing where officers are often not only skeptical of administrators, but often perceive them as a threat (Reuss-Ianni, 1993, Reynolds & Hicks, 2014). Therefore, officers are not going to put forth any more effort than they feel is safe if they do not trust the organization or its leadership. This is a perception that the department does not "have their back" since it does not benefit an officer to put himself at any additional risk (e.g., physical harm or possibility for sanctions), particularly if he feels it will not be rewarded. In other words, there is a decreased output and officers engage in self-protective measures like *laying-low* (Van Maanen, 1975).

Conversely, officers who feel that the department is looking out for their well-being should be more inclined to take risks in their work output. As described by Blau (1967), "the establishment of a social exchange relationship involves making investments that constitute commitment to the other party. Since social exchange requires trusting

others to reciprocate, the initial problem is to prove oneself trustworthy" (p. 98). For example, Mayer and Davis (1999) conducted a quasi-experiment on the impact of improving the performance appraisal system on increased trust for upper management. The result showed that improving the appraisal system enhanced perceptions of management trustworthiness, which enhanced trust. Therefore, if organizations want officers to increase their work performance, then administrators have to demonstrate that they are trustworthy. In doing so, the administration reduces fear that increasing work production does not also increase potential risk of departmental sanctions, thus promoting trust in terms of a willingness to be vulnerable (Mayer et al., 1995; Schoorman et al., 2007).

Colquitt et al. (2007) conducted a meta-analysis of 123 samples. Results showed that ability, benevolence, integrity (trustworthiness), and propensity to trust were independently related to trust. Analysis using structural equation modeling (SEM) also provided support that trust partially mediated the effects of the behavioral outcomes: (a) risk-taking, (b) task performance, (c) citizenship behaviors, and (d) counterproductive work behaviors (Colquitt et al., 2007).

A more recent field study in a hospital system by Colquitt and colleagues examined affect and cognitive based-trust in terms of being both an exchange deepener and uncertainty reducer (Colquitt et al., 2012). Colquitt et al. (2012) measured affect and cognitive based trust using a scale created by Meyer and Allen (1997). Colquitt et al. described affect based-trust as reflecting an employee's emotional investment, mutual concern, and deep sentiments. Cognitive-based trust measured the employee's perception of the trustee's professionalism and dedication (Colquitt et al., 2012). Uncertainty refers

42

to the inability to accurately foretell future outcomes due to a lack of information and normative commitment (which is an obligation to one's supervisor) (Colquitt et al., 2012).

Earlier work by Konovsky and Pugh (1994) found support that the effect of procedural justice on a global form of organizational citizenship behaviors was mediated by trust in a supervisor (trustworthiness). Aryee et al. (2002) examined trust as a mediator among the three primary dimensions of organizational justice (distributive, procedural, and interactional) and both the organization and supervisor-directed organizational citizenship behavior, in addition to turnover and organizational commitment. Aryee and colleagues (2002) conceptualized trust as the other party's trustworthiness (concern for other's interest, reliability, dependability, and competency). Results showed that both trust in the organization and trust in the supervisor are distinct concepts based on confirmatory factor analyses. The influence of interactional justice on organizationally-oriented citizen behaviors (OCB-O), individually oriented citizen behaviors (OCB-I), and task performance was fully mediated by trust in the supervisor. Organizational trust fully mediated the effect of interactional justice on officers' attitudes. However, organizational trust only partially mediated the effect of distributive and procedural justice on work attitudes, including job satisfaction, turnover intentions and organizational commitment.

Research clearly shows that increased perceived trustworthiness promotes trust in the organization (Aryee et al., 2002), which is linked to increased performance (Colquitt et al., 2007). For example, officers and frontline supervisors may be more willing to innovate, create, and try new ways to solve issues (i.e., problem-oriented policing) if they perceive they will not be penalized if the attempt fails. This perception stems from

43

references pertaining to the organization's trustworthiness. As discussed earlier, one way in which leaders can convey they can be trusted is through fair treatment (Lind, 2001; Tyler & Lind, 1992).

Justice Research in Law Enforcement

Organizational justice in law enforcement agencies is currently being researched; specifically, the role of fairness in police-citizen relationships and how fairness influences work-related attitudes and behaviors. The first type of research focuses on citizen perceptions of police and is heavily influenced by the work of Tom Tyler and colleagues. This research focuses on examining the influence of procedural justice processes on police-citizen outcomes, particularly on perceptions of police legitimacy (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003; Tyler, 2004, 2006; Tyler & Fagan, 2008; Tyler & Huo, 2002). Legitimacy refers to the authority's right to rule and the recognition to do so by the ruled (Tyler, 2006).

Perceptions of fairness are important, particularly in terms of procedural fair processes because they influence perceptions of legitimacy (Tyler, 2004), people's willingness to obey the law (Tyler, 2006), or citizen support and cooperation (Tyler & Huo, 2002). Tyler (2006) noted, "Legal authorities know that the key to their effectiveness is their ability to make laws and decisions that will be followed by the public, so they try to act in ways that promote public compliance with law" (p. 3).

The relationship between citizens' perceptions of fairness and attitudes toward police has been well established in literature (Mazerolle, Antrobus, & Bennett, 2013). In general, when citizens perceive that they are being treated in a procedurally fair manner, they are more likely to (a) view the police as legitimate (Mazerolle et al., 2013; Tyler,

2004), (b) obey the law (Tyler, 2006), (c) comply with the demands and cooperate with police officers (Tyler, 2004; Tyler & Huo, 2002), (d) assist in police investigations (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003), and (e) have increased trust and confidence in the police (Murphy, Lorraine, & Bennett, 2014), regardless of the experience outcome (Tyler & Fagan, 2008). Furthermore, individuals' reactions, attitudes, and behaviors toward authorities can be influenced by single incidents (Mazerolle et al., 2013; Murphy et al., 2014). In other words, fairness of procedures is important because perceptions of fairness are indirectly related to pro-social behaviors like cooperation (Bradford, 2014).

The second predominant area of justice research related to policing is the relationship between perceptions of justice and work-related attitudes and behaviors. The focus of this particular research was on the direct and indirect causal relationships between perceptions of fairness and work performance. A review of current fairness research within criminal justice shows that most studies incorporate a traditional two-dimensional (distributive and procedural justice) model (Lambert & Hogan, 2013) in lieu of the four dimensional model which divides interactional justice into interpersonal and informational (Colquitt at al., 2005, Cropanzano et al., 2007). Thus, there still remains a dearth of knowledge regarding the relationship between interactional justice (sometimes referred to as transactional justice) or its subcomponents (interpersonal and informational justice) that remain relatively unexplored, although some researchers have recently attempted to help fill this gap, such as Crow, Lee, and Joo (2012), Myhill and Bradford (2013), Wolf and Piquero (2011), and Hass, Van Craen, Skogan, and Fleitas (2015). No studies, to the knowledge of this researcher, have applied the four dimensional model (Colquitt et al., 2001) or an overall justice model (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009) to a

study of a criminal justice organization. Lambert and Hogan (2013) noted this shortcoming in a recent study on organizational citizenship behaviors stating that other dimensions of organizational justice need to be examined to see what, if any, relationship they have with other work-related attitudes and behaviors.

Within the field of corrections, researchers have found associations between justice dimensions and various work-related outcomes including: (a) job satisfaction, (b) organizational commitment, (c) organizational citizenship behaviors, and (d) job stress (Crow et al., 2012; Lambert, 2003; Lambert et al., 2006, 2007, 2008; Lambert & Hogan, 2013). For example, Lambert (2003) found that both distributive and procedural justices were associated with job satisfaction and organizational commitment among correctional staff. Lambert et al.'s (2006) study showed that both distributive and procedural justices were related to job stress. Lambert et al. (2007) found that both dimensions of organizational justice have negative relationships with job stress and positive relationships with organizational commitment; however, only procedural justice influenced job satisfaction. Lambert and Hogan (2013) found that procedural justice was positively related to OCB, but distributive justice was not related to OCB. Overall, this line of research suggests that correctional officers who perceive their organization as fair, particularly in terms of procedures, are more likely to engage in behaviors that benefit the organization beyond that of their normal job-related tasks, have increased organizational commitment, increased job satisfaction, and reduced job related stresses.

Research clearly shows that perceptions of fairness do impact officer behaviors and attitudes (Anshel, 2000; Armeli et al., 1998; Arter, 2007; Crow et al., 2012, De Angelis & Kupchik, 2007; Farmer, Beehr, & Love, 2003, Harris & Worden, 2012; Hass

et al., 2015; Kaariainen, Lintonen, Laitenen, & Pollock, 2008; Myhill & Bradford, 2013; Tyler et al., 2007; Wolfe & Piquero, 2011). Perceptions of fairness in the organization are associated with increased organizational commitment, job satisfaction, task performance, cooperation (Crow et al., 2012; Farmer et al., 2003), and compliance (Hass et al., 2015). Conversely, perceptions of injustice are associated with varying counterproductive work behaviors (Harris & Worden, 2012; Kaariainen, Lintonen, & Pollock, 2008; Wolf & Piquero, 2011) and increased job stress (Anshel, 2000; Arter, 2007).

Research has also shown that fairness perceptions are shaped and influenced through organizational practices and policies. For instance, seminal works on policing have shown that perceived unfair treatment and policies can foster friction and mistrust between administration and officers, particularly among line officers (Reuss-Ianni, 1993). One explanation put forth by Harris and Worden (2012) is that practices viewed by officers as harsh or unfair may lead to beliefs that the organization is unfair and, thus, reduce the legitimacy of the administration and organizational trust of the officers resulting in an increase in negative police behaviors.

Harris and Worden (2012) examined police disciplinary systems in regard to the effect of sanctions' severity on future incidents of police misconduct, measured by likelihood and timing of citizen complaints on officers with previous complaints during their career at a northeastern, large police department. The findings from this longitudinal cohort study show that officers who received more severe punishments were more likely to obtain a complaint in the future compared to officers who received lesser sanctions for a similar type of complaint (Harris & Worden, 2012).

However, the severity of the punishment may not be as important as the officers' perception of fairness. Shane (2012) found officers were more likely to perceive that the disciplinary process is fair when supervisory discretion and uncertainty were reduced by utilizing a disciplinary matrix for disciplinary outcomes. De Angelis and Kupchik (2007) showed that citizen complaints of officers conducted by the administration in a fair and objective manner were associated with the officers having a positive perception of the organization, regardless of the outcome in the investigation. Overall, these studies indicate that if police organizations are transparent and have predictable and unbiased policies and procedures, then officers will perceive that the organization is fair toward its employees.

On the other hand, if the organization does not have policies and procedures in place, deviates from policy, or there is no consistency in outcomes, officers will not perceive that the organization is fair. These findings are consistent with Reynolds and Hicks' (2014) study. Utilizing a phenomenological approach, the researchers interviewed current and former officers about their experiences with fairness within their organization. The researchers noted that the large majority of the officers perceived their organization as a whole as unfair. Officers described unfair departments as being subjective, Machiavellian, having double-standards, and being inconsistent in their expectations of officer performance, while fair departments were described as promoting equality, empathy, transparency, and adhering to the Golden Rule. Reynolds and Hicks (2014) noted that:

- unfair policies create perceptions of uncertainty among officers, making them question their status and worth within the department;

- officers focused more on the fairness of procedures (procedural justice) over the actual outcome (distributive justice); and

- fair treatment was internalized by the officers as a belief that the department could be trusted and that they were valued by the administration.

A few studies have examined the influence of fairness on officer performance. For instance, Kaariainen et al. (2008) found that officers who perceived the administration as unfair had a higher mean average of misconduct than officers who viewed the organization as being fair. Utilizing a self-report survey, officers were asked whether they had seen another officer engage in the 16 acts conceptualized as misconduct. These included acts regarding the mistreatment of citizens, excessive force, dishonesty, theft, corruption, and drug/alcohol use. Results showed that 82% reported observing seeing another officer engage in misconduct and 43% of officers self-reported at least one act.

Farmer et al. (2003) examined the relationship between distributive and procedural dimensions of organizational justice and job performance, satisfaction, and organizational commitment among police officers. A survey was administered to measure officers' reactions to the department's undercover officer selection system that was administered to a sample of 271 police officers seeking the assignment to the detective bureau. The results showed that both distributive and procedural perceptions of justice were positively related to the undercover officers' job performance, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

Reynolds and Hicks' (2013) and Reynolds' (2014) findings of officers' reactions to perceived organizational injustice provide some insight as to the impact overall

fairness perceptions can have on officer performance. Reynolds and Hicks (2013) found that organizational experiences perceived as being unfair fostered negative emotions described by police officers as anger and being unappreciated. These negative personal experiences included perceived unfair outcomes of disciplinary actions, citizen complaints, promotions/job assignments, and conflicts with supervisors. These perceptions of being wronged were based on unfulfilled expectations of fair outcomes, procedures, and treatment. Furthermore, officers not only made fairness judgments pertaining to specific events, but also used these experiences and that of other officers to make overall fairness judgments of the organizations and perceived organizational support, which, in turn, seemed to influence officer behaviors according to officer interview remarks. In fact, many officers reportedly responded to these expressed emotions through retaliatory behaviors that included reduced performance activities, self-protective behaviors, defiance, and rule-breaking.

Relating to officers' perceptions of fairness; research has shown that differences exist within the organization (i.e., precinct level) in regard to rules and norms (Hassell, 2007; Reuss-Ianni, 1993). If these differences exist, then officers may have different perceptions of fairness depending on the reference source. For example, Reuss-Iaani (1993) remarked, "that all other factors being equal, the greater the supervisory distance, both in rank and geography between the officers and the supervisor, the greater the feeling of distrust and alienation" (p. 67). Thus, officers may hold views of organizational fairness at multiple levels: (a) immediate supervisor, (b) precinct, and (c) overall organization. For example, anyone familiar with policing would agree that police officers often consider reputations of supervisors or precincts when making decisions about

which particular shift or precinct to work, regardless of the perception of the organization

as a whole. Given these distinctive perceptions, it is important for researchers to specify

between fairness perceptions relating to immediate supervisors or the departmental

leadership as a whole. Fairness has also been shown to enhance positive work behaviors.

For example, Tyler et al. (2007) found that fair procedures fostered organizational

legitimacy and social values, which in turn, influenced cooperative work behaviors such

as in-role, extra-role behaviors, rule compliance, and voluntary deference among law

enforcement, and military personnel (Tyler, 2011). Wolfe and Piquero's (2011) findings

indicated that officers who perceive that organizational procedures are fair are less likely

to engage in police misconduct. In addition, favorable perceptions of organizational

justice are related to lower levels of adherence to the code of silence or perceptions that

corrupt acts in pursuit of a noble cause are justified (Wolfe & Piquero, 2011).

Building on Masterson's (2001) "trickle-down" model of justice, Myhill and

Bradford (2013) found that officers' perceptions of fairness within their organization

fostered positive attitudes and behaviors that were reflected back into the community in

the form of positive work attitudes and behaviors. Furthermore, this association was

mediated by officers' beliefs in community policing practices and their satisfaction with

the agency (Myhill & Bradford, 2013).

Research on police chronic stress/strain has also noted the impact fairness can

have within an organization (Anshel, 2000; Arter, 2007), in that perceived unfair

treatment or policies can foster increased stress that can lead to maladaptive coping

strategies such as drinking or deviant behaviors. For example, Anshel (2000) noted that

research has clearly shown that the lack of organizational and supervisor support can lead

to increased levels of police officer stress. Furthermore, this stress can lead to many negative dispositions, such as decreased performance and job satisfaction.

Another concept that has been used to explain officer behavior in earlier police research is police cynicism. Neiderhoffer's (1967) concept of police cynicism was spawned from Merton's (1986) Anomie theory and was associated with the police subculture and the police working environment. Police cynicism was argued to be a response to diffused negative feelings (i.e., hate), being powerless to express these feelings (e.g., unable to respond to harsh criticism by public or unfair treatment by the administration), and continues negative experiences (Neiderhoffer, 1967). Neiderhoffer described police cynicism as being endemic among police officers and is woven into the police persona through a socialization process throughout officers' career stages. The extent of cynicism varies based on organizational and work-related experiences. For instance, a patrol officer would have less than a detective, respectively. The reason is that the patrol officers are more likely than detectives to come in contact with negative experiences. Patrol officers have more direct contact with citizens, thus a greater likelihood to have their actions scrutinized by the administration.

Although there is some conceptual overlap between organizational justice and police cynicism, they are distinct concepts. First, organizational justice is focused solely on the impact of fairness within an organization and police cynicism focuses on external and internal factors and produces an anomie. For example, Regoli, Crank, and Rivera (1990) conducted a confirmatory factor analysis and derived four facets of police cynicism: (a) decision makers, (b) rules, (c) legal system, and (d) respect. Second, police cynicism is oriented toward the efficiency in which the department operates versus how

fair the operations are toward the officers, respectively. However, similar to fairness, Regoli and colleagues (1990) found that officer work relations (supervisors) and performance (measured in total arrests) were both related to police cynicism oriented toward decision makers (i.e., police administrators). Thus, fairness and police cynicism both address the impact of how and organization can influence and impact officers' behaviors and attitudes.

Proposed Research and Its Importance

In summary, perceptions of fairness have been shown to be linked to both positive and negative work-related behaviors that include organizational citizenship behaviors, task performance, and counterproductive work behaviors. These findings occur in both criminal justice organizations as well as other occupations. Research has also produced evidence that trust and perceived organizational support, two indicators of social exchange, mediate the influence between fairness perceptions and work outcomes.

Therefore, this research proposed that perceptions of overall fairness foster social exchange indicators, which, in turn, increase the extent that officers will reciprocate effort back in their work performance. Employees who perceive that their organization is supportive and have trust in their organization will reciprocate back with increased task performance and organizational citizenship behaviors, while decreasing counterwork productive behaviors (production deviance, self-protective behaviors, defiance).

The literature supports the following hypotheses, which will be further explicated in the next chapter:

1. There is a relationship between fairness and police performance.

2. The relationship between fairness and varying measures of police performance is mediated by organizational trust and perceived organizational support based on social exchange theory.

3. Increased perceptions of fairness will be positively related to organizational trust and perceived organizational support, which will be positively related to task performance and organizational citizenship behaviors and negatively related to three types of counterproductive work behaviors.

This research is important for the following reasons. First, it will enrich the larger justice literature by examining the relationship between officer perceptions of organizational justice on various work performance measures Second, this research examined the potential mediating effects of social exchange on officer performance, thus demonstrating that perceptions of organizational fairness may not be as influential as reciprocal relationships between officers and supervisors or their organizations. Third, this research constructed and operationalized measures of self-protective and defiant behaviors as they relate to police officers. Furthermore, this research will fill the void in police literature pertaining to counterproductive work behaviors directed at organizations, since most police deviance research often focuses on illegal activities or officer-citizen interactions. Finally, this research diverged from the dimensional approach to studying organizational justice or fairness and utilized a holistic fairness assessment to examine the impact of overall fairness of an organization.

III. METHODS

Chapter III begins with the primary research questions guiding this dissertation and corresponding hypotheses. Next, an overview of the study design, sample, variables of interest that were used in the analysis, and a description of the survey instrument is provided. This is followed by the analytical plan. Finally, potential limitations of this study are discussed.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The purpose of this research was to analyze the various performance outcomes among police officers associated with perceptions of organizational fairness, organizational trust, and perceived organizational support. This dissertation examined the effects and relationships between perceptions of overall organizational fairness and organizational level self-report performance outcomes (i.e., organizational citizenship behaviors, task performance, production deviance, self-protective behaviors, and defiance) and how these effects are mediated by indicators of social exchange (i.e., organizational trust and perceived organizational support). Two primary research questions were used to guide this research:

1. What are the relationships between overall fairness, organizational trust, perceived organizational support, organizational citizenship behaviors, task performance, production deviance, self-protective behaviors, and defiance?

2. Do perceived organizational support and organizational trust mediate the effects between overall fairness and organizational citizenship behaviors, task performance, production deviance, self-protective behaviors, and defiance?

In regard to research question #1, given the review of literature and based on previous findings, this research postulated that increased perceptions of overall fairness were positively associated with organizational trust, perceived organizational support, organizational citizenship behavior, and positive task performance and negatively associated with production deviance, self-protective behaviors, and defiance. The following hypotheses were used to examine research question #1:

1.1   There is a positive relationship between overall fairness and perceived organizational support.

1.2   There is a positive relationship between overall fairness and organizational trust.

1.3   There is a positive relationship between overall fairness and organizational citizenship behavior.

1.4   There is a positive relationship between overall fairness and police task performance.

1.5   There is a positive relationship between overall fairness and general task performance.

1.6   There is a negative relationship between overall fairness and production deviance.

1.7   There is a negative relationship between overall fairness and production deviance.

1.8   There is a negative relationship between overall fairness and defiance.

Based on the literature review and previous findings regarding the relationship between indicators of social exchange in regard to research question #1, this research also asserted that both organizational trust and perceived organizational support are positively related to organizational citizenship behaviors and task performance and negatively associated with production deviance, self-protective behaviors, and defiance.

1.9   There is a positive relationship between organizational trust and task performance.

1.10   There is a positive relationship between organizational trust and general task performance.

1.11   There is a positive relationship between organizational trust and organizational citizenship behavior.

1.12   There is a negative relationship between organizational trust and production deviance.

1.13   There is a negative relationship between organizational trust and self-protective behavior.

1.14   There is a negative relationship between organizational trust and defiance.

1.15   There is a positive relationship between perceived organizational support and patrol task performance.

1.16   There is a positive relationship between perceived organizational support and general task performance.

1.17   There is a positive relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational citizenship behavior.

1.18   There is a negative relationship between perceived organizational support and production deviance.

1.19   There is a negative relationship between perceived organizational support and self-protective behavior.

1.20   There is a negative relationship between perceived organizational support and Defiance.

In regard to research question #2, based on the literature review and previous findings, it was predicted that perceptions of fairness influence organizational performance, but that the effect is mediated by perceived organizational support and organizational trust. In other words, perceptions of fairness influence positive reciprocation based on social exchange theory, which, in turn, promote positive work performance outcomes. The following hypotheses were used to examine research question #2:

2.1   The effect of fairness on police task performance is mediated by organizational trust and perceived organizational support.

2.2   The effect of fairness on general task performance is mediated by organizational trust and perceived organizational support.

2.3   The effect of fairness on organizational citizenship behavior is mediated by organizational trust and perceived organizational support.

2.4   The effect of fairness on self-protective behaviors is mediated by organizational trust and perceived organizational support.

2.5   The effect of fairness on production defiance is mediated by organizational trust and perceived organizational support.

2.6   The effect of fairness on defiance is mediated by organizational trust and
perceived organizational support.

2.7   The effect of fairness on police task performance is mediated by organizational
trust.

2.8   The effect of fairness on general task performance is mediated by
organizational trust.

2.9   The effect of fairness on organizational citizenship behavior is mediated by
organizational trust.

2.10   The effect of fairness on self-protective behaviors is mediated by organizational
trust.

2.11   The effect of fairness on production defiance is mediated by organizational
trust.

2.12   The effect of fairness on defiance is mediated by organizational trust.

2.13   The effect of fairness on police task performance is mediated by perceived
organizational support.

2.14   The effect of fairness on general task performance is mediated by perceived
organizational support.

2.15   The effect of fairness on organizational citizenship behavior is mediated by
perceived organizational support.

2.16   The effect of fairness on self-protective behaviors is mediated by perceived
organizational support.

2.17   The effect of fairness on production defiance is mediated by perceived
organizational support.

2.18 The effect of fairness on organizational deviance mediated by perceived organizational support.

Study Design and Background

This research used a cross-sectional design utilizing an online self-report survey among a non-probability sample of police officers across a southern state. As stated before, the research had two main goals. First, this research examined the impact of overall fairness on various aspects of officer performance and social exchange indicators. Second, this research examined the mediating effects of both perceived organization support and organizational trust between overall justice and organizational officer performance-related outcomes.

This study used original data collected by the researcher. The researcher surveyed sworn law enforcement officers who were current members of one of several police officer associations located in the southern United States of America. This particular organization had a membership of over 20,000 law enforcement officers representing various sizes of police departments across the state. Given the complexity of SEM, larger samples are often required. Kline (2011) recommended a sample of at least 200. However, as the model becomes more complex, larger samples are needed (Kline, 2011). Given the complexity of this model, the goal was to achieve a sample size of 1500. This allowed 750 cases for the initial testing of the hypothesized measurement and causal model and an additional 750 cases for a post-confirmatory test of the models.

An online survey instrument was created using Survey Monkey and approved through the Texas State University Institutional review Board (IRB). The final survey was distributed to all current members who were in good standing with the organization,

had a working email, and identified themselves as police officers currently working for a department. They were provided an opportunity to participate in the survey. Members received an email from the municipal police officers' association providing information about the research and requesting member participation, which included a link to the survey instrument. Two follow up emails were sent to increase participation.

Two primary techniques were used to increase participation among participants. First, support for the survey was communicated to members in both a newsletter and through email prior to surveys being sent out to members or posted on the website. In addition, since the study was using a convenience sample, a link was also posted on the organization's website to solicit non-members who may visit the site for information. The organization provided courses on various state-mandated training topics that police officers must take to maintain their peace officer certification within the state.

There are three possible benefits for using an online survey method. First, utilizing a professional association in lieu of distributing the survey at a police department provides officers an environment where they may be more willing to answer questions pertaining to potentially sensitive questions concerning work performance and perceptions of fairness. Second, an online survey also provides additional anonymity to the participant. Last, it is often difficult and time-consuming to gain consent from administration to conduct research within their organization, particularly research that may show departmental personnel or leadership in a negative light. Potential limitations of using an online survey will be discussed later in the limitations of study section.

Prior to distributing the survey to the sample, the researcher conducted a pre-test among a convenience sample of police officers consisting of 5 to 10 current police

officers. The primary purpose was to check for clarity and understanding of the questions, estimate time requirements for participants, and to ensure there were no issues with the online survey site or downloading survey results.

Measures

The overall objective of this research was to further understand the causal mechanisms that influence police officer work performance. The measures used in this study were designed to tap varying latent concepts relating to this research. This research had one primary exogenous variable (i.e., overall fairness) and seven endogenous variables (i.e., perceived organizational support, organizational trust, task performance, organizational citizenship behavior, self-protective behaviors, defiance, and production deviance) that were used as outcome and mediating variables.

Overall Fairness

This research did not attempt to measure objective conditions of a fair department, but simply officer perceptions of fairness based on their own evaluations of how the department meets or violates statements linked to fairness rules. Although there is an abundance of organizational justice measures available within literature that are designed to assess employees' perception of fairness in response to different aspects of organizational actions, this research was interested in officers' overall perceptions of fairness versus that of specific organizational justice dimensions or composite scores consisting of the various dimensions. Previous research has suggested that individuals utilize holistic views when making overall judgments about fairness within an organization (Ambrose & Schmink, 2009; Lind, 2001). As noted by Tyler and Lind (1992), employees incorporate different fairness aspects or justice dimensions when they

form fairness assessments pertaining to a specific group or organization. Since this research focused on the perception of fairness within a police agency overall, this research utilized a measure of overall organizational fairness that encompassed not only the officer experiences, but also those of fellow co-workers.

Ambrose and Schmink (2009) created a scale to measure an overall view of fairness consisting of six questions that can be applied to any organization (Cronbach's a = .86), such as police departments. The first three questions assess employees' perceptions of organizational fairness regarding their perceived treatment and the remaining three questions pertain to employees' perceptions of fairness of the organization in general:

1. Overall, I'm treated fairly by my department.

2. In general, I can count on my department to be fair.

3. In general, the treatment I receive around here is fair.

4. Usually, the way things work in this department are not fair (reversed).

5. For the most part, this organization treats its employees fairly.

6. Most of the people who work here would say they are often treated unfairly (reversed).

Ambrose and Schmink (2009) used the words "overall" or "in general" regarding fairness, but fairness could be reflective of many different work-related experiences such as work assignments, promotional opportunities, or evaluations. The questions did not provide the respondent a reference from which to make the evaluation of fairness. For example, when the researcher conducted previous interviews with officers about their perceptions of fairness in their department, officers based those perceptions on numerous

different aspects of the job: (a) disciplinary actions, (b) performance evaluations, (c) promotions, and (d) assignments (Reynolds & Hicks, 2013, 2014).

Building upon Ambrose and Schminke's (2009) prior work, this research asked questions pertaining to officers' overall perceptions of fairness toward themselves and others relating to different organizational aspects, including performance evaluations, treatment, advancement opportunities, and disciplinary action. For clarity, these were not objective indicators of fairness, but subjective measures based on officers' perceptions. Therefore, these questions are reflective of officers' opinions about fairness in the organization and not whether the department was actually fair or not. In addition, these questions were meant to capture fairness beliefs pertaining to the organization; thus, it was not meant to capture officers' perceptions of immediate supervisors. A primary reason for this reference distinction is grounded in multi-foci research, which supports that individuals develop source specific views. From this perspective, officers may have a different view of their immediate supervisors than the organization as a whole. Since this study was focused on the organization, the questions were oriented toward the organization.

Individuals reported their level of agreement with each statement using a Likert 6-point scale (1= strongly disagree, 6= strongly agree), with higher scores being reflective of higher perceptions of overall fairness in the organization. A N/A response was also made available to participants for this particular variable, because the officer may not have had an experience in which to make a reference from in regard to perceived fair treatment. For example, you have not received an evaluation since working at the department. However, a neutral response or a middle point was not used for this variable,

perceived organizational support, or organizational trust, to force the participant to pick a

position. Although there are both costs and benefits associated with using a neutral

response (Bradburn, Sudman, & Wasnick, 2004), it was decided that they would not be

used in this study. One reason was that these are topics in which the participant would

have an opinion. It is unreasonable to assume that people would be indifferent about

fairness versus a political topic in which they may not have knowledge or interest. A

second reason is forcing individuals to voice their view that, which will enhance the

ability for the results to be evenly distributed. For perceived fairness, the following items

were used:

1. My performance evaluations have been fair.

2. My disciplinary actions, if any, have been fair.

3. Opportunities to advance my career have been fair.

4. Overall, I have been treated fairly at this department.

5. Most officers who complain about fairness in this department have valid
   reasons (reversed).

6. Disciplinary actions at this department are fair overall (reversed).

7. It matters more who you are than what you do, when it comes to promotions
   and job assignments (reversed).

8. Officer evaluations are fair at this department.

Perceived Organizational Support (POS)

This concept refers to employees' "beliefs concerning the extent to which the

organization values their contribution and cares about their well-being" (Eisenberger et

al., 1986, p. 501). The Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS) was

developed by Eisenberger et al. (1986) and is the most often used scale. Both the 36-item

scale and subsequent abbreviated versions have shown to have high internal reliability

and be uni-dimensional (Armeli et al., 1998; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rhoades &

Eisenberger, 2002). Items taken from the SPOS have been used previously to examine

perceived organizational support within police departments (Armeli et al., 1998). Due to

the SPOS being copyrighted, the researcher gained permission to utilize items from the

original SPOS scale via email communication with Dr. Robert "Bob" Eisenberger

(Appendix A).

This research used the POS scale created by Armeli et al. (1998) that utilized 11

high-loading items (Crombach alpha = .82) from the original 36-item SPOS created by

Eisenberger et al. (1998). The items selected were 1, 2, 4, 6, 9, 17, 18, 20, 23, and 27.

Principal component analysis showed that items were loaded on a single latent factor

with loadings ranging from .56 to .88, with an average of (.75). Although they used a 7-

point Likert scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree, this research used a 6-point

scale by removing a neutral response (Armeli et al., 1998). The following items were

used:

1. The organization values my contribution to its well-being.

2. If the organization could hire someone to replace me at a lower salary, it

    would do so.

3. The organization strongly considers my goals and values.

4. The organization would ignore a complaint from me (reversed).

5. The organization really cares about my well-being.

6. Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice (reversed).

7. The organization would grant a reasonable request for a change in my working conditions.

8. The organization is willing to help me when I need a special favor.

9. If given the opportunity, the organization would take advantage of me (reversed).

10. The organization shows very little concern for me (reversed).

11. The organization takes pride in my work accomplishments at work.

Organizational Trust

Mayer and colleagues (1995) described trust as the willingness of a party to be vulnerable, which is distinct from both trustworthiness and propensity to trust (Colquitt et al., 2007; Mayer et al., 1995; Schoorman et al., 2007). Both the original 4-item survey developed by Mayer and Davis (1999) and the improved 7-item survey (Schoorman & Ballinger, 2006) have shown to be valid and reliable measures of trust (Schoorman et al., 2007). The scale created by Schoorman and Ballinger (2006) was used for this study.

Following Schoorman et al.'s (2007) recommendation, this research utilized all seven items of Schoorman and Ballinger's (2006) improved trust scale (alpha .84), which has higher internal reliability than Mayer and Davis's (1999) 4-item scale (a=.59, .60). Slight adaptations were made; for instance, "my supervisor" was changed to "my departmental leadership." The primary reason for this change was to keep perceptions and reactions at an organizational level context. The response scale ranged from (1) strongly disagree to (6) strongly agree. The following seven questions were used:

1. The department leadership keeps my interests in mind when making decisions.

2. I would be willing to let my departmental leadership have complete control over my future in this department.

3. If my departmental leadership asks why a problem occurred, I would speak freely even if I were partly to blame.

4. I feel comfortable being creative because my departmental leadership understands that sometimes creative solutions do not work.

5. It is important for me to have a good way to keep an eye on my departmental leadership.

6. Increasing my vulnerability to criticism by my departmental leadership would be a mistake.

7. If I had my way, I wouldn't let my departmental leadership have any influence over decisions that are important to me.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

According to Lambert and Hogan (2013), organizational citizen behaviors (OCBs) are distinct from in-role behaviors in that these actions often are not explicitly rewarded and are often discretionary behaviors that benefit the organization. The questions are designed to capture all seven dimensions of OCBs described by Podsakoff et al.'s (2000) meta-analysis: (a) helping behavior, (b) sportsmanship, (c) organizational loyalty, (d) organizational compliance, (e) individual initiative, (f) civic virtue, and (g) self-development. Similar types of questions have been used in previous criminal justice-related studies (Lambert & Hogan, 2013; Tyler, 2011; Tyler et al., 2007). For each

statement, respondents were asked to what extent they have engaged in the following actions using a scale ranging from (1) never to (6) most of the time. The following seven questions were used to measure organizational directed citizenship behaviors. For analysis purposes, sets of questions were mean-summed in the following manner to make the seven indicators of OCB:

1. I assist less experienced officers when they have questions.

2. I try to set a good example for other officers in the department.

3. I try to cheer up other officers when they seem down.

4. It is hard to stay motivated doing police work (reversed).

5. I rarely get frustrated when I have to stay past my normal shift time.

6. I follow organizational rules, even when I disagree with them.

7. I follow the rules, even when I know no one is watching.

8. I rarely say good things about my department to others (reversed).

9. I often recommend to interested candidates that they should apply to my department.

10. I always try to give a hundred percent when at work.

11. I don't volunteer to take pending calls, unless I have to (reversed).

12. I try to be proactive in my enforcement activities when I have an opportunity.

13. I rarely attend departmental sponsored functions even when off duty (reversed).

14. I stay abreast of changes in the department (e.g., key personnel, upcoming recruit classes).

15. I try to attend as much training as possible, even if I have to pay for it myself.

16. I continuously try to find ways to improve my skills and abilities as an officer.

General Task Performance

To measure expected daily work-related tasks within an organization, previous researchers have used a general overall scale to measure task performance within general occupational literature (Tyler's, 2011) and police-related studies (Tyler & Fagan, 2007). This research utilized Tyler's (2011) four-item in-role behavior scale (a= .80) to measure general task performance. The officers were asked to what extent they perform the behavior with a response scale ranging from (1) never to (6) always. The four questions were:

1. Fulfill the responsibilities specified for someone in your position.

2. Perform tasks usually expected by your work organization as part of your job.

3. Complete your work in a timely, effective manner.

4. Meet the performance expectations of your supervisor

Police-Related Task Performance

A variety of specific policing related tasks have been used as a proxy measure for officers' task performance: (a) use of force, (b) arrest, (c) issuing tickets, (d) DUI, (e) problem-oriented policing activities, (e) drug arrests, and (f) security checks (Brown & Frank, 2006; Dejong et al., 2001; Engel, 2000; Johnson, 2009a, 2009b; Mastrofski et al., 1994; Shane, 2010, 2013). To measure police-related task performance, officers were asked about how their work compares with their peers in regard to traffic stops, arrests, answering calls for service, and a community policing activity, which are consistent with other police studies as noted earlier. Although official evaluation reports or daily activity sheets would provide a more objective measurement, this option was not applicable in

this study due to the survey being anonymous. Thus, the measure was a self-reporting measure of work productivity in comparison with other officers. For each statement, the officer was asked to indicate the extent that the officer engages in the following actions using a scale ranging from (1) never to (6) most of the time. The four questions used to measure specific task performance were:

1. I stay busier than other officers I work with whom I work.

2. I am more proactive in crime fighting than other officers with whom I work.

3. I answer more dispatched calls than other officers with whom I work.

4. I try to assist citizens more than other officers with whom I work.

Counterproductive Work Behaviors

There are mixed opinions as to whether CWB should be measured as a single dimensional construct or as a multiple-dimensional construct (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Dalal, 2005; Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007). Researchers have distinguished harmful acts directly against the organization from harmful acts directed toward specific supervisors (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Berry et al., 2007; Penney & Spector, 2005; Spector et al., 2006). Although organizational and individual-directed behaviors are correlated, research has shown them to be distinct outcomes (Berry et al., 2007; Dalal, 2005), which supports using a multi-foci outcome versus a singular behavioral measure.

This study only focused on counterproductive work behaviors of police officers directed toward the organization, so only that measure was included. In addition to identifying the target, the types of retaliatory or counterproductive acts must also be measured. However, because environments vary, it is recommended, that researchers adapt questions specific to their organization of interest and particular research goals

(Bennett & Robinson, 2000). This research examined three different categories of

organization-directed counterwork behaviors: (a) production deviance, (b) self-

protection, and (c) defiance.

Production Deviance. The eight items created to measure production deviance

were based on this researcher's own law enforcement experiences and behaviors

described to the researcher while conducting interviews with police during previous

research (Reynolds & Hicks, 2013). Furthermore, these items were consistent with

questions previously used in other CWB-related scales (Bennett & Robinson, 2000;

Kaarian et al., 2008; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Sharlick & Folger, 1997) relating to

production deviance. The scale captured the extent that the officer engages in behaviors

that reduce the organization's effectiveness or service. Officers were asked to what extent

they engage in the following using a scale that ranged from 1-6, with (1) reflecting never

engaging in this action and (6) reflecting most of the time. The six questions that were

used are:

1. Meet up with coworkers to talk instead of engage in work-related activities.

2. Do the bare minimum that is expected by my supervisor.

3. Sleep or take cat naps during my shift.

4. Engage in non-job related activities while on duty (reading, watching movies).

5. Take longer on-calls to avoid other work.

Self-Protective Behaviors. This variable is derived from qualitative studies

conducted by Reynolds and Hicks (2013) in which officers described actions taken to

protect themselves from potential risk and liability. Officers described trying to avoid

calls for service or proactive work that could result in complaints being filed or having to

use force, both of which can result in additional paperwork and become the potential for disciplinary actions (Reynolds & Hicks, 2013). For instance, writing an individual a citation for an expired tag versus for speeding is a safer action in regard to minimizing potential risks. This action minimizes potential risk, because speeding tickets are more often contested by citizens and would increase the chances of being complained against or even the situation escalating due to the person being upset. Even less risk would be not to stop a vehicle at all.

Although self-protective behaviors may not be done to intentionally harm the department or supervisors, they are intentional acts that can indirectly harm the organization by reducing the quality and quantity of service the department provides the community. Self-protective behaviors can be defined as intentional acts taken by employees to protect themselves from perceived dangers or threats from individuals within and outside the organization. Five questions were created based on responses found in the interview transcripts of the previous research that are reflective of protective behaviors (Reynolds & Hicks, 2013).

The respondents were asked to rate their response as the extent they engage in the following actions using a scale that ranged from (1) never to (6) most of the time. The five questions were used:

1. I try to "lay-low" and stay off the department's radar.

2. I look after the welfare of other officers before myself (reversed).

3. I take extra precautions daily to protect myself from potential allegations.

4. I try to act in the best interest of the department when I make decisions (reversed).

5. In regard to my administration, I try to watch my back.

Defiance. For the purpose of this research, defiance was defined as the extent that an employee acts in a malicious manner toward the organization or its representatives with the intent to hinder or undermine the effectiveness of the department or its representatives in reactions to perceiving mistreatment. These types of acts fall within the general scope of counterwork behaviors used by others reflecting employee acts that undermine leadership, vandalism, or disrupt productivity (Ambrose et al., 2002; Bennett & Robinson, 2000, Skarlicki & Folger, 1997) and are sometimes categorized under the term of work place sabotage. For example, Skarlicki and Folger (1997) described actions such as: purposely damaging equipment, wasting company materials, refusing to work certain shifts or assignments, talking back to supervisors, gossiping, and disobeying directives. Similar types of acts were described during previous interviews with police officers in response to perceived mistreatment by organizational leadership or direct supervisors (Reynolds & Hicks, 2013). Previous police qualitative research also recorded similar acts (Barker, 1999; Ruess-Ianni, 1993).

The questions in this research are meant to measure the officers' willingness to engage in deliberate harmful actions against the organization with the intent to hinder or undermine the effectiveness of the department or its representatives. The respondents were asked to rate their response as to what extent they engage in the following actions while on duty using a sliding scale that ranges from (1) agree strongly to (6) strongly disagree. The five questions are:

1. I use departmental rules, policies, or the law against the administration.

2. I purposely try to undermine administration goals when the opportunity arises.

74

3. I purposely disregard organizational policies or procedures.

4. I attempt to make leadership look incompetent or foolish in front of others when the opportunity arises.

5. I purposely try to undermine leadership when the opportunity arises.

6. I purposely disregard authority directives when the opportunity arises.

Demographic Variables

Several self-reported demographic and workplace environmental variables were included in this research for descriptive purposes when describing the sample. They were not included in the proposed model primarily for parsimonious reasons, A primary justification for not including demographics in this research is that demographic variables such as age, race, education, and marital status are often not significantly related to perceptions of fairness (Baker, Gordon, & Taxman, 2014; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Crow et al., 2012; Tyler, 2011; Tyler et al. 2007).

The demographic variables included: tenure, race, ethnicity, and officer rank, and job assignment. Age of the officer was expressed in how old the officer is in years. Tenure was measured as the number of years the officer has worked as a police officer as of January 2015 and was coded as a continuous variable (i.e., ratio level measurement). Race was a nominal level variable and was measured to reflect the racial group that the officer most identifies with and was initial coded as nominal variables in the dataset: White (1), Asian/Pacific Islander (2), African-American (3), and other (4). Ethnicity was a nominal level variable and was entered as a dichotomous variable with Hispanic (1) and non-Hispanic (0). Department size was an open-ended question that asked participants the number of officers in their department and is a ratio-level variable. This variable was

transformed into a categorical/nominal level variable or was kept as a ratio level depending on response distribution. Officer rank is a categorical/nominal level variable and was measured and coded in the following manner: non-supervisor was coded as 1, mid-level supervisor was coded as 2, and a command level supervisor was coded as 3. Duty position was also a categorical/nominal level variable and was measured and coded in the following manner: patrol was coded as 1, detective/investigator was coded as 2, special assignment was coded as 3, and other was coded as 4.

Instrument

This research utilized an online self-reported survey to gather data for analyses and testing of hypotheses (see Appendix B). Self-reported surveys are often utilized in police studies for assessing attitudes and behaviors to examine variances among officers (Hickman, 2007) and justice-related research (Rupp et al., 2014). Some researchers have argued that self-report surveys would be ineffective within the etiology of policing due to the suspicious nature inherit of the police subculture (Goldstein, 1977), noting a presumed strong adherence to the "Blue Code of Silence" ethos (Klockars, Kutnjak-Ivkovic, & Haberfield, 2003; Westmarland, 2006). For example, Kapeler, Sluder, and Alpert (1994) remarked that several postulates found from within police subculture research support this view. These postulates include not "giving up another cop" and "watching out for your partner" (Kapeler et al., 1994, p. 111). However, some researchers have found this to not always be the case (Hickman, 2007; Kaariainen et al., 2008). Unfortunately, limited research is directed toward the examination of issues that may impede the validity of self-reported surveys within police research, in particular, that of internal invalidity concerns (Hickman, 2007). Even with the potential limitations of using

a self-report survey, the primary benefit is that it allows researchers to gather data that may otherwise not be accessible, such as a person's perceptions or their covert behaviors that are often difficult to detect (Fox et al., 2001). For this reason, numerous researchers have suggested utilizing self-reports or personal interviews to study varying types of CWBs (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Fox et al., 2001; Jones, 2009; Kaariainen et al., 2008; Penney & Spector, 2005).

This research utilized an online self-report survey consisting of two qualifying questions and 76 questions meant to provide a measurement model and operational measures reflective of relevant theoretical concepts and participant demographics. The concepts measured are perceived overall fairness, organizational trust (trust-O), perceived organizational support (POS), organizationally citizenship behaviors (OCB), task performance, and three types of counterproductive work behaviors: (a) production deviance, (b) defiance, and (c) self-protective behaviors.

- Overall fairness consists of eight questions and is a global measure of fairness within the organization based on the officer's perceptions of personal and observed experiences and will include different facets of fairness, such as evaluations, disciplinary, and promotional opportunities.

- Organizational trust consists of seven questions that measure an officer's willingness to be vulnerable.

- Perceived organizational support measures officers' perceptions that the organization values and cares about of them. The latent variable organizational, citizenship behaviors (OCB-0), contains 16 questions that are

meant to capture behaviors that benefit the organizations, but are often not
considered primary or expected work-related task.

- To capture task performance, eight questions are used to measure both job
  specific and general tasks.

- Three categories of counterproductive behavior were measured. Production
  deviance consisted of eight items that measure activities that reduce output.
  Six questions pertained to defiance, which is meant to capture behaviors that
  undermine the organization. Self-protective behaviors consisted of five
  questions that reflect actions officer take to protect themselves from perceived
  unfair organizations.

The survey ended with six sample descriptor type questions: (a) years at the department,
(b) position in the department, (c) size of department, (d) ethnicity, (e) race, and (f)
gender.

Analyses

The analyses for this research utilized data from the self-reported survey to test
research hypotheses. First, data were collected from an online survey instrument.
Response data were entered into an Excel format and transferred into *R* and Stata 13 for
analysis. Descriptive analysis was conducted and will be presented in Chapter V. Next,
structural equation modeling (SEM) with maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) were
used to test research hypotheses (Eliason, 1993; Kline, 2011). The models were
conducted in *R* and then verified in STATA. The statistical program *R* was used due to its
ease in which models can be run and modified, while STATA was used to verify the
results from *R* with an alternative statistical program.

In general, structural equation models (SEM) are utilized to represent a series of hypothesized cause-effect relationships between variables into a holistic hypothesis reflecting patterns of statistical dependencies (Kline, 2011). SEM consists of two components: a measurement model and structural model. Therefore, the measurement model and the structural model are discussed in separate parts. Consistent with the two-step approach used in SEM, this analytical structural equation modeling consists of two parts. Prior to SEM, the data were split randomly so that 50% of the data were in a training dataset, while the other 50% was in a test dataset. The training dataset was used to build the measurement and structural model, and the test dataset was used to test the model's fit. In other words, the data were randomly divided into two groups. The first was used to build the model, and the second group was used confirm the model and findings with an independent sample.

In the first phase (measurement modeling), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to examine the distinctiveness of the variables used in this research. The second phase (structure modeling) consisted of a model comparison technique used to evaluate the structural models and to model the causal relational effects of fairness on officer work performance. For the purpose of this research, overall fairness was treated as an exogenous factor and the remaining latent constructs were treated as endogenous factors: (a) organizational trust, (b) POS, (c) general task performance, (d) police task performance (e) OCB, (f) production defiance, (g) defiance, and (h) self-protective behaviors.

There are multiple reasons for approaching this analysis utilizing SEM versus traditional regressions as put forth by Iacobucci (2008). First, regressions should not be utilized if any construct is measured with multiple items. Second, SEM is the preferred method when you have multiple mediator measures (i.e., organizational trust and POS). Third, a primary advantage of SEM over regression is that standard errors are reduced using an SEM approach, because SEM simultaneously estimates all of the parameters in the structural equation model. In addition to these reasons, this approach is consistent with other similar research that has examined the mediating effects of social exchange between fairness and work related outcomes in the past (Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002; El Akremi et al., 2010).

Measurement Model

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) utilizing maximum likelihood estimation (default method utilized in *R* and STATA 13) approach was conducted to examine the model fit of the measurement models for each latent variable (Thompson, 2004). The factor analysis test provides support for internally consistency and reliable of the measurement items and discriminant validity between latent factors. Fit indices for the confirmatory factor model were evaluated to determine if the model supported the presence of nine distinct latent constructs that are overall fairness, perceived organizational support (POS), organizational trust, organizational citizenship behaviors directed toward the organization (OCB-O), general task, police-related task, production deviance, self-protective behaviors, and defiance.

Since many of the outcomes reflect various aspects of performance, it is possible that these items are reflective of the same latent construct. Therefore, this research examined this possibility by means of a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to compare the hypothesized 9-factor measurement model with six other theoretically plausible alternative models (8-factor, 7-factor, 7-factor, 6-factor, 5-factor, and 4-factor measurement model). How indicators are attached to various latent factors is in Table 1.

Table 1. Measurement Models by Indicators Linked to Latent Factors

Measurement model	FAIR	TRUST	POS	TASK SPEC.	TASK GEN.	OCB-O	DEFIANCE	SPB	PROD. DEVIANCE
MODEL 1*									
MODEL 2				TASK PERF					
MODEL 3							OVERALL CWB		
MODEL 4				TASK PERF			OVERALL CWB		
MODEL 5				POSITIVE WORK BEHAVIORS			OVERALL CWB		
MODEL 6				OVERALL PERFORMANCE					
*Represents the hypothesized 9-measurement factor casual/relational model for this study.									

Model 1 is a 9-factor model. This measurement model reflects that all nine of the latent factors are distinct concepts and the specific police tasks and general task indicators reflect different latent constructs. The factors for this model included: overall fairness, organizational trust, perceived organizational support, specific task performance, general task performance, organizational citizenship behaviors, production deviance, self-protective behaviors, and defiance (see Figure 1).
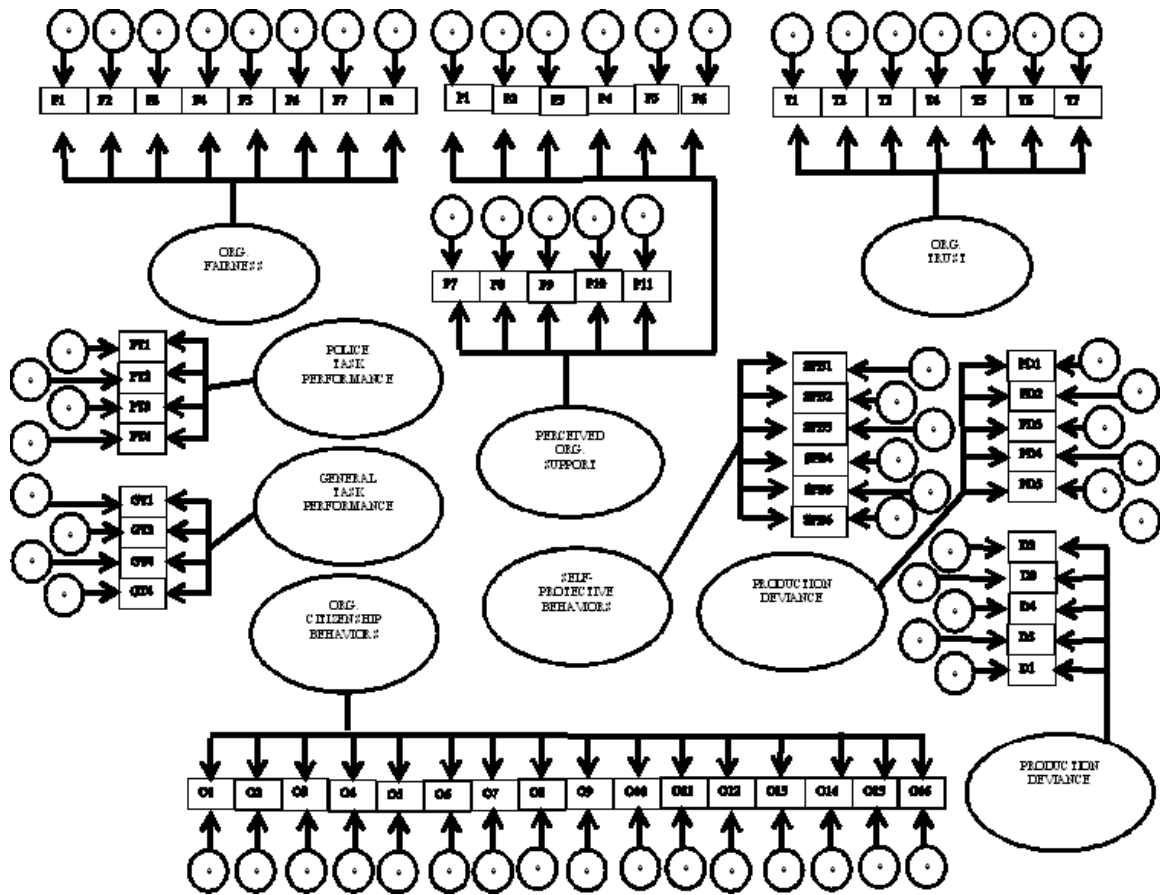
Figure 1. **Model 1—9-Factor Measurement Model.**

The hypothesized 8-factor model (Model 2) is constructed with eight latent variables. Whereas in Model.1, police task are reflective of traditional order maintenance activities and general tasks are reflective of the extent officers meet the performance requirements of their supervisor and the organization, this model suggests that both specific and general task performance are influenced by a single factor referred to as "task performance." The factors for this model included perceived overall fairness, perceived organizational support, organizational trust, task performance, production deviance, self-protective behaviors, and defiance (see Figure 2).
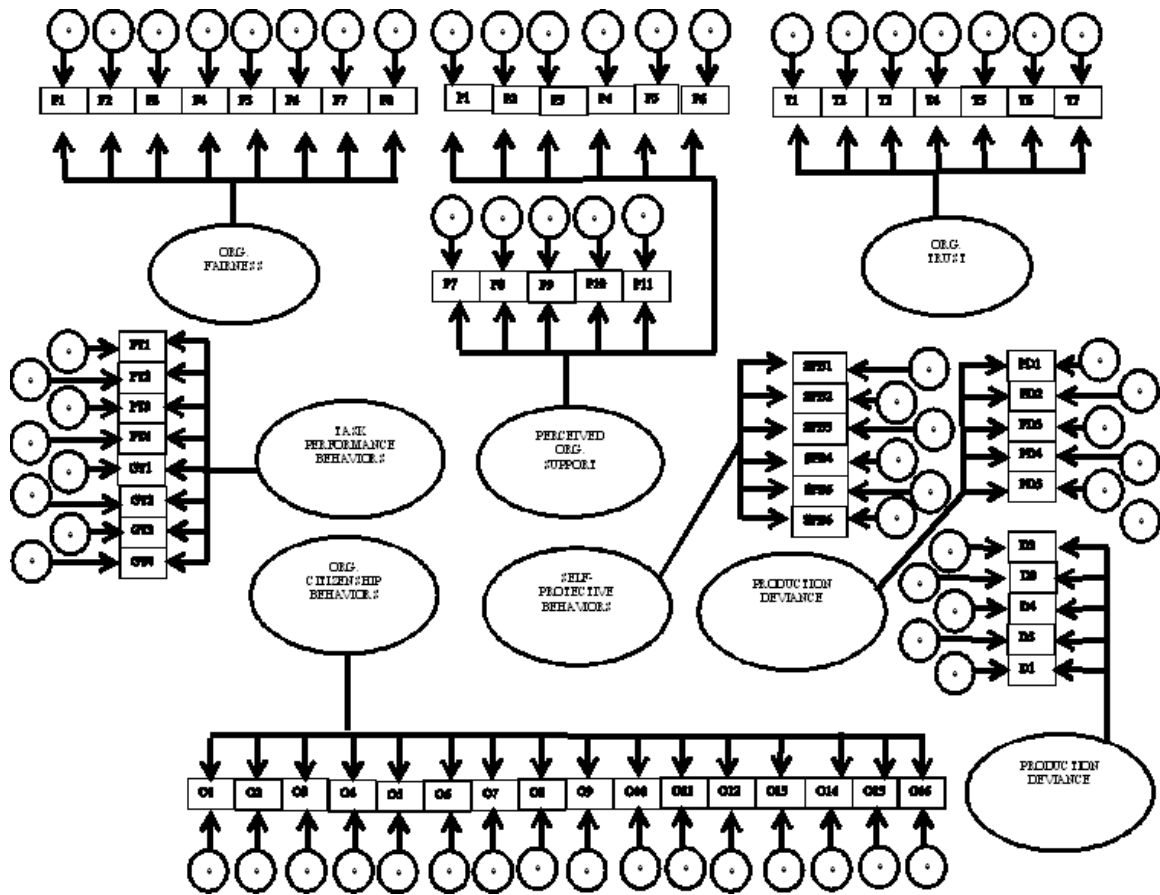
Figure 2. **Model 2—8-Factor Measurement Model**. Specific and general task indicators reflective of the latent variable task performance.

Model 3 is a 7-factor measurement model. This model keeps the latent variables of specific task and general task used in Model 1, but combines the latent variables production deviance, self-protective behaviors, and defiance under a new latent variable counterproductive work behaviors (CWB). This model suggests that production deviance, self-protective behaviors, and defiance are reflective of a single construct. The factors for this model included overall fairness, organizational trust, perceived organizational support, specific task performance, general task performance, organizational citizenship behaviors, and counterproductive work behaviors (see Figure 3).
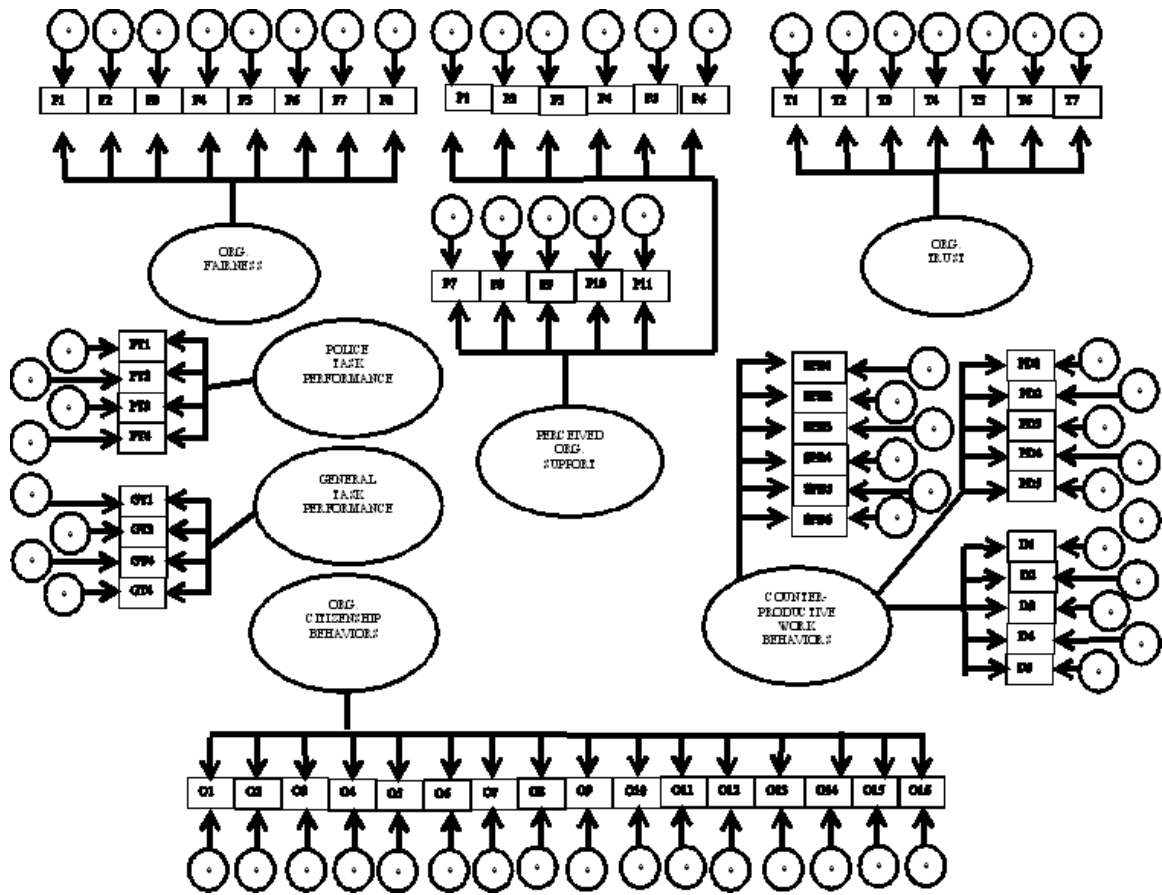
Figure 3. **Model—3 7-Factor Measurement Model.** Specific task and general task are viewed as distinct factors. Production deviance, self-protective behaviors, and defiance are reflective of the latent variable "counterproductive work behavior."

Model 4 is a 6-factor model. This model keeps the counterproductive work behavior factor used in the previous model, but places general task performance and specific task performance under the latent factor "task performance" similar to Model 1. The factors for Model 4 included overall fairness, organizational trust, perceived organizational support, task performance, organizational citizenship behaviors, and counterproductive work behaviors (see Figure 4).
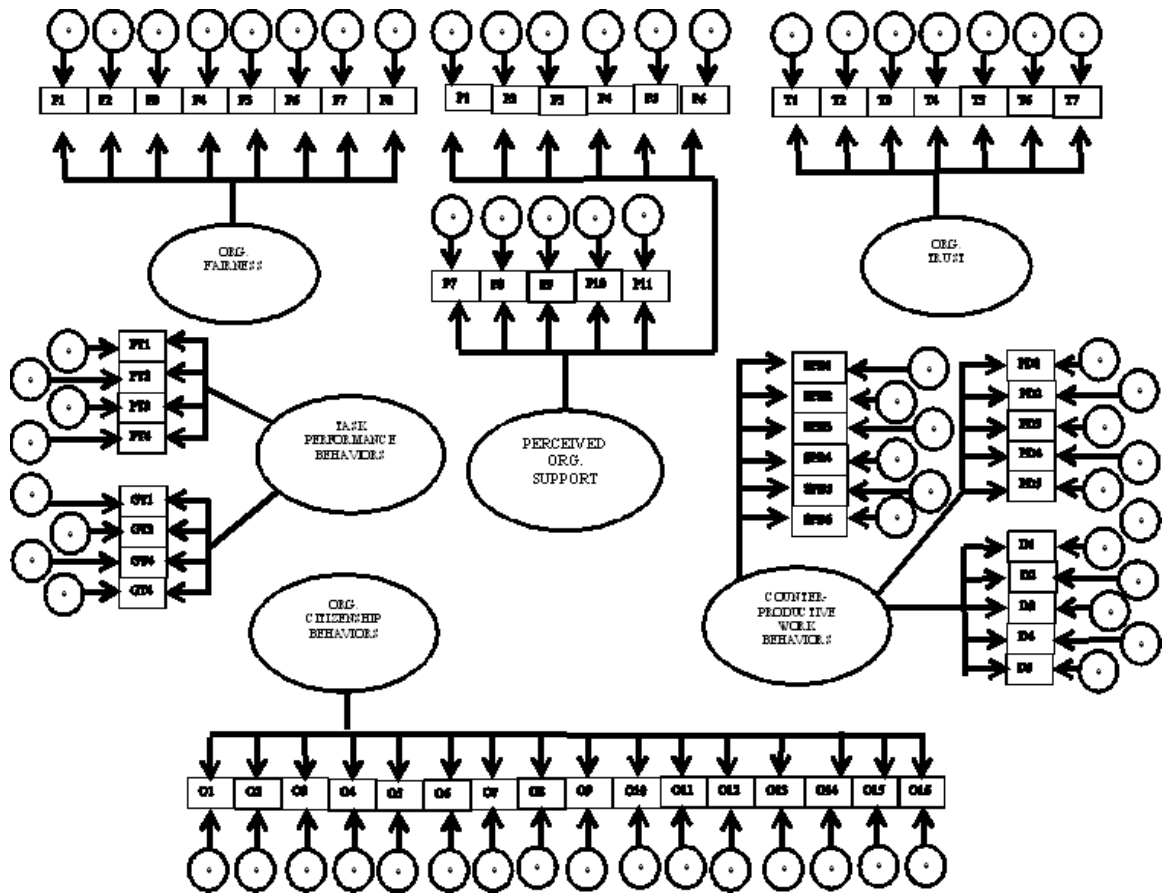
Figure 4. **Model 4—6-Factor Measurement Model**. Specific and general task indicators are reflective of the latent variable "task performance" and production deviance, self-protective behaviors, and defiance are reflective of the latent variable "counterproductive work behavior."

Model 5 was a 5-factor measurement model. This model keeps the counterproductive work behavior factor used in the previous two models (Model 3, Model 4), but places general task performance, specific task performance, and organizational citizenship behaviors under a single latent factor labeled "positive work performance." The factors for Model 5 included overall fairness, organizational trust, perceived organizational support, positive work behaviors, counterproductive work behaviors (see Figure 5).
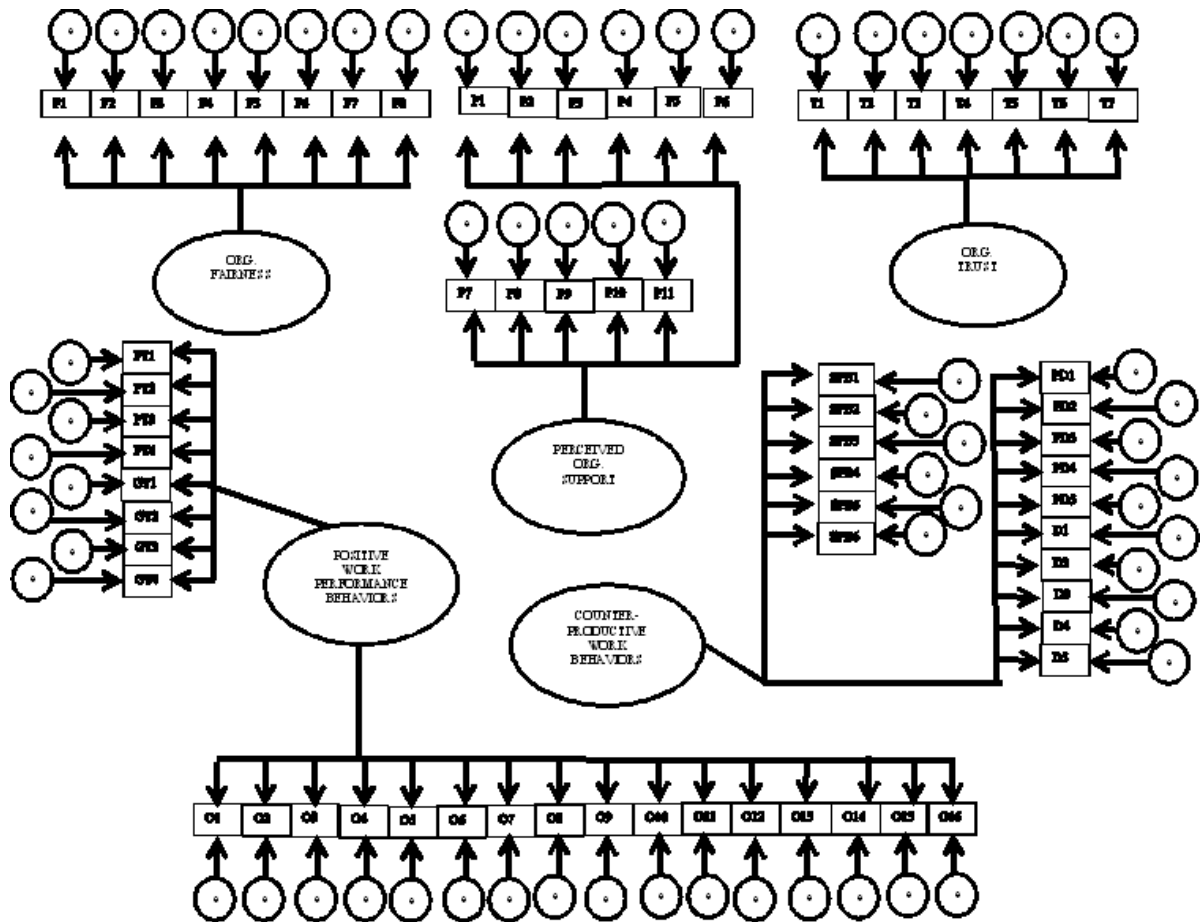
Figure 5. **Model 5—5-Factor Measurement Model**. Specific task, general task, and organizational citizenship behaviors are reflective of a single latent factor "positive work performance" and production deviance, self-protective behaviors, and defiance are shown to reflect a single latent variable "counterproductive work behavior."

Model 6 was a 4-factor measurement model that combines all the outcomes under a single latent factor referred to as "overall performance." The factors for Model 6 included overall fairness, organizational trust, perceived organizational support, and overall work performance (see Figure 6).
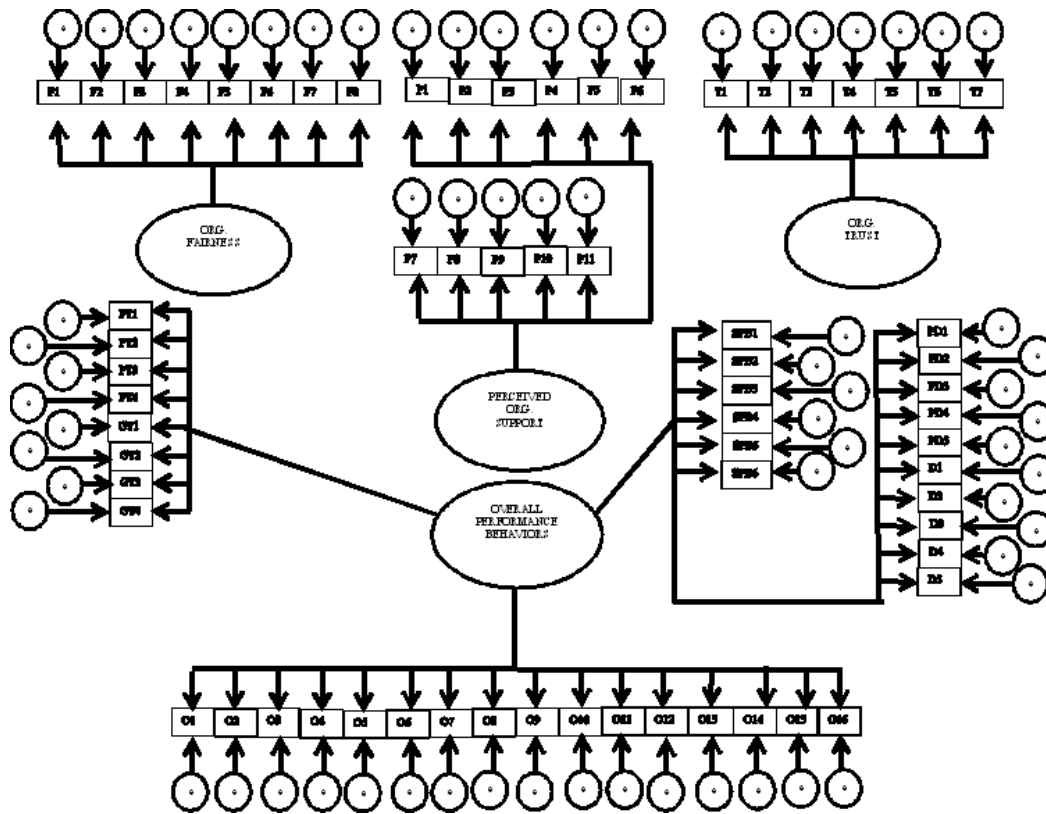
Figure 6. **Model 6—4-Factor Measurement Model**. All performance outcomes variables are shown to be reflective of the factor "Overall Performance."

Examination of goodness of fit statistics and the x^2 difference test was used to confirm whether Model 1 (the hypothesized 9-factor measurement model) fits the data significantly better than the other measurement models (Model 2, Model 3, Model 4, Model 5, or Model 6). Next, both item reliability and reliability coefficients of the measures were evaluated.

Due to the initial models either failing to converge or the goodness of fit statistics not showing an acceptable model fit, model indices were examined to assess what changes should be made to the model to improve the fit. A total of 21 items had to be removed (see Chapter IV) until a good model fit was found. The likelihood of the original models not providing a good model fit was a pre-analysis concern due to the number of

variables used. When using confirmatory analysis, the number of items measured is often

negatively associated with model fit. Simply, more items increase the chance of your

model not having good model fit (Kenny & McCoach, 2003). Once an acceptable model

was formed, the model was compared again against alternative theoretical models prior to

moving to the second phase of analysis.

Structural Model

In phase two, structural modeling was used to examine complex relationships

among factors. This phase included testing multiple path analyses to test hypotheses

relating to research question #1 regarding the relationships between the latent factors and

question#2 regarding the potential mediating effects of social exchange between overall

fairness and performance outcome variables.

To test the mediating role of POS and trust, one must ensure that certain

conditions are necessary for mediation: (a) the independent variable must be related to

the dependent variable(s), (b) the independent variable must be related to the dependent

mediator, (c) the mediating variable must be related to the dependent variable(s), and (d)

the independent variable should have no effect on the dependent variables when the

mediator variable is held constant (fully mediated) or should at least become significantly

smaller (partially mediated).

To ascertain if the fourth requirement is met and to answer the question pertaining

to whether the mediating path is stronger than the direct path, Iacobucci (2008)

recommended utilizing a z-test. The z-test compared directly whether the mediated path

exceeded the strength of the direct path. In this case, the question is does the mediated

path between fairness and the independent measures through POS and organizational

trust exceed the effect of the direct path between fairness and the independent measures? If the *z* test and direct path between fairness and independent variables are significant, then the mediation is partial. If the *z*-test is significant, but the direct path is not, then the mediation is complete. Findings and more detailed explanations of the analysis conducted is provided within Chapter V.

Summary

The overall objective of this research was to further understand the causal mechanisms that influence police officer work performance. Two primary research questions were used to guide this research:

1. What are the relationships between overall fairness, organizational trust, perceived organizational support, organizational citizenship behaviors, task performance, production deviance, self-protective behaviors, and defiance?

2. Do perceived organizational support and organizational trust mediate the effects between overall fairness and organizational citizenship behaviors, task performance, production deviance, self-protective behaviors, and defiance?

To answer these questions, this research used an online self-reported survey consisting of a 75-item instrument. The measures included: overall fairness, perceived organizational support, organizational trust, organizationally directed citizenship behavior, police task performance, general task performance, self-protective behaviors, defiance, and production deviance. The survey was administered to a convenience (non-probability) sample of police officers who were current members of a police officer association in a southern state. The analysis was conducted using a measurement and

structural path model consistent with SEM techniques utilizing the statistical program *R*

and answering research hypotheses with results verified with Stata 13.

IV. RESULTS

Chapter IV will describe the analyses and results of this study. First, this chapter will provide descriptive statistics of the sample and research variables. Next, the chapter will provide results of the measurement and structural model. Last, the results of the structural equation modeling used to test the research hypotheses will be presented.

Descriptive Statistics

The data for this research were collected from a non-probability (i.e., convenience) sample of sworn police officers using an online self-reported survey. The survey was distributed via email to current members of a police officer association representing law enforcement officers in a southern state and placed on the organization's member bulletin webpage. The organization had approximately 20,000 members; however, the organization had only 15,666 working emails at the time the survey was distributed. A total of 1,436 officers responded, which provided a low response rate of 9%. Potential limitations of using a non-probability sample and having a low response rate will be discussed in the next chapter, in addition to possible explanations for the limited response.

Sample

The sample consisted of officers ranging in years of law enforcement experience from 1 to 46 ($M = 14.43$, $SD = 9.40$). Further analysis separated years of experience based on Barker's (1999) police stages of socialization. The results showed that 4% of the officers had been officers for two or less years, 24% ranged between three and eight years of experience, 28% ranged between 9 and 15 years of experience, 17% had between 15 and 20 years of experience, and the remaining 27% had more than 20 years of

experience. Overall, 44% of the officers have worked more than 15 years as a police officer (see Table 2). When participants were asked their department size, measured in number of sworn officers, the department size ranged from 3 to 5300 ($M = 197.35$, $SD = 448.36$). Over half of the officers worked in departments with less than 70 officers and 75% had fewer than 200. Conversely, about 3% had 1,000 or more officers in their agencies.

Table 2. Sample Descriptive: Years of Law Enforcement Experience			
	Mean	**_SD_**	**Range**
	15.43	9.4	1 min 46 max
	freq	**percent**	**cum**
1-2 years	48	4	--
3-8 years	302	24	28
9-15 years	356	28	56
15-20 years	208	17	73
21 plus years	340	27	100
Note. Years of service as of January 2014; N = 1436.			

When participants were asked their current primary duty assignments, many of the participants' primary duty was either patrol ($n = 603$; 48%) or other ($n = 356$; 28%). The remaining participants reported working as a detective ($n = 177$; 14%) or in special assignments ($n = 120$; 10%). In regard to officers' hierarchal status within their departments, most of the participants held non-supervisory positions ($n = 802$; 63%), compared to officers who were mid-level supervisors ($n = 356$; 28%) or upper-level supervisors ($n = 97$; 8%) (see Table 3).

Table 3. Sample Descriptive: Department Size, Duty Position, and Hierarchy Status			
Size of department by # of officers (*N* = 1254)	mean	*SD*	range
	197.35	448.36	3 – 5300
		n	*%*
Primary duty in organization (*N* = 1256)			
Patrol		603	48
Detective		177	14
Special assignment		120	10
Other		356	28
Hierarchy status in the organization (*N* = 1555)			
Non-supervisor		802	64
mid-level supervisor		356	28
upper-level supervisor		97	8

The demographics of this sample are not to dissimilar to national percentages of officers in policing. Among the participants, the sample was overwhelmingly White, non-Hispanic, and male. The sample was predominately male (*n* = 1120; 89%). The majority of officers were White (*n* = 1125; 91%) compared to African Americans (*n* = 54; 4%), Asian/Pacific Islander (*n* = 10; 1%), and other racial self-identifications (*n* = 47; 4%). In regard to ethnicity, the sample was also predominantly non-Hispanic (*n* = 872; 70%) compared to Hispanic (366; 33%) (see Table 4).

Table 4. Gender, Race, and Ethnicity Demographics of Sample

	n	*%*
Gender (*N* = 12580		
Male	1120	89
Female	138	11
Race (*N* = 1236)		
White	1125	91
African American	54	4
Asian/Pacific Islander	10	1
Other	47	4
Ethnicity (*N* = 1238)		
Non-Hispanic	872	70
Hispanic	366	30

Although this is a non-probability sample (i.e., convenience), it is still important to compare the sample to the population. Unfortunately, the police officer association from which the sample was drawn only kept a limited data of members. However, since the organization represents over a fourth (20,000) of the sworn law enforcement in the state that the sample was drawn from, comparing the sample to sworn officers in the state will provide some understanding of how the sample is reflective of the general population of officers in the state. State demographic data were collected from the state's law enforcement licensing commission.

Overall, the sample demographics are very consistent with law enforcement in the state. According to the state's law enforcement licensing, the majority of currently post-certified officers are male (66,860, 89%), White (66,488, 8%), and non-Hispanic (56,804, 75%), as last reported (see Table 5). Respondents were also asked work experience, if they had ever received disciplinary actions, and if their department utilized a disciplinary matrix. Over 60% of the officers reported having received disciplinary actions in the past and over half of the officers (54%) reported that their departments did not utilize a disciplinary matrix.

Table 5. Comparison Between Sample and Sworn Police Officers of a Southern State		
	% State Sworn	% Sample
Gender		
Male	89	89
Female	11	11
Race		
White	89	91
Non-White	11	9
Ethnicity		
Non-Hispanic	75	70
Hispanic	25	30

Descriptive Statistics of Predictor and Response Variables

The self-reported survey consisted of 75 questions designed to measure constructs pertinent to this study. Questions #1 through #67 related to items designed to reflect theoretical concepts relevant to this study and the remaining questions pertained to officer

and department characteristics, as previously described in the Chapter III. These items were used to develop and test the measurement model to be used in analysis (see Table 6).

Table 6. Assignment of Survey Questions to Latent Factors		
	Predictor	Response
Overall Fairness	Questions 1-8	
Organizational Trust	Questions 9-15	
Perceived Org. Support	Questions 16-26	
General Task		Questions 27-30
Patrol Task		Questions 31-34
Org. Citizenship Behaviors		Questions 35-50
Production Deviance Behaviors		Questions 51-55
Self-Protective Behaviors		Questions 56-61
Defiant Org. Behaviors		Questions 62-67

Overall Fairness

Questions #1 through #8 measured perceived overall fairness within the organization. These question items were used to measure varying dimensions of perceived fairness of both the officers' experiences and coworkers within the organization, relating to disciplinary actions, promotions, treatment, and evaluations. For each of the eight phrases, officers rated their level of agreement on a six-point Likert scale with the following options: strongly disagree, disagree, somewhat disagree, somewhat agree, agree, or strongly agree (scored as 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, respectively). Higher scores denoted increased perceptions of organizational fairness. In addition, an N/A option was provided in case the officer did not have any experience with the organization

regarding that specific reference. A summary of overall fairness descriptive statistics is

provided in Table 7.

Table 7. Descriptive Statistics of Overall Fairness						
Question	Variable	*n*	*M*	*SD*	Skew	Kurt
My performance evaluations have been fair.	fair1	1404	4.33	1.35	-0.68	-0.32
My disciplinary actions have been fair.	fair2	1333	3.95	1.60	-0.45	-0.98
Opportunities to advance my career have been fair.	fair3	1425	3.9	1.54	-0.39	-0.97
Overall, I have been treated fairly at this department.	fair4	1433	4.20	1.52	-0.59	-0.71
(R) Most officers who complain about fairness in this department have valid reasons.	fair5r	1424	3.94	1.46	-0.24	-0.96
Disciplinary actions at this department are fair overall.	fair6	1428	3.48	1.62	-0.09	-1.24
(R) It matters who you are than what you do, when it comes to promotions and job.	fair7r	1426	4.11	1.59	-0.37	-1.09
Response categories 1= Strongly Disagree 2= Disagree 3=Somewhat Disagree 4= Somewhat Agree 5= Agree 6= Strongly Agree N/A = Not Applicable						

Fair1. When officers reported their perceptions of fairness regarding performance

evaluations, 75% of the officers somewhat or strongly agreed that they perceived their

organization's performance evaluations were fair. The mean for this variable was 4.3,

with a standard deviation of 1.3. The largest percentage of officers strongly agreed

(34%), and the smallest percentage reported that they strongly disagreed (3%) that their

performance evaluations were fair.

Fair2. When officers conveyed their attitudes regarding the fairness of departmental disciplinary actions, 64% somewhat or strongly agreed that their disciplinary actions were fair. Conversely, almost one-third of the sample felt that disciplinary actions were unfair to some extent. The mean for this variable was 3.9, with a standard deviation of 1.6. The largest percentage of officers strongly agreed (29%), and the smallest percentage strongly disagreed (approximately 11%) that their disciplinary actions were fair.

Fair3. When officers were asked their perceptions of fairness concerning advancement opportunities, 63% of the officers somewhat or strongly agreed that they perceived their organization's advancement opportunities were fair. The mean for this variable was 3.9, with a standard deviation of 1.6. The largest percentage of officers strongly agreed (28%), and the smallest percentage reported that they strongly disagreed (9%) that their advancement opportunities were fair. Thus, 1 in 10 officers reported perceiving their advancement opportunities as being extremely unfair.

Fair4. About 70% of the officers somewhat or strongly agreed that they were treated fairly overall within the organization. The mean for this variable was 4.2, with a standard deviation of 1.5. The largest percentage (29%) of officers strongly agreed, and the smallest percentage reported that they strongly disagreed (approximately 7%) that they were treated fair overall.

Fair5r. When officers reported their perceptions about the validity of other officers' fairness complaints, only 38% of the officers somewhat or strongly disagreed that other officers' fairness complaints were valid. Conversely, almost two-thirds of officers felt other officers' complaints were valid. The mean for this variable was 3.9,

with a standard deviation of 1.4. The largest percentage of officers strongly agreed (23%), and the smallest percentage (approximately 5%) strongly disagreed that complaints about fairness from other officers were valid. This suggests that the majority of officers felt that officers overall had valid complaints about departments being unfair.

Fair6. Slightly more than half of the officers somewhat or strongly agreed that disciplinary actions at their department were fair overall (52%). The mean for this variable was 3.4, with a standard deviation of 1.6. The largest percentage of officers strongly agreed (23%), and the smallest percentage reported that they strongly disagreed (approximately 15%) that disciplinary actions overall were fair. Comparing overall views of discipline to personal experiences, the results suggest that officers perceived themselves treated more fairly in disciplinary actions than their coworkers overall.

Fair7r. When officers were asked if it matters more who you are than what you do when it comes to promotions and job assignments, 65% of the officers somewhat or strongly agreed. The mean for this variable was 4.1, with a standard deviation of 1.6. The largest percentage of officers somewhat agreed (17%), and the smallest percentage reported that they strongly disagreed (approximately 6%) that it mattered more who you were than your performance when it came to promotions and job assignments. In other words, more than two-thirds of officers perceived favoritism within the organization.

Fair8. When officers reported their perceptions of the fairness of officers' evaluations overall in the department, 63% of the officers somewhat or strongly agreed. The mean for this variable was 4.1, with a standard deviation of 1.5. The findings indicate that fewer officers perceived the organizational evaluation process as a whole,

less fair than their own evaluations. However, a large percentage of officers are evaluating the process for everyone overall.

Organizational Trust

Questions #9 through #15 measured perceived trust in the organization, which represents the officers' belief that they feel comfortable that the organization would not take advantage of them, willingness to let them be vulnerable in regard to organizational practices and decisions. For each of the seven phrases, officers rated their level of agreement on a six-point Likert scale with the following options: strongly disagree, disagree, somewhat disagree, somewhat agree, agree, or strongly agree (scored as 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, respectively). Higher scores denoted increased perceptions of trust in the organization and willingness to be vulnerable. A summary of organizational trust descriptive statistics is provided in Table 8.

Trust1. When officers were asked if the police department keeps their interests in mind when making decisions, less than half (approximately 46%) of the officers somewhat or strongly agreed that they perceived their organization kept their best interests in mind. The mean for this variable was 3.14, with a standard deviation of 1.48. The largest percentage of officers disagreed (22%), and the smallest percentage reported that they strongly agreed (5%).

Trust2. When officers conveyed their attitudes toward allowing leadership to have complete control over the officers' futures in the department, only 31% of the officers somewhat or strongly agreed that they would be willing to give complete control of their future in the department over to leadership. Nearly two-thirds (66%) did not trust leadership with their future in the department. The mean for this variable was 2.83, with a

standard deviation of 1.48. The largest percentage of officers disagreed (25%), and the

smallest percentage strongly agreed (5%).

Table 8. Descriptive Statistics of Organizational Trust						
Question	**Variable**	***n***	***M***	***SD***	**Skew**	**Kurt**
The department keeps my interests in mind when making decisions.	trust1	1371	3.14	1.48	0.17	-1.02
I would be willing to let my leadership have complete control over my future in this department	trust2	1368	2.83	1.53	0.47	-0.89
If my leadership asked why a problem occurred, I would speak freely even if I were partly to blame.	trust3	1371	4.32	1.39	-0.74	-0.34
I feel comfortable being creative because my leadership understands that sometimes	trust4	1364	3.50	1.37	-0.12	-0.82
It is important for me to have a good way to keep an eye on my leadership.	trust5r	1365	3.94	1.33	-0.25	-0.84
Increasing my vulnerability to criticism by my leadership would be a mistake.	trust6r	1361	3.73	1.38	-0.05	-0.9
If I had my way, I wouldn't let my leadership have any influence over decisions that are important to me	trust7r	1367	3.56	1.46	0.08	-0.99
Response categories 1= Strongly Disagree 2= Disagree 3=Somewhat Disagree, 4= Somewhat Agree 5= Agree 6= Strongly Agree						

Trust3. When officers were asked their perceptions of trust concerning speaking freely to administration about problems when asked, 79% of the officers somewhat or strongly agreed that they had trust that they could speak freely when asked. The mean for this variable was 4.3, with a standard deviation of 1.39. The largest percentage of officers agreed (38%), and the smallest percentage reported that they strongly disagreed (4%) with this item.

Trust4. Slightly more than half of officers somewhat or strongly agreed (53%) that they felt comfortable being creative because their leadership understands that sometimes creative solutions do not work. The mean for this variable was 3.50, with a standard deviation of 1.37. The largest percentage of officers somewhat agreed (27%), and the smallest percentage reported that they strongly agreed (6%) feeling comfortable about trying new approaches to solve problems in the workplace.

Trust5r. When officers reported their perceptions about the need and importance of keeping an eye on leadership, only of the officers somewhat or strongly disagreed (35%) that other officers' fairness complaints were valid. Conversely, almost two-thirds (65%) of officers felt that the department leadership could not be trusted and officers needed to watch leadership activities. The mean for this variable was 3.94, with a standard deviation of 1.33. The largest percentage of officers agreed (27%), and the smallest percentage strongly disagreed (3%) that the leadership needed to be watched.

Trust6r. More than half of the officers somewhat or strongly agreed (54%) that increasing their vulnerability to criticism by the administration would be a mistake. The mean for this variable was 3.73, with a standard deviation of 1.38. The largest percentage

of officers somewhat disagreed (24%), and the smallest percentage reported that they strongly agreed (5%) that it would be a mistake.

Trust7r. When officers were asked if they would not trust the department to have influence over important decisions that concerned them, about half of the officers reported somewhat or strongly agreed (49%). The mean for this variable was 3.56, with a standard deviation of 1.46. The largest percentage of officers somewhat agreed (24%), and the smallest percentage reported that strongly disagreed (approximately 7%). In other words, 7% would be comfortable allowing the department to have influence over important personal decisions.

Perceived Organizational Support

Questions #16 through #26 were used to measure the extent that officers felt valued and supported by the organization. For each of the 11 phrases, officers rated their level of agreement on a six-point Likert scale with the following options: strongly disagree, disagree, somewhat disagree, somewhat agree, agree, or strongly agree (scored as 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, respectively). Higher scores denoted increased perceptions of support from the organization. A summary of perceived organizational support descriptive statistics is provided in Table 9.

Pos1. When officers reported their perceptions regarding whether the police department valued their personal contributions to the department's well-being, approximately 44% of the officers somewhat or strongly agreed. The mean for this variable was 3.63, with a standard deviation of 1.46. The largest percentage of officers agreed (27%), and the smallest percentage reported that they strongly agreed (approximately 7%) that their contributions to the organization were valued.

Table 9. Descriptive Statistics of Perceived Organizational Support

Question	Variable	n	M	SD	Skew	Kurt
The organization values my contribution to its well-being.	pos1	1370	3.63	1.41	-0.25	-0.85
(R) If the organization could hire someone to replace me at a lower salary it would do so.	pos2r	1362	3.44	1.60	0.12	-1.19
The organization strongly considers my goals and values.	pos3	1369	3.23	1.43	0.06	-1.00
(R) The organization would ignore a complaint from me.	pos4r	1367	3.27	1.48	0.26	-0.94
The organization really cares about my well-being.	pos5	1370	3.41	1.48	-0.06	-1.04
(R) Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice.	pos6r	1370	3.59	1.50	-0.05	-1.03
The organization would grant a reasonable request for a change in my working conditions.	pos7	1370	3.51	1.39	-0.16	-0.90
The organization is willing to help me when I need a special favor.	pos8	1369	3.69	1.40	-0.29	-0.76
(R) If given the opportunity, the organization would take advantage of me.	pos9r	1368	3.72	1.57	-0.13	-1.13
(R) The organization shows very little concern for me.	pos10r	1368	3.31	1.53	0.18	-1.06
The organization takes pride in my work accomplishments at work.	pos11	1367	3.62	1.42	-0.22	-0.89

<u>**Response categories**</u>
1= Strongly Disagree
2= Disagree
3= Somewhat Disagree,
4= Somewhat Agree
5= Agree
6= Strongly Agree

Pos2r. More than half (53%) of the officers somewhat or strongly disagreed that if the organization could hire someone to replace them at a lower salary, the organization would. The mean for this variable was 3.44, with a standard deviation of 1.60. The largest percentage disagreed (23%), and the smallest percentage (approximately 12%) reported that they strongly disagreed. In other words, more than half of the officers did not view themselves as being replaceable to the organization (a measure of departmental support).

Pos3. When officers were asked if the organization strongly considers the officers' goals and values, less than half of the officers, somewhat or strongly agreed (45%). The mean for this variable was 3.23, with a standard deviation of 1.43. The largest percentage of officers somewhat agreed (23%), and the smallest percentage reported that they strongly agreed (approximately 5%) that the department considered their goals and values.

Pos4r. When officers were asked if they felt the department would ignore a complaint from them, less than half of the officers somewhat or strongly disagreed (44%). The mean for this variable was 3.27, with a standard deviation of 1.48. The largest percentage of officers disagreed (26%), and the smallest percentage strongly agreed (approximately 5%). This means that more than half of the officers (56%) felt the department would ignore a complaint from them.

Pos5. Fifty-one percent of the officers reported that they somewhat or strongly agreed that the department cared about their well-being. The mean for this variable was 3.41, with a standard deviation of 1.48. The largest percentage of officers somewhat agreed (25%), and the smallest percentage strongly agreed (5%). This finding suggests

about half (49%) of the officers perceived that their organization was supportive in terms of demonstrating that the organization cares about the officers.

Pos6r. When officers were asked if the organization would fail to notice an officer's performance even if he/she did the best job possible, approximately 47% of officers somewhat or strongly disagreed. This finding suggests that over half of the officers (53%) felt that police departments fail to recognize effort. The mean for this variable was 3.59, with a standard deviation of 1.50. The largest percentage of officers somewhat agreed (25%), and the smallest percentage strongly agreed (5%).

Pos7. When officers were asked their perceptions of perceived organizational support concerning their organization's willingness to grant reasonable work requests, 54% of the officers reported that they somewhat or strongly agreed. The mean for this variable was 3.51, with a standard deviation of 1.39. The largest percentage of officers somewhat agreed (27%), and the smallest percentage strongly agreed (6%) that they perceived the department was willing to grant reasonable work requests.

Pos8. When officers reported their perceptions that the police department would be willing to assist, more than half of the officers reported they agreed somewhat to strongly agreed (60%). The mean for this variable was 3.69, with a standard deviation of 1.40. The largest percentage of officers somewhat agreed (30%), and the smallest percentage strongly disagreed (8%) that the department would grant reasonable work requests.

Pos9r. Forty-three percent of the officers somewhat disagreed or strongly disagreed that the organization would take advantage of them if given an opportunity. Thus, more than half of the officers felt that the organization would take advantage of

them (57%). The mean for this variable was 3.72, with a standard deviation of 1.57. The largest percentage was tied between agreed and strongly agreed (20%), and the smallest percentage strongly disagreed (9%) about the intentions of the organizations to take advantage of officers.

Pos10r. When officers were asked if the department showed very little concern for officers, 64% of the officers somewhat or strongly disagreed. In other words, almost two-thirds of officers felt that their department was concerned about them. The mean for this variable was 3.31, with a standard deviation of 1.53. The largest percentage of officers disagreed (24%), and the smallest percentage strongly agreed (10%).

Pos11. When officers were asked if they agreed that the organization took pride in the officers' work accomplishments, 58% somewhat or strongly agreed. The mean for this variable was 3.62, with a standard deviation of 1.42. The largest percentage (27%) of officers somewhat agreed, and the smallest percentage reported that they strongly agreed (8%) that the organization took pride in their accomplishments at work.

General Task Performance

Questions #27 through #30 measured self-reported general task performance. For each statement, the officer indicated the extent that he/she engaged in the following actions on a frequency scale ranging from (1) never to (6) most of the time. Higher scores were reflective of the officers reporting engaging in general tasks expected to tasks relating to the work place. A summary of general task performance is provided in Table 10.

Table 10. Descriptive Statistics of General Task Performance						
Question	**Variable**	***n***	***M***	***SD***	**Skew**	**Kurt**
Fulfill the responsibilities specified for someone in your position.	gtask1	**1265**	**5.34**	**0.78**	**-1.52**	**3.91**
Perform tasks usually expected by your work organization as part of your job.	gtask2	1265	5.27	0.80	-1.19	2.22
Complete your work in a timely, effective manner.	gtask3	1267	5.26	0.78	-1.08	1.87
Meet the performance expectations of your supervisor.	gtask4	1270	5.18	0.87	-1.18	1.94

*Bolded items indicate skewed distributions.

<u>**Response categories**</u>
1= Never
2= Very Rarely
3= Seldom
4= Sometimes
5= Often
6= Most of the time

Gtask1. Nearly all of the officers reported that they fulfilled the responsibilities for someone in their position. The results showed 48% reported fulfilling their responsibilities most of the time, often (40%), sometimes (9%), and the remaining reported seldom to never. The mean for this variable was 5.34, with a standard deviation of 0.78.

Gtask2. Almost all the officers reported they performed tasks usually expected by their work organization as part of their job with high frequency. The results showed 45% engaged in expected tasks most of the time, often (41%), sometimes (13%), and the remaining reported seldom to never. The mean for this variable was 5.27, with a standard deviation of 0.80.

Gtask3. Approximately, 98% reported they completed their work in a timely and effective manner. The results showed that 43% completed their work in a timely and effective manner most of the time, often (40%), and the remaining reported sometimes, seldom, or never. The mean for this variable was 5.26, with a standard deviation of 0.78.

Gtask4. When asked if the officers met the work expectations of their supervisors, 96 % reported they met supervisor expectations. The results showed that 41% met supervisor expectations most of the time, often (40%), reported sometimes (15%), and the remaining reported seldom to never. The mean for this variable was 5.18, with a standard deviation of 0.87.

Patrol-Related Task Performance

Questions #27 through #30 measured self-reported general task performance. For each statement, the officer indicated the extent that he/she engaged in the following actions on a frequency scale ranging from (1) never to (6) most of the time. Higher scores were reflective of the officers reporting engaging in police-related tasks more frequently. A summary of patrol task performance descriptive statistics is provided at the end of the chapter in Table 11.

Ptask1. Many of the officers (84%) reported that they stayed busier than fellow officers. The results showed that 23% stayed busier at work more than other officers most of the time, often (33%), sometimes (27%), and the remaining reported seldom to never. The mean for this variable was 4.56, with a standard deviation of 1.14.

Ptask2. When officers were asked about proactive enforcement, the majority of officers (79%) reported engaging in more proactive law enforcement activities than fellow officers. The results showed that 22% are more proactive at work than other

officers most of the time, often (29%), sometimes (28%), and the remaining reported

seldom to never. The mean for this variable was 4.37, with a standard deviation of 1.32.

Table 11. Descriptive Statistics of Police Task Performance						
Question	**Variable**	***n***	***M***	***SD***	**Skew**	**Kurt**
I stay busier than other officers I work with.	ptask1	1270	4.56	1.14	-0.6	-0.08
I am more proactive in crime fighting than other officers I work with.	ptask2	1263	4.37	1.32	-0.71	0
I answer more dispatched calls than other officers I work than other officers I work with.	ptask3	1265	4.04	1.25	-0.39	-0.17
I try to assist citizens more than other officers.	ptask4	1261	4.27	1.21	-0.58	0.06
Response categories 1= Never 2= Very Rarely 3= Seldom 4= Sometimes 5= Often 6= Most of the time						

Ptask3. Seventy-one percent reported they answered more dispatched calls than

other officers. The results showed that 13% reported most of the time, often (23%),

sometimes (35%). However, almost one-third (29%) reported seldom to never. The mean

for this variable was 4.04, with a standard deviation of 1.25. The results indicated that

almost a third of the officers reported answering fewer calls than fellow officers.

Ptask4. When officers were asked the extent that they assisted citizens, 78%

reported they assisted citizens more than other officers. The results showed that 15%

reported assisting citizens more than other officers most of the time, often (30%),

sometimes (33%), and the remaining reported seldom to never. The mean for this

variable was 4.27, with a standard deviation of 1.21.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

Questions #35 through #50 measured police officers' self-reported engagement that benefited the organization that were normally not officially required by their position in the organization or expected, but benefited the departments as a whole. For each statement, the officer indicated the extent that he/she engaged in the following actions on a frequency scale ranging from (1) never to (6) most of the time. Higher scores were reflective of the officers reporting engaging more frequently in organizational citizenship behaviors. A summary of organizational citizenship behaviors descriptive statistics is provided in Table 12.

Ocb1. When officers were asked the extent that the officers went out of their way to assist citizens in distress even when not required to by policy, 40% reported assisting most of the time, often (39%), sometimes (15%), and the remaining officers reported seldom to never. The mean for this variable was 5.09, with a standard deviation of 1.00. The results suggest that most (94%) of the officers reported going out of their way to assist citizens in distress at least some of the time.

Ocb2. When officers were asked the extent that they assisted less experienced officers when they had questions, 58% reported assisting less experienced officers, often (32%), sometimes (6%), and the remaining officers reported seldom to never. The mean for this variable was 5.41, with a standard deviation of 0.92. The results suggest that most (96%) of the officers reported assisting less experienced officers at least some of the time.

Table 12. Descriptive Statistics of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

Question	Variable	n	M	SD	Skew	Kurt
I go out of my way to assist citizens in distress even when not required by policy.	ocb1	1264	5.09	1.00	-1.43	2.62
I assist less experienced officers when they have questions.	**ocb2**	**1263**	**5.41**	**0.92**	**-2.43**	**7.77**
I try to cheer up other officers when they seem down.	ocb3	1266	4.89	1.07	-1.06	1.19
I try to stay motivated doing police work.	ocb4	1265	5.11	0.98	-1.42	2.64
(R) I get frustrated when I have to stay past my normal shift	ocb5r	1269	2.84	1.47	0.46	-0.76
I try to set a good example for other officers on the department.	**ocb6**	**1266**	**5.34**	**0.90**	**-1.88**	**4.60**
I follow organizational rules even when I disagree with them.	**ocb7**	**1266**	**5.18**	**0.98**	**-1.61**	**3.29**
(R) I make negative comments about my department to others.	ocb8r	1266	2.64	1.42	0.54	-0.76
I often recommend to others that they should apply to my department.	ocb9	1266	3.66	1.72	-0.27	-1.25
I try to find out what happened prior in my sector/precinct before my shift starts.	ocb10	1263	5.04	1.19	-1.55	2.29
I volunteer to take pending calls, even when I don't have to.	ocb11	1255	4.84	1.13	-1.28	1.82
I try to be proactive in my enforcement activities when I have an opportunity.	**ocb12**	**1268**	**5.13**	**1.00**	**-1.57**	**3.13**
I attend departmental sponsored functions even when off duty.	ocb13	1264	3.39	1.70	0	-1.33
I stay abreast of organizational changes in the department.	ocb14	1266	5.05	1.07	-1.30	1.68
I try to attend as much training as possible, even if I have to pay for it myself.	ocb15	1267	4.38	1.52	-0.80	-0.36
I try to find ways to improve my skills and abilities an officer.	ocb16	1268	5.24	0.89	-1.47	3.14

*Bolded items indicate skewed distributions.

Response categories

1= Never	4= Sometimes
2= Very Rarely	5= Often
3= Seldom	6= Most of the Time

Ocb3. When officers were asked the extent that they tried to cheer up other officers when they seem down, 33% reported trying to cheer up other officers most of the time, often (37%), sometimes (21%), and the remaining officers reported seldom to never. The mean for this variable was 5.41, with a standard deviation of 0.92. The results suggest that a large majority (81%) of the officers reported trying to cheer up other officers when they seem down at least some of the time.

Ocb4. When officers were asked the extent that they tried to stay motivated at work, 40% stated most of the time, often (39%), sometimes (17%), and the remaining officers reported seldom to never. The mean for this variable was 5.11, with a standard deviation of 0.91. The results suggested that most (96%) of the officers reported trying to stay motivated at work at least some of the time.

Ocb5r. When officers were asked the extent that get frustrated when they have to stay past their shift, 21% stated never, very rarely (27%), and seldom (17%). However, 35% stated sometimes to most of the time they got frustrated. In other words, one-third of the officers expressed frustration with having to work past their shift, respectively. The mean for this variable was 2.84, with a standard deviation of 1.47.

Ocb6. When officers were asked the extent that they tried to set a good example for other officers in the department, 53% stated most of the time, often (35%), sometimes (8%), and the remaining officers reported seldom to never. The mean for this variable was 5.34, with a standard deviation of 0.90. The results suggested that most (96%) of the officers reported trying to set a good example for other officers at least some of the time.

Ocb7. The results suggest that most (94%) of the officers reported complying with organizational rules even when they didn't agree at least some of the time. A little

113

less than half (48%) of the officers followed rules most of the time, often (36%), sometimes (13%), and the remaining officers reported seldom to never. The mean for this variable was 5.18, with a standard deviation of 0.98.

Ocb8r. When officers were asked the extent that they made negative comments about the organization, less than one-third of the officers reported making negative comments more than seldom. Results showed that 26% of the officers stated they never, very rarely (30%), seldom (14%), made negative comments about the organization. However, approximately 30 % made negative comments sometimes to most of the time. The mean for this variable was 2.64, with a standard deviation of 1.42.

Ocb9. When officers were asked the extent that they recommended to others that they should apply to their department, more than half of the officers (59%) stated they recommended the department to others at least sometimes. Results showed that 16 % of the officers recommended the department to others most of the time, often (23%), and sometimes (20%). However, 41% reported they seldom or never recommended the department to others. The mean for this variable was 3.66, with a standard deviation of 1.72.

Ocb10. When officers were asked the extent that they tried to find out what happened in their sector or precinct before their shift started, 45% reported this example of individual initiative most of the time, often (32%), sometimes (13%), and the remaining officers reported seldom to never. The mean for this variable was 5.04, with a standard deviation of 1.19. The results suggest that most (90%) of the officers reported showing this type of self-initiative often or most of the time.

Ocb11. When officers were asked the extent that they volunteered to take pending calls, most officers (91%) reported that they did so even when they did not have too, sometimes to most of the time. Results showed that 31 % reported taking pending calls most of the time, often (40%), sometimes (20%), and the remaining officers reported seldom to never. The mean for this variable was 4.84, with a standard deviation of 1.13. Thus, results indicated that most officers reported being proactive in regard to answering pending dispatch calls for service.

Ocb12. When officers were asked the extent that they engaged in proactive law enforcement activities when they had an opportunity, 94% reported that they sometimes to most of the time engaged in proactive law enforcement activities. Results showed 42% reported most of the time, often (39%), sometimes (13%), and the remaining officers reported seldom to never. The mean for this variable was 5.13, with a standard deviation of 1.00.

Ocb13. When officers were asked the extent they attended departmentally sponsored functions, even when off duty, results showed that 12 % reported most of the time, often (20%), sometimes (19%), and the remaining (49%) of officers reported seldom to never. Thus, slightly less than half of the officers demonstrated a lack of citizenship toward the organization, in the form of not attending organizational functions while off duty. The mean for this variable was 3.39, with a standard deviation of 1.70.

Ocb14. When officers were asked the extent to which they stayed abreast of organizational changes, results showed that 42% reported most of the time, often (34%), sometimes (15%), and the remaining officers reported seldom to never. The mean for this variable was 5.05, with a standard deviation of 1.07. This shows that most officers (91%)

115

stayed aware and were informed of organizational changes within their police departments.

Ocb15. When officers were asked about their training attendance, approximately three-fourths (76%) of the officers reported they tried to attend additional training even when they had to pay for it. Results showed that 28% reported attended additional training s most of the time, often (28%), sometimes (20%), and the remaining officers reported seldom to never. The mean for this variable was 4.38, with a standard deviation of 1.52. Thus, many officers reported trying to attend additional training.

Ocb16. Nearly all (96%) of the officers reported that they tried to find ways to improve their skills and abilities at least some of the time. Results showed that 46% reported trying to improve themselves most of the time, often (37%), sometimes (13%), and the remaining officers reported seldom to never. The mean for this variable was 5.24, with a standard deviation of 0.89.

Production Deviance

Questions #51 through #55 measure the frequency that police officers report that they engage in activities that intentionally hinder or reduce their work performance. For each statement, officers indicated the extent they engage in the following activities on a sliding scale from (1) never to (6) most of the time. Higher scores are reflective of officer engaging in actions that reduce production more frequently. A summary of production deviance is provided in Table 13.

Pd1. When officers reported the extent that they met up with coworkers to talk instead of engaging in work-related activities, 59% reported that they seldom to never engaged in this activity. The results showed 28% talked with officers in lieu of engaging

in work related activities sometimes, (11%) often, and (2%) most of the time,

respectively. The mean for this variable was 3.13, with a standard deviation of 1.27.

Table 13. Descriptive Statistics of Production Deviance						
Question	Variable	*n*	*M*	*SD*	Skew	Kurt
Meet up with coworkers to talk instead of engaging in work-related activities.	pd1	1266	3.13	1.27	0.08	-0.73
Do the bare minimal that is expected.	pd2	1264	1.84	1.17	1.74	2.68
Sleep or take cat naps during your shift.	**pd3**	**1266**	**1.43**	**0.97**	**2.74**	**7.54**
Engage in non-job related activities while on duty (reading, watching movies).	pd4	1268	2.37	1.41	1.08	0.30
Take longer on calls to avoid other work	pd5	1260	1.60	0.98	2.28	6.08

*Bolded items indicate skewed distributions.

Response categories

1= Never	4= Sometimes
2= Very Rarely	5= Often
3= Seldom	6= Most of the time

Pd2. When the officers were asked how often they performed the expected bare

minimum at work, approximately half of the officers reported never (51%), very rarely

(32%), seldom (6%), sometimes (6%), often (3%), most of the time (2%). The mean for

this variable was 1.84, with a standard deviation of 1.17. The results show that most

officers (89%) reported that they seldom to never engaged in performing their duties with

minimal effort. In other words, most officers performed their duties beyond what is just

required or expected.

Pd3. When the officers were asked how frequently they took catnaps during their

shift, approximately 78% reported never sleeping on duty, (14%) very rarely, (3%)

seldom, (3%) sometimes, (1%) often, and (1%) most of the time. The mean for this

variable was 2.37, with a standard deviation of 1.43. Results supported that most officers

reported not sleeping while on duty, although 22% reported engaging in this behaviors, at least to some extent.

Pd4. In regard to engaging in non-job related activities while on duty, 31% reported never, (38%) very rarely, (9%) seldom, (12%) sometimes, (5%) often, and (5%) reported most of the time engaging in non-work related activities (e.g., reading books, watching movies). The mean for this variable was 2.37, with a standard deviation of 1.41. Results indicated that more than half of the officers reported never to seldom engaging in non-work related activities while on duty.

Pd5. When officers reported the extent they took longer on calls to avoid other pending work, 61% reported never, (28%) very rarely, (6%) seldom, and (5%) sometimes to most of the time taking longer on calls. The mean for this variable was 1.6, with a standard deviation of 0.98.

Self-Protective Behavior

Questions #56 through #60 measured the frequency that police officers reported engaging in behaviors meant to protect the officer from perceived job-related threats. For each statement, officers indicated the extent they engaged in the following activities on a sliding scale from (1) never to (6) most of the time. Higher scores were reflective of officers engaging in self-preservation related activities more frequently. A summary of self-protective behaviors descriptive statistics is provided at the end of the chapter in Table 14.

Spb1. When officers reported the extent that they tried to stay off the department's radar (i.e., lay-low), 47% reported that they seldom to never engaged in this activity. The results showed that many officers did try to avoid bringing attention to

themselves in this way. The results showed 18% of the officers reported most of the time, (18%) often, (18%) sometimes, (10% seldom), (19%) very rarely, and (17%) never trying to lay-low. The mean for this variable was 3.56, with a standard deviation of 1.76. The results supported that more than half of the officers reported trying to protect themselves from the administration by attempting to lay-low and stay off the department's radar.

Table 14. Descriptive Statistics of Self-Protective Behaviors						
Question	Variable	*n*	*M*	SD	Skew	Kurt
I try to "Lay-low" and stay off the department's radar.	spb1	1268	3.56	1.76	-0.06	-1.37
(R) I look after the welfare of others before myself.	spb2r	1268	4.87	1.07	-1.03	1.08
I take extra precautions daily to protect myself from allegations.	spb3	1267	4.75	1.39	-1.12	0.47
(R) I try to act in the best interest of the department when I make decisions.	**spb4r**	**1257**	**5.19**	**1.09**	**-1.85**	**3.82**
In regard to my administration, I try to watch my back.	spb5	1267	4.23	1.72	-0.57	-1.03
*Bolded items indicate skewed distributions.						

Response categories

1= Never
2= Very Rarely
3= Seldom

4= Sometimes
5= Often
6= Most of the time

Spb2r. When the officers were asked how often they looked after the welfare of other officers before themselves, approximately 1% reported never, 3% very rarely, 6% seldom, 22% sometimes, 37% often, and 32% most of the time. The mean for this variable was 4.87, with a standard deviation of 1.07. The results showed that most officers (90%) reported placing other officers' wellbeing first, some or most of the time.

Spb3. When the officers were asked how frequently they took extra precautions to protect themselves from potential allegations, 4% reported never, 6% very rarely, 7%

seldom, 16% sometimes, 28% often, and 39% most of the time. The mean for this variable was 4.75, with a standard deviation of 1.39. Results supported that most officers reported taking precautions, with only 15% reporting seldom to never taking extra precautions to reduce potential work-related allegations.

Spb4r. In regard to making decisions based on the best interests of the department versus themselves, 2% of officers reported never, 2% very rarely, 3% seldom, 11% sometimes, 33% often, and 49% reported most of the time. The mean for this variable was 5.19, with a standard deviation of 4.23.

Spb5. When officers reported the extent that they tried to watch their back, in regard to the organization, 10% reported never, 13% very rarely, 10% seldom, and 14% sometimes, 20% often, and 33% most of the time. The mean for this variable was 4.23, with a standard deviation of 1.72. Results indicated that many officers reported watching their backs sometimes to most of the time (67%) in regard to the organization.

Defiance

Questions #61 through #66 measured the frequency that officers retaliated against the organization through deliberates that undermined, hindered, or belittled the organization or its leadership. Officers self-reported the extent that he/she engaged in the following actions on a scale from (1) never to (6) most of the time. Higher scores were reflective of officers engaging in defiant activities more frequently. A summary of organizational defiance descriptive statistics is provided in Table 15.

Def1. When the officers were asked how frequently they used departmental policies and procedures against the organization, 31% reported never, 25% very rarely, 11% seldom, 15% sometimes, 9% often, and 7% most of the time. The mean for this

variable was 2.68, with a standard deviation of 1.61. Results supported that while many

officers (67%) did not use departmental policies against the organization, approximately

one-third of officers did.

Table 15. Descriptive Statistics of Organizational Defiance						
Question	**Variable**	***n***	***M***	***SD***	**Skew**	**Kurt**
I use Departmental rules, policies, or laws against the administration when needed.	def1	1264	2.68	1.61	0.62	-0.84
I purposely try undermining the administration's goals when opportunity arises.	**def2**	**1265**	**1.41**	**0.92**	**2.99**	**9.70**
I purposely disregard organizational policies or procedures when opportunity arises.	**def3**	**1268**	**1.47**	**0.90**	**2.75**	**8.77**
Attempt to make leadership look incompetent or foolish in front of others when opportunity arises.	**def4**	**1268**	**1.59**	**1.10**	**2.17**	**4.29**
I purposely try undermining leadership when opportunity arises.	**def5**	**1268**	**1.46**	**0.97**	**2.86**	**8.78**
Purposely disregard authority directives	**def6**	**1263**	**1.52**	**1.02**	**2.60**	**7.10**
*Bolded items indicate skewed distributions.						
Response categories						
1= Never		4= Sometimes				
2= Very Rarely		5= Often				
3= Seldom		6= Most of the time				

Def2. When the officers were asked how often they tried to undermine the

administration's goals when an opportunity arose, most officers (76%) reported never,

17% very rarely, 3% seldom, and the remaining 4% reported sometimes to most of the

time. The mean for this variable was 1.41, with a standard deviation of 0.92. The results

showed that most officers reported not trying to undermine their organizations.

Def3. When officers reported the extent that they purposely disregarded organizational policies and procedures when opportunities arose, 69% reported that they never engaged in this activity, 23% very rarely, 3% seldom, and the remaining 4% reported sometimes to most of the time. The results supported officers purposely disregarding organizational policies and procedures was an irregular event. The mean for this variable was 1.47, with a standard deviation of 0.90.

Def4. When officers reported the extent they attempted to make leadership look incompetent or foolish, 68% reported never, 18% very rarely, 5% seldom, and 9% sometimes to most of the time taking longer on calls. The mean for this variable was 1.59, with a standard deviation of 1.10. Results supported that most officers (91%) reported seldom or never attempting to make leadership appear incompetent. Thus, officers trying to make their leadership look foolish was a rare occurrence, although 9% of the officers reported engaging in this counterproductive behavior sometimes to most of the time.

Def5. When the officers were asked how frequently they tried to undermine leadership when the opportunity arose, 73% reported never, 19% very rarely, 9% seldom, 2% sometimes, 1% often, and 1% reported most of the time. The mean for this variable was 1.46, with a standard deviation of 0.97. Results supported that most officers (95%) seldom to never tried to undermine their leadership.

Def6. When the officers were asked how frequently they purposely disregarded authority directives, 69% of officers reported never, very rarely (22%), seldom (4%), sometimes (2%), often (2%), and most of the time (1%). The mean for this variable was 1.52, with a standard deviation of 1.02. Results indicated that most officers purposely

disregarded authority directives seldom to never (95%). In other words, most officers did not purposely disregard authority directives.

Prior to examining indicators in the measurement models, the following reversed coded variables were recoded: {fair5r, fair7r, trust5r, trust7r, pos2r, pos4r, pos6r, pos9r, pos10r, ocb5r, ocb8r, spb2r, and spb4r}. Descriptive statistics were conducted on each of the subscale questions to determine normality. Normality is important because it is one of the basic assumptions required in order to carry out structural equation modelling (SEM) analysis. To examine normality, skewness and kurtosis were examined using graphical frequency distribution and the skew index and kurtis index provided in descriptive statistics output in R and Stata. skewness refers to the extent that shape of the distribution is lopsided or lacks symmetry. For example, the data could be positively skewed meaning that the distribution has a longer right, which means you have more occurrences at the low end of the distribution. Kurtosis refers to the shape of the top of the curve. The lower scores would suggest a flatter bell curve and higher kurtosis would reflect a sharper peak.

Kurtosis is also a measure of the tail behavior of a probability distribution. The higher the kurtosis value, the heavier the tails of the distribution. A general rule of thumb for skewness and Kurtosis are skewness scores greater than 3 should be considered extremely skewed and kurtosis scores 8 and above are extremely kurtosis. A normal distribution has a kurtosis value of 3. As a result, most kurtosis comparisons subtract 3 from the formula, thus measuring excess kurtosis from normality9 (Kline, 2011). After examining the data, ocb2, pd3, def2, def3, def4, def5, and def6 did not fit into the normal distribution. Because of their skewness or kurtosis, they were all transformed via square-root transformations for the final model (Kline, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Table

16 presents results of the transformations. Although still somewhat non-normal, the differences from normality were drastically reduced. All of the kurtosis values were below the ±7.00 range given by Kline (2011). The skewness values for pd3.sq, def2.sq, def3.sq, and def5.sq were all outside the ±2.00 range for acceptable skewness given by Kline (2011). Although normality for the square-root transformed variables appeared to be violated, the amount of deviation was reduced. Stevens (2009) stated that non-normality only has a slight effect on the Type I error rate, even for very skewed distributions. Pallant (2010) also stated that with large sample sizes, non-normality is typically not problematic.

Measurement Models

Several confirmatory factor analyses were conducted on the data to test the fit of the measurement models to be used in the structural equation models. The models were constructed in R and then verified in Stata. R was used due to the ease in which models can be defined and modified. Stata was used to verify the results from R and compared the results to those of an alternative statistical program. Maximum likelihood was selected in R as the method for handling missing values to match the method used in Stata. This was done in order to assess how well each of the items loaded onto their respective constructs. The data were reduced to only those values with complete cases for all of the variables. The data were then split randomly so that 50% of the data were in a training dataset, while the other 50% were in a test dataset. A seed of 9999 was used in R to allow for reproducibility. The training dataset was used to build the model, and the testing dataset was used to test the model's fit. Descriptive statistics for the training and testing datasets were provided for each latent factor in the following tables: Table 16

(overall fairness), Table 17 (organizational trust), Table 18 (perceived organizational support), Table 19 (general task), Table 20 (police task), Table 21 (organizational citizenship behaviors), Table 22 (production deviance), Table 23 (self-protective behaviors), and Table 24 (organizational defiance).

Table 16. Descriptive Statistics of Transformed Data				
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*Skewness*	*Kurtosis*
ocb2.sq	1.22	0.31	1.57	2.90
pd3.sq	1.15	0.32	2.24	4.47
def2.sq	1.15	0.30	2.36	5.50
def3.sq	1.17	0.30	2.02	4.25
def4.sq	1.21	0.36	1.72	2.13
def5.sq	1.16	0.32	2.22	4.82
def6.sq	1.19	0.33	1.98	3.69

Table 17. Descriptive Statistics for Overall Fairness: Training and Testing Data						
	N=		*M*		*SD*	
Variable	**Train**	**Test**	**Train**	**Test**	**Train**	**Test**
fair1	704	700	4.31	4.36	1.36	1.34
fair2	665	668	3.93	3.97	1.58	1.63
fair3	711	714	3.91	3.90	1.49	1.59
fair4	715	718	4.17	4.23	1.50	1.55
fair5r	713	711	3.06	3.06	1.47	1.46
fair6	712	716	3.51	3.46	1.61	1.64
fair7r	711	715	2.95	2.84	1.60	1.59
fair8	706	700	3.78	3.82	1.40	1.40

Table 18. Descriptive Statistics for Organizational Trust: Training and Testing Data

Variable	N= Train	N= Test	M Train	M Test	SD Train	SD Test
trust1	687	684	3.11	3.17	1.46	1.51
trust2	686	682	2.85	2.8	1.54	1.52
trust3	687	684	4.34	4.30	1.36	1.41
trust4	684	680	3.47	3.53	1.36	1.37
trust5r	684	681	3.00	3.13	1.39	1.28
trust6r	684	677	3.19	3.35	1.40	1.36
trust7r	684	683	3.40	3.48	1.48	1.44

Table 19. Descriptive Statistics for Perceived Organizational Support: Training and Testing Data

Variable	N= Train	N= Test	M Train	M Test	SD Train	SD Test
pos2r	681	681	3.53	3.59	1.61	1.6
pos3	686	683	3.19	3.28	1.42	1.45
pos4r	685	682	3.71	3.75	1.48	1.48
pos5	686	684	3.37	3.44	1.46	1.50
pos6r	686	684	3.37	3.45	1.51	1.49
pos7	687	683	3.52	3.51	1.36	1.41
pos8	685	684	3.65	3.73	1.36	1.45
pos9r	686	682	3.24	3.31	1.59	1.56
pos10r	686	682	3.62	3.76	1.53	1.53
pos11	684	683	3.57	3.66	1.42	1.43

Table 20. Descriptive Statistics for General Task: Training and Testing Data

Variable	N= Train	N= Test	M Train	M Test	SD Train	SD Test
gtask1	632	633	5.32	5.36	0.77	0.80
gtask2	631	634	5.24	5.30	0.79	0.81
gtask3	632	635	5.23	5.28	0.79	0.77
gtask4	634	636	5.14	5.22	0.88	0.86

Table 21. Descriptive Statistics for Patrol Task: Training and Testing Data

Variable	N= Train	Test	M Train	Test	SD Train	Test
ptask1	634	636	4.54	4.57	1.16	1.12
ptask2	629	634	4.35	4.38	1.36	1.28
ptask3	631	634	4.03	4.04	1.25	1.25
ptask4	631	630	4.23	4.31	1.23	1.19

Table 22. Descriptive Statistics for Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Training and Testing Data

Variable	N= Train	Test	M Train	Test	SD Train	Test
ocb1	632	632	5.14	5.05	0.98	1.01
ocb2	629	634	5.42	5.40	0.97	0.87
ocb3	632	634	4.92	4.86	1.05	1.08
ocb4	632	633	5.14	5.09	0.98	0.98
ocb5r	633	636	2.84	2.84	1.49	1.45
ocb6	632	634	5.36	5.33	0.88	0.92
ocb7	632	634	5.16	5.21	0.99	0.98
ocb8r	632	634	2.71	2.58	1.44	1.38
ocb9	631	635	3.63	3.69	1.73	1.71
ocb10	630	633	5.06	5.03	1.20	1.18
ocb11	625	630	4.83	4.85	1.09	1.17
ocb12	632	636	5.10	5.16	1.03	0.98
ocb13	631	633	3.39	3.39	1.66	1.74
ocb14	632	634	5.02	5.09	1.10	1.05
ocb15	631	636	4.40	4.37	1.53	1.52
ocb16	634	634	5.24	5.24	0.92	0.87

Table 23. Descriptive Statistics for Production Deviance: Training and Testing Data

Variable	N= Train	Test	M Train	Test	SD Train	Test
pd1	633	633	3.14	3.11	1.31	1.23
pd2	631	633	1.84	1.84	1.16	1.19
pd3	631	635	1.44	1.42	0.96	0.97
pd4	633	635	2.40	2.34	1.43	1.40
pd5	628	632	1.60	1.60	0.97	0.99

Table 24. Descriptive Statistics for Self-Protective Behaviors: Training and Testing Data

Variable	N= Train	Test	M Train	Test	SD Train	Test
spb1	633	635	3.63	3.48	1.79	1.73
spb2r	633	635	4.86	4.89	1.09	1.05
spb3	634	633	4.78	4.72	1.37	1.41
spb4r	632	625	5.20	5.18	1.07	1.11
spb5	632	635	4.26	4.20	1.72	1.72

Examining Reliability of Manifest Variables

Prior to running the analyses, Cronbach's Alpha was calculated for each set of manifest variables (see Table 25). All but one of the scales, Self-Protective Behaviors, showed acceptable reliability or higher, according to the guidelines suggested by George and Mallery (2010) where > .9 Excellent, > .8 Good, > .7 Acceptable, > .6 Questionable, > .5 Poor, < .5 Unacceptable.

Table 25. Descriptive Statistics for Defiance: Training and Testing Data

Variable	N= Train	Test	M Train	Test	SD Train	Test
def1	632	632	2.67	2.69	1.57	1.64
def2	631	634	1.35	1.47	0.80	1.02
def3	633	635	1.45	1.48	0.90	0.90
def4	634	634	1.62	1.57	1.12	1.08
def5	633	635	1.43	1.48	0.94	1.00
def6	631	632	1.50	1.55	0.99	1.04

Overall fairness consisted of eight items and showed excellent reliability (α = .91). Organizational trust consisted of 7 items and showed an acceptable level of reliability (α = .77). Perceived organizational support consisted of 11 items and showed an excellent level of reliability (α = .93). Organizational citizenship behavior consisted of 16 items and showed a good level of reliability (α = .85). Patrol task consisted of 4 items

and showed an acceptable level of reliability (α = .74). General task consisted of 4 items and showed a good level of reliability (α = .83). Self-protective behaviors consisted of 5 items and showed an unacceptable level of reliability (α = .45), however, was still utilized in the model. Organizational defiance consisted of 5 items and showed a good level of reliability (α = .80). Organizational deviance consisted of 6 items and showed an acceptable level of reliability (α = .70).

Examining and Comparing Measurement Models

As described and diagramed in Chapter III, six measurement models were created to test for discriminant validity between the various factor models. Each measurement model utilized different factor structures, beginning with a model including all 9 factors, and combining the factors in different permutations. Model 1 consisted of the latent variables overall fairness, trust, perceived organizational support, general task, police task, organizational citizenship behaviors, defiance, self-protective behaviors, and production deviance. Model 2 is an eight-factor model that combined patrol task and general task together to form a new latent variable called (TASK PERF*)* and kept the previous seven latent variables. Model 3 is a seven factor model that separated general task and patrol task, but combined defiance, self-protective behaviors, and production defiance to create a new latent variable called (OVERALL CWB*).* Model 4 is a six-factor model that consisted of OVERALL CWB, TASK PERF, overall fairness, trust, perceived organizational support, and organizational citizenship behaviors. Model 5 is a five-factor model that used OVERALL CWB, overall fairness, trust, and perceived organizational support, but combined general task, patrol task, and organizational citizenship behaviors to form a new latent variable called (POSITIVE WORK BEHAVIORS). Model 6 is a

four-factor model that used overall fairness, trust, and perceived organizational support,

but combined general task, police task, organizational citizenship behaviors, defiance,

self-protective behaviors, and production deviance to form a new latent variable

(OVERALL PERFORMANCE). In addition, another model was later created during

analyses that combined organizational trust and perceived organizational support to form

a combined latent variable called (TRUST/SUPPORT) creating an eight-factor model

identified as Model 7. The factor structures for each model are shown in Table 26.

Table 26. Cronbach's Alpha for Each of the Eight Factors		
Latent Factor	No. of items	A
Fairness	8	0.905
Organizational Trust	7	0.770
Perceived Support	11	0.934
Citizenship	16	0.851
Patrol Task	4	0.740
General Task	5	0.828
Self-Protective Behaviors	5	0.453
Organizational Defiance	5	0.806
Organizational Deviance	6	0.703

Goodness of Fit

Each factor structure was examined for model fit. The fit measures used to

examine model fit were the chi-square test ($\chi 2$), the Tucker-Lewis Index(TLI), the

comparative index (CFI), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) were

used. The χ^2 test statistic measures the differences between the observed covariance

matrix and implied covariance matrix. A significant *p*-value for the χ^2 test indicated

significant differences between the two. For this reason, the χ^2 statistic in SEM is

commonly referred to as a "badness of fit" statistic (Kline, 2011). The comparative fit

index (CFI) is an incremental measure based on non-centrality. The CFI is calculated by first subtracting the model degrees of freedom subtracted from the χ^2 statistic. Then a ratio between the null model and the proposed model is calculated. Values above 1.0 are fixed to 1, and values less than 0 are fixed to 0 (Kenny, 2014). The Tucker Lewis index (TLI) is similar to the CFI, but uses the ratio of the χ^2 statistic to the model degrees of freedom to calculate the ratio of the null model to the proposed model (Kenny, 2014). The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) is an absolute measure of fit based on the non-centrality parameter. Like the CFI and TLI, the RMSEA also penalizes the model for complexity.

A general rule of thumb often used to determine if a model has adequate fit is to have a TLI score .90 or greater, CFI score .90 or greater, and a RMSEA of 0.5 or less. The initial results of the measurement models did not present a good model fit for the training data. Model 1 had a bad model fit $\chi^2(2043) = 7565.873$, $p < .001$, CFI = .775, TLI = .764, RMSEA = .061. Model 2 also had bad model fit $\chi^2(2051) = 7785.910$, $p < .001$, CFI = .766, TLI = .756, RMSEA = .062. Model 3 had bad model fit $\chi^2(2064) = 8505.623$, $p < .001$, CFI = .738, TLI = .727, RMSEA = .066. Model 4 had bad model fit $\chi^2(2058) = 8298.125$, $p < .001$, CFI = .746, TLI = .735, RMSEA = .065. Model 5 had bad model fit $\chi^2(2069) = 9268.087$, $p < .001$, CFI = .707, TLI = .696, RMSEA = .070. Model 6 had bad model fit $\chi^2(2073) = 10494.879$, $p < .001$, CFI = .657, TLI = .645, RMSEA = .075. The final model, Model 7, had slightly worse fit than Model 1, but took the high factor correlation between trust and support into consideration. Model 7 also had a bad fit for the data, $\chi^2(2051) = 7629.444$, $p < .001$, CFI = .773, TLI = .762, RMSEA = .062. The model fit statistics for all the models are provided in Table 27.

Measurement model	Fair	Trust	POS	Task Patrol	General Task	OCB	Defiance	SPB	Production Deviance
Table 27. Measurement Models by Indicators Linked to Latent Factors									
MODEL 1[a]									
MODEL 2				TASK PERF					
MODEL 3							OVERALL CWB		
MODEL 4				TASK PERF			OVERALL CWB		
MODEL 5				POSITIVE WORK BEHAVIORS			OVERALL CWB		
MODEL 6				OVERALL PERFORMANCE					
MODEL 7[b]		TRUST/ SUPPORT							

[a]Represents the original hypothesized 9-measurement factor casual/relational model for this study.
[b]Represents the final model used for analyses.

Modification indices were examined to assess what changes should be made to the model to improve the fit (Table 28). A very strong correlation between trust and support suggested combining them into a single factor as described prior in measure Model 7. A total of 20 items were removed from the model to improve the model fit. In order, the items removed were: pos9r, pos10r, trust6r, spb2r, pos4r, fair5r, trsut7r, ocb9, pos2r, ocb8r, pos6r, fair7r, ocb15, fair8, ocb11, pos3, ocb12, ocb5r, spb4r, and ocb13. Cronbach's Alpha was recalculated based on the new set of items for each scale. Trust and support were combined into a single factor, so the alpha contains manifest variables for both trust and support. The new alpha values improved for self-protective behaviors ($\alpha = 0.661$), but a decreased for defiance ($\alpha = 0.41$). Table 29 shows the new alpha values for the 8 factor structure with removed predictors.

Table 28. Measurement Model Fit Statistics with All Predictors Included

Model	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	χ^2	p
1	0.775	0.764	0.061	7565.873	< .001
2	0.766	0.756	0.062	7785.910	< .001
3	0.738	0.727	0.066	8505.623	< .001
4	0.746	0.735	0.065	8298.125	< .001
5	0.707	0.696	0.070	9268.087	< .001
6	0.657	0.645	0.075	10494.879	< .001
7	0.773	0.762	0.062	7629.444	< .001

Note. Significant *p*-values indicate differences between fitted and implied covariance matrices.

Table 29. Cronbach's Alpha for Each of the Eight Factors After Removing Items

Latent Factor	No. of items	A
Fairness	5	0.905
Trust/Support	10	0.913
Citizenship	9	0.865
Patrol Task	4	0.740
General Task	4	0.828
Self-protective Behaviors	3	0.661
Organizational Defiance	6	0.414
Organizational Deviance	2	0.703

The model fit was much better with the insignificant predictors removed, although the fitted covariance matrices were all significantly different from the implied covariance matrices. The model selected for testing the hypotheses was Model 7 (Table 30). Although Model 1 had a better model fit, the correlation between trust and support was .95, indicating low discriminant validity between those two factors (Kline, 2011). Model 1 had acceptable model fit for the data, $\chi^2(953) = 2306.704$, $p < .001$, CFI = .912, TLI = .904, RMSEA = .044. Model 2 had marginal fit, $\chi^2(961) = 2540.296$, $p < .001$, CFI = .897, TLI = .889, RMSEA = .048. Model 3 had poor model fit, $\chi^2(974)$ 3355.731, $p <$

.001, CFI = .844, TLI = .834, RMSEA = .058. Model 4 had poor model fit, $\chi^2(968) =$

3135.766, $p < .001$, CFI = .858, TLI = .848, RMSEA = .055. Model 5 had poor model fit,

$\chi^2(979) = 4099.876$, $p < .001$, CFI = .796, TLI = .784, RMSEA = .066. Model 6 had poor

model fit, $\chi^2(983) = 5759.560$, $p < .001$, CFI = .688, TLI = .671, RMSEA = .082. Model

7 had acceptable model fit for the data, $\chi^2(961) = 2340.382$, $p < .001$, CFI = .909, TLI =

.903, RMSEA = .044. Model 7 was run again using the test data. The result had

acceptable model fit, $\chi^2(961) = 2050.566$, $p < .001$, CFI = .924, TLI = .919, RMSEA =

.040. The correlation matrix for the latent variables in the final measurement model using

the test data is shown in Table 31.

Table 30. Measurement Model Fit Statistics with Predictors Removed					
Model	*CFI*	*TLI*	*RMSEA*	χ^2	*p*
1	0.912	0.904	0.044	2306.704	< .001
2	0.897	0.889	0.048	2540.296	< .001
3	0.845	0.835	0.058	3355.731	< .001
4	0.858	0.849	0.056	3135.766	< .001
5	0.796	0.785	0.067	4099.876	< .001
6	0.688	0.672	0.082	5759.560	< .001
7	0.910	0.903	0.045	2340.382	< .001

Table 31. Correlation Matrix of Latent Variables for Model 7								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Fairness	1							
Trust/Support	0.850	1						
Citizenship	0.058	0.074	1					
General Task	0.328	0.226	0.573	1				
Police Task	0.241	0.136	0.391	0.718	1			
Self-Protective Behaviors	-0.720	-0.743	-0.058	-0.136	-0.045	1		
Deviance	-0.374	-0.369	-0.417	-0.393	-0.326	0.452	1	
Defiance	-0.427	-0.420	-0.340	-0.340	-0.182	0.392	0.658	1

Measurement Model Path Coefficients for Test Data

The output for the measurement model gives us unstandardized and standardized factor loadings, their standard errors, and significance level for each of the observed variables on their latent construct. All of the factors were significant at $p < .001$. A general rule of thumb that is sometimes used is to have standardized factor loadings of .40 in absolute value (Bowen & Guo, 2011). The standardized factor loadings for overall fairness ranged from 0.74 to 0.89 ($p < .001$), which suggests strong factor loadings throughout the construct (see Table 32). The factor loadings for trust/support ranged from .45 to .85 ($p < .001$) (see Table 33). Organizational citizenship behaviors had standardized factor loadings from -.54 to .80 ($p < .001$) (see Table 34). Standardized factor loadings for general task performance ranged from .72 to .74 ($p < .001$) (see Table 35). Police task performance had standardized factor loadings that ranged from .35 to .82 ($p < .001$) (see Table 36). All but one of the factor loadings were at least .40 in absolute value, which is considered reasonable for the latent construct (Bowen & Guo, 2011). The standardized factor loadings for self-protective behaviors ranged from .45 to .85, ($p < .001$) (see Table 37). Deviance had standardized factor loadings from .46 to .71 ($p < .001$) (see Table 38). Defiance had standardized factor loadings from .45 to .79 (p< .001) (see Table 39).

Table 32. Measurement Model Path Coefficients for Overall Fairness Using Test Data

Construct	Variable	Unstandardized estimate	Standard error	Standardized estimate	p
Fairness					
	fair1	1.00	-	0.75	-
	fair2	1.37	0.06	0.85	0.001
	fair3	1.19	0.06	0.76	0.001
	fair4	1.36	0.05	0.89	0.001
	fair6	1.20	0.06	0.74	0.001

Table 33. Measurement Model Path Coefficients for Trust/Support Fairness Using Test Data

Construct	Variable	Unstandardized estimate	Standard error	Standardized estimate	p
Trust/Support					
	trust1	1.00	-	0.78	-
	trust2	0.79	0.05	0.61	0.001
	trust3	0.65	0.04	0.54	0.001
	trust4	0.87	0.04	0.75	0.001
	trust5r	0.49	0.04	0.45	0.001
	pos1	1.06	0.04	0.87	-
	pos5	1.06	0.04	0.83	0.001
	pos7	0.88	0.04	0.73	0.001
	pos8	0.97	0.04	0.79	0.001
	pos11	1.04	0.04	0.85	0.001

Table 34. Measurement Model Path Coefficients for Organizational Citizenship Behaviors Using Test Data

Construct	Variable	Unstandardized estimate	Standard error	Standardized estimate	p
Citizenship					
	ocb1	1	-	0.66	-
	ocb2	-0.24	0.02	-0.54	0.001
	ocb3	1.02	0.07	0.63	0.001
	ocb4	1.11	0.07	0.75	0.001
	ocb6	1.09	0.07	0.80	0.001
	ocb7	0.83	0.07	0.57	0.001
	ocb10	0.97	0.08	0.55	0.001
	ocb14	0.94	0.07	0.60	0.001
	ocb16	0.83	0.06	0.64	0.001

Table 35. Measurement Model Path Coefficients for General Task Using Test Data

Construct	Variable	Unstandardized estimate	Standard error	Standardized estimate	p
General Task					
	gtastk1	1.00	-	0.73	-
	gtask2	1.03	0.06	0.74	0.001
	gtask3	0.97	0.06	0.73	0.001
	gtask4	1.06	0.06	0.72	0.001

Table 36. Measurement Model Path Coefficients for Patrol Task Using Test Data

Construct	Variable	Unstandardized estimate	Standard error	Standardized estimate	p
Patrol Task					
	ptask1	1.00	-	0.82	-
	ptask2	1.07	0.06	0.78	0.001
	ptask3	0.85	0.05	0.63	0.001
	ptask4	0.45	0.06	0.35	0.001

Table 37. Measurement Model Path Coefficients for Self-Protective Behaviors Using Test Data

Construct	Variable	Unstandardized estimate	Standard error	Standardized estimate	p
Self-Protective Behaviors					
	spb1	1.00	-	0.59	-
	spb3	0.62	0.07	0.45	0.001
	spb5	1.42	0.11	0.85	0.001

Table 38. Measurement Model Path Coefficients for Production Deviance Using Test Data

Construct	Variable	Unstandardized estimate	Standard error	Standardized estimate	p
Production Deviance					
	pd1	1.00	-	0.48	-
	pd2	1.28	0.13	0.63	0.001
	pd3	0.31	0.03	0.57	0.001
	pd4	1.08	0.13	0.46	0.001
	pd5	1.19	0.12	0.71	0.001

Table 39. Measurement Model Path Coefficients for Defiance Using Test Data

Construct	Variable	Unstandardized estimate	Standard error	Standardized estimate	p
Defiance					
	def1	1.00	-	0.45	-
	def2	0.33	0.03	0.75	0.001
	def3	0.27	0.03	0.67	0.001
	def4	0.36	0.03	0.76	0.001
	def5	0.35	0.03	0.79	0.001
	def6	0.31	0.03	0.66	0.001

Measurements model diagrams are provided in the next few pages: Figure 7,

overall fairness; Figure 8, trust/support; Figure 9, organizational citizenship behaviors;

Figure 10, general task; Figure 11, patrol task; Figure 12, self-protective behaviors;

Figure 13, production deviance; and Figure 14, defiance. In the measurement models

diagramed, the first predictor in each latent construct is used as the intercept, so no error

was calculated.
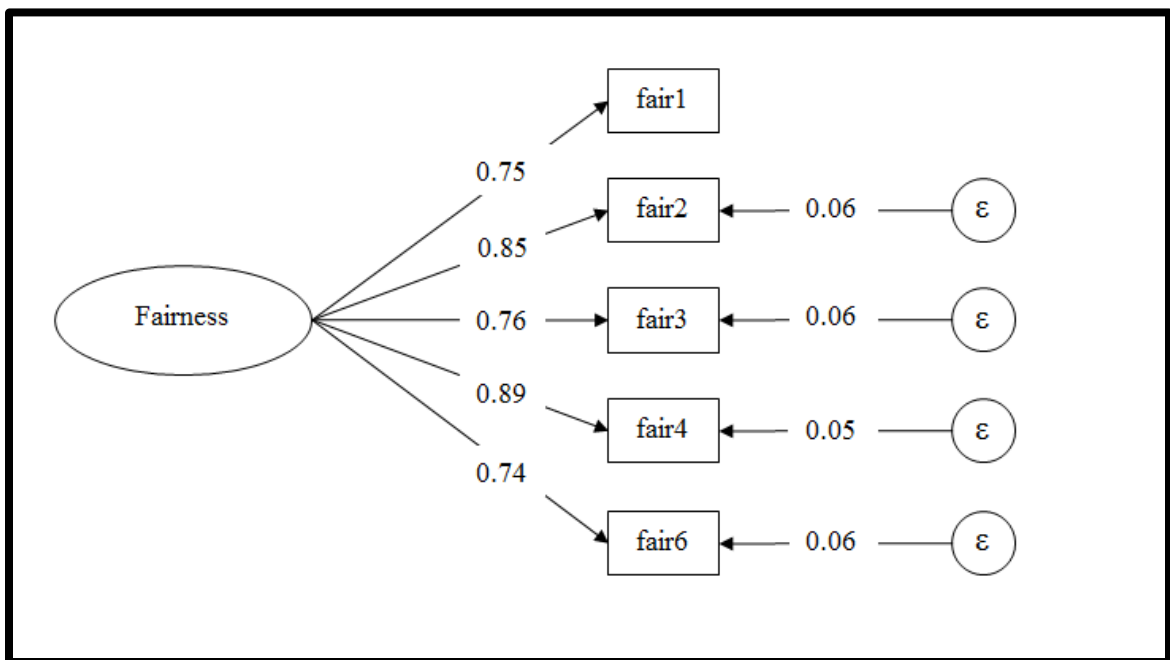
Figure 7. **Overall Fairness Latent Construct Measurement Model with Standardized Factor Loadings.**
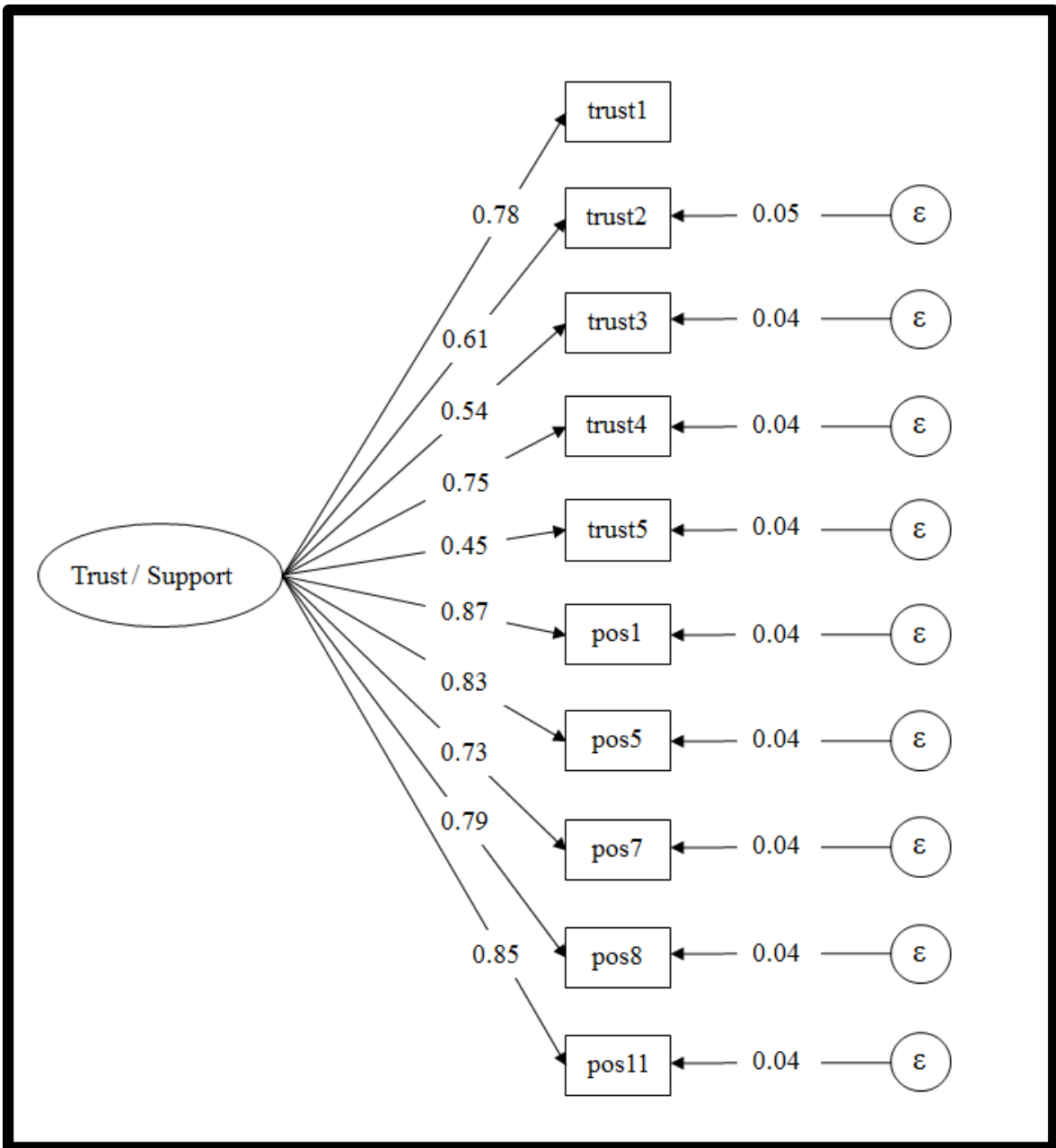
Figure 8. **Trust/Support Latent Construct Measurement Model with Standardized Factor Loadings.**
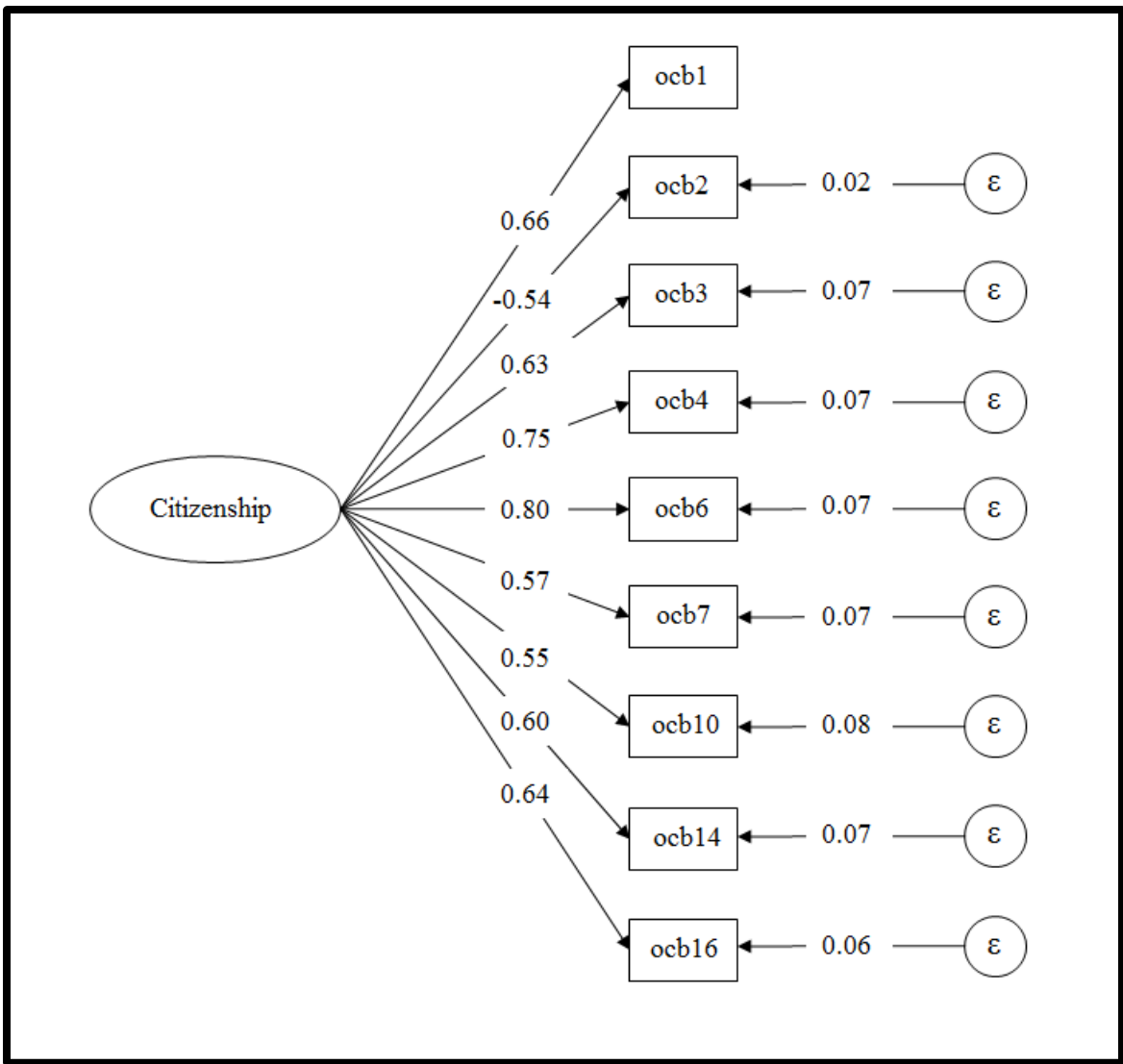
Figure 9. Organizational Citizenship Latent Construct Measurement Model with Standardized Factor Loadings.
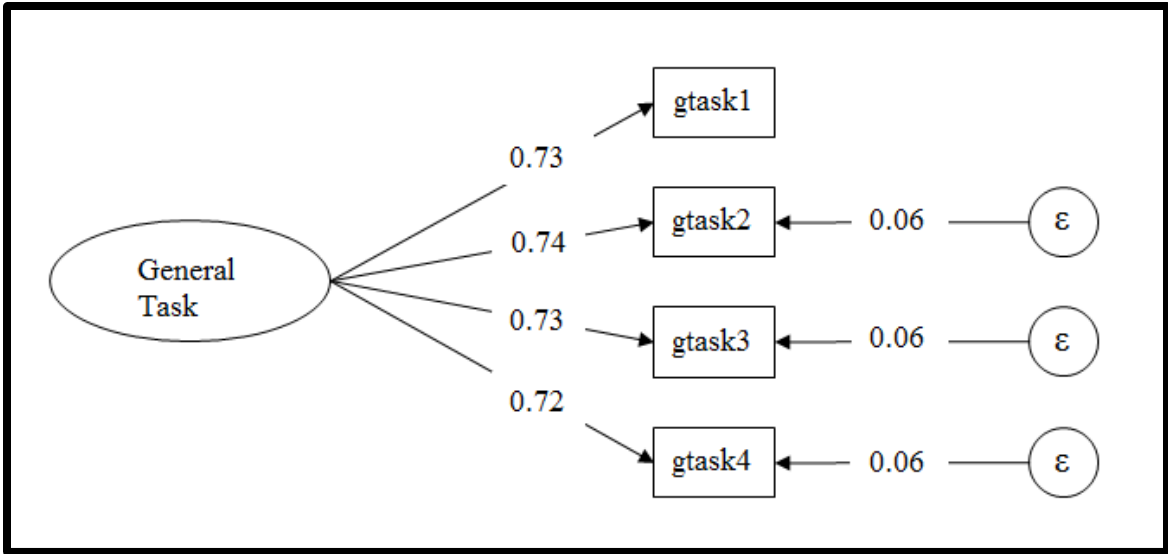
Figure 10. **General Task Construct Measurement Model with Standardized Factor Loadings.**
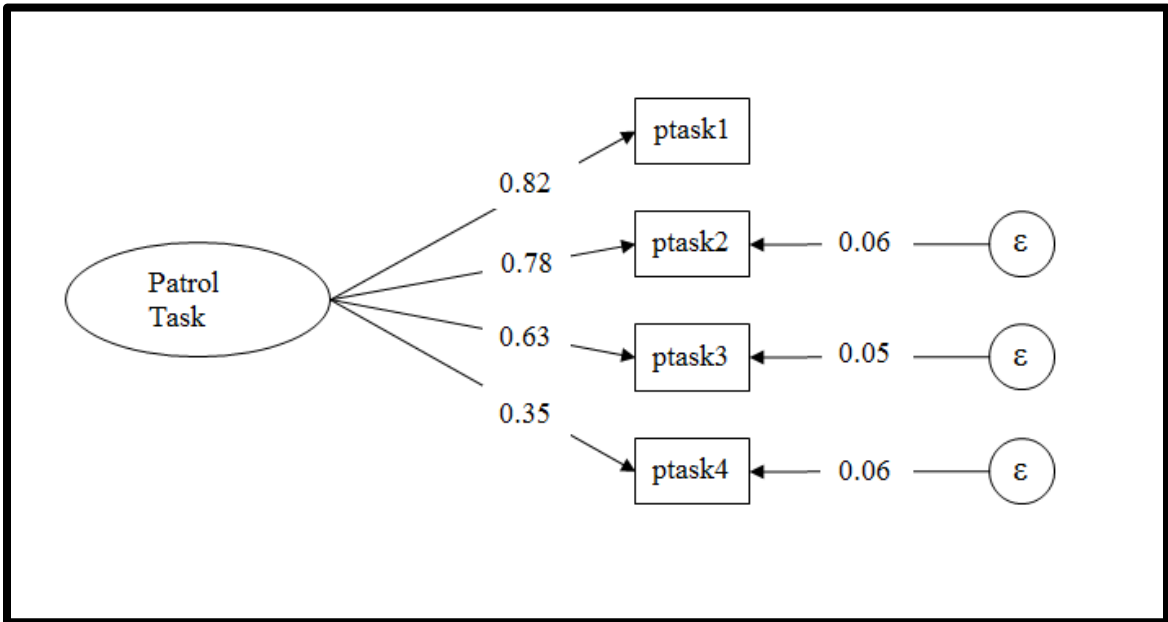
Figure 11. **Police General Task Latent Construct Measurement Model with Standardized Factor Loadings.**
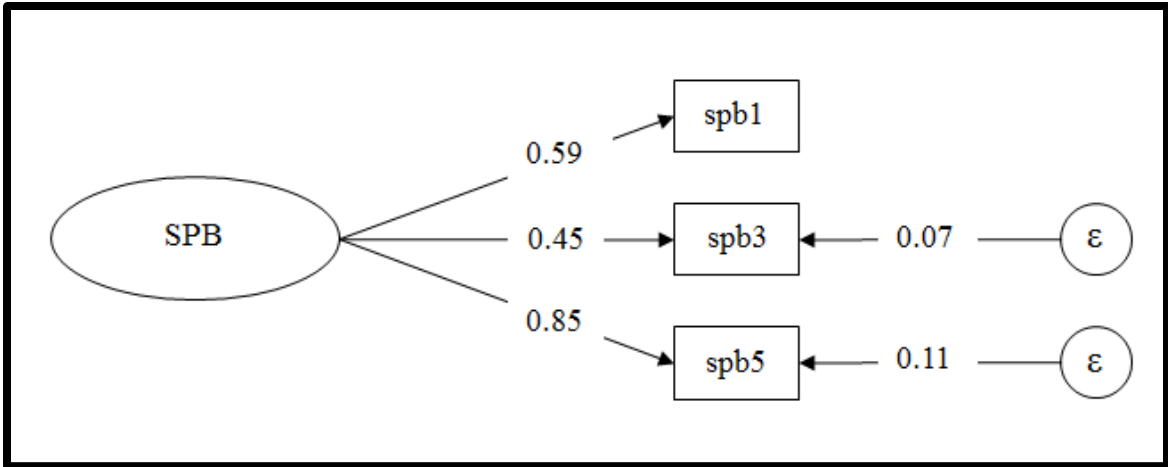
Figure 12. **Self-Protective Behavior Latent Construct Measurement Model with Standardized Factor Loadings.**
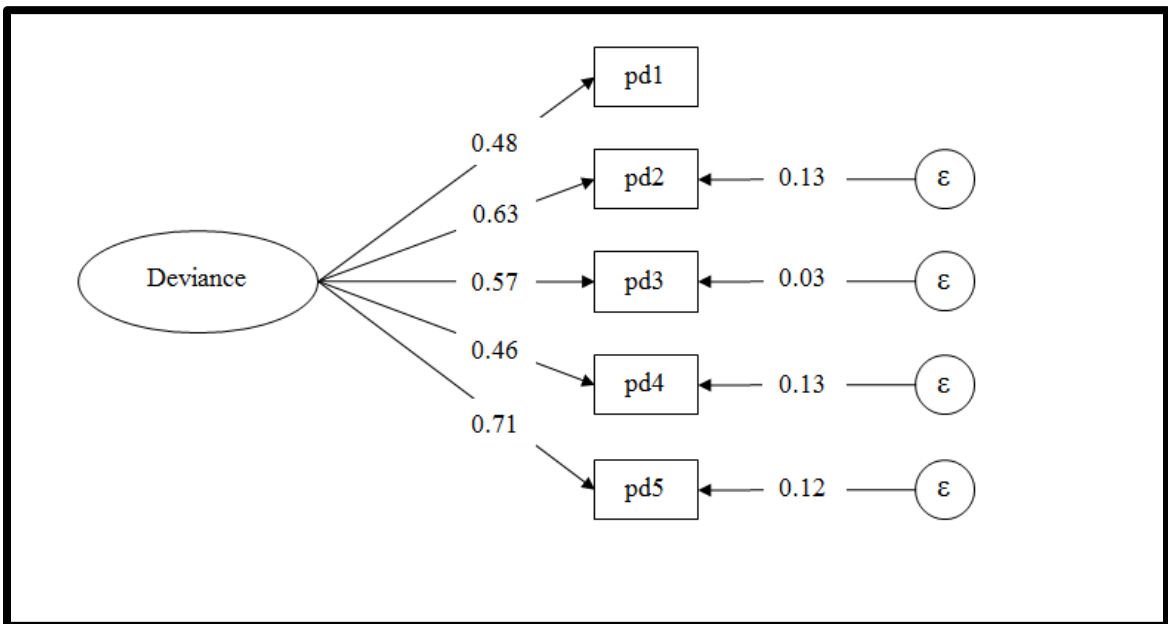
Figure 13. **Organizational Deviance Latent Construct Measurement Model Standardized Factor Loadings.**
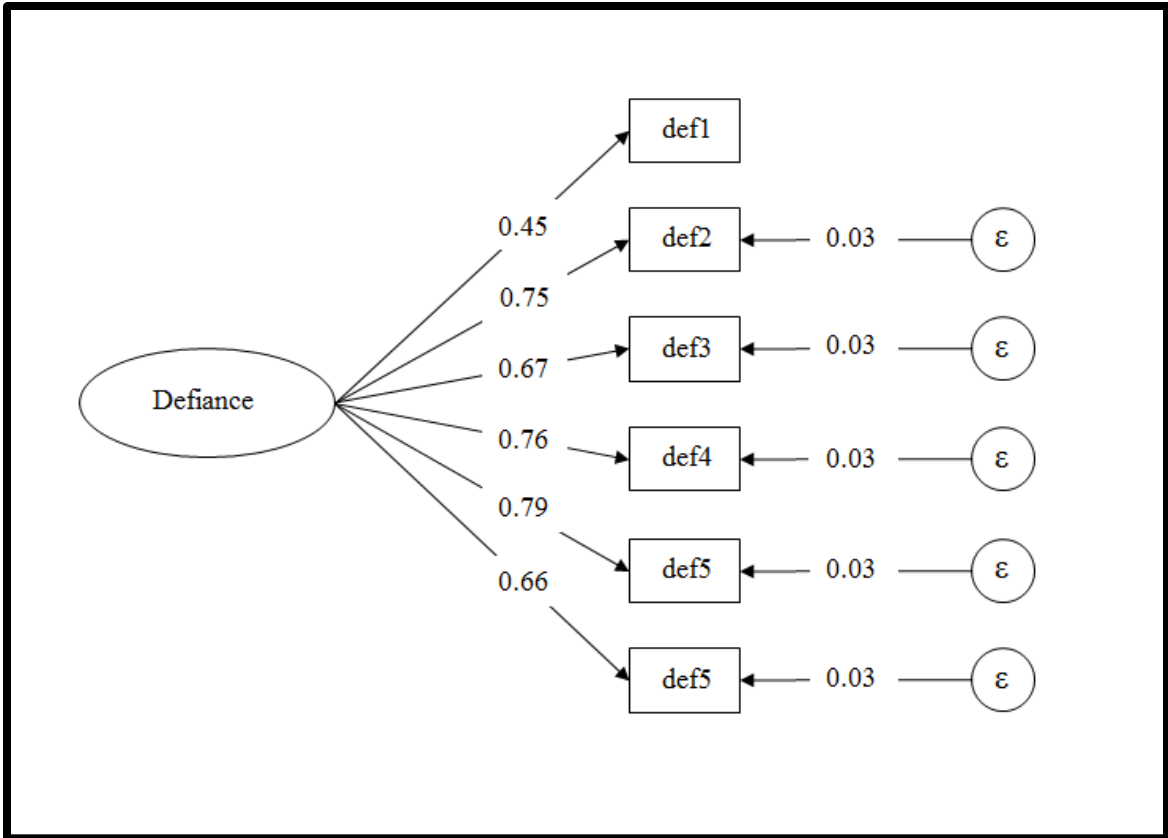
Figure 14. **Organizational Defiance Latent Construct Measurement Model with Standardized Factor Loadings.**

Structural Equation Model

Because the RMSEA and other goodness of fit statistics indicated acceptable model fit, data analysis continued with the variables used in the measurement model. Additional paths between the variables were added into the Model 7 to address the two primary research questions and corresponding hypotheses (see Figure 15). Since the latent variable correlation between organizational trust and perceived organizational support merited combining them into a single latent factor (trust/support), a new set of hypotheses (1.20–1.26) and (2.18–2.24) was added to the previous hypothesis provide in Chapter III to reflect changes in the mediating latent factor.
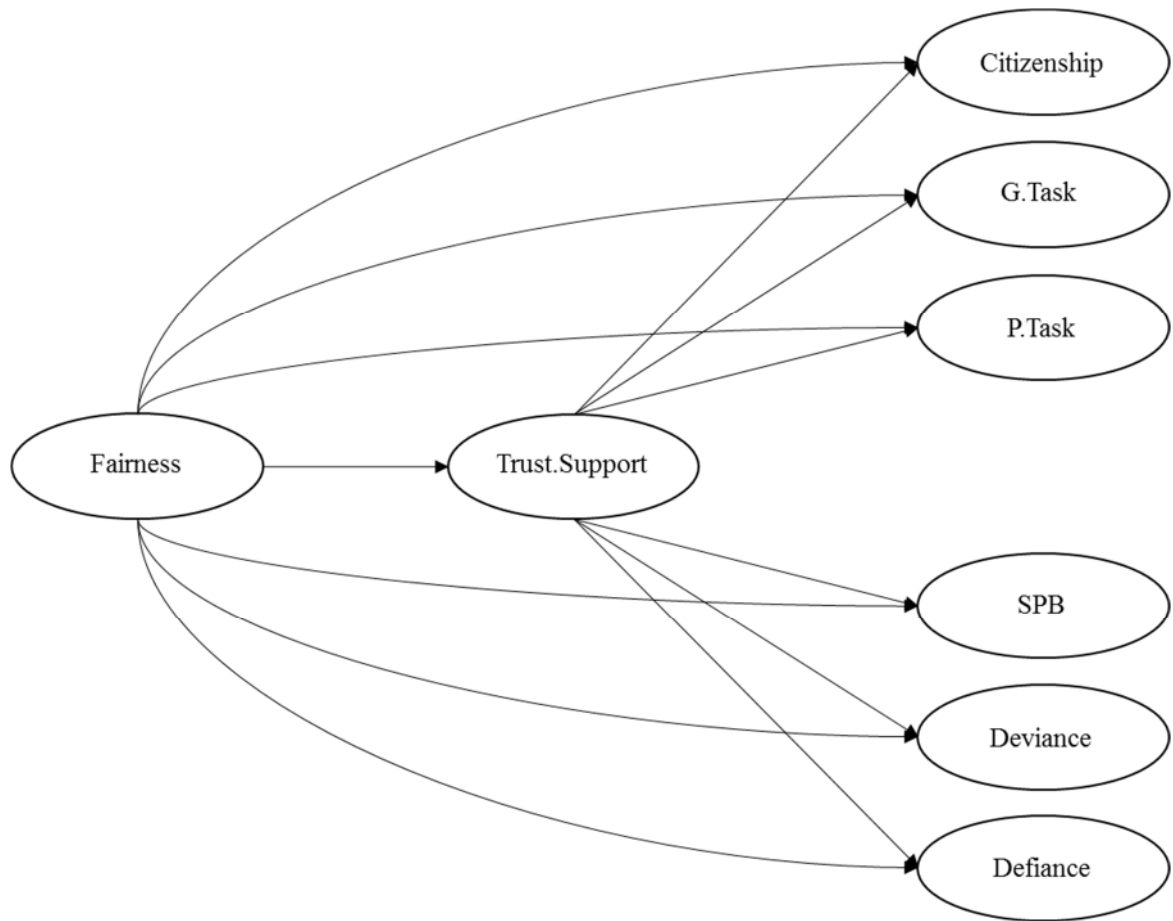
Figure 15. An 8-Factor Structural Model to be Tested.

To address the research questions and hypotheses, structural equation modeling
was conducted using the same measurement model with additional paths added. As noted
prior, a good model fit can be defined as a model having a CFI and TLI greater than .90
and RMSEA less than .05 (Kline, 2011). The resulting structural model used in analyses
had reasonably good model fit for the data, $\chi^2(961) = 2050.566$, $p < .001$, CFI = .924, TLI
= .919, RMSEA = .040. Both CFI and TLI were greater than .90 and the RMSEA was
less than .05.

Examining Research Questions

The regression equations showed that the strongest relationship was the effect of fairness on trust/support, $\beta = .85$, $p < .001$. This indicated that as overall organizational fairness increases, trust/support also increases on average. Fairness also had a positive effect on general task performance, $\beta = .49$, $p < .001$, and police task performance, $\beta = .451$, $p < .001$. Overall fairness had a negative effect on self-protective behaviors, $\beta = -.318$, $p < .001$, deviance, $\beta = -.215$, $p = .038$, and defiance, $\beta = -.252$, $p = .008$. However, the path between overall fairness and organizational citizenship behaviors was not significant, $b = -.018$, $p = .858$. The mediating factor of trust/support was negatively related to police task performance, $\beta = -.247$, $p = .014$, self-protective behaviors, $\beta = -.473$, $p < .001$, and defiance, $\beta = -.206$, $p = .026$. Trust and support was not significantly related to citizenship, $b = .089$, $p = .361$, general task performance, $b = -.19$, $p = .052$, or deviance, $b = -.187$, $p = .07$. See Figure 16 and Figure 17 for diagrams of the structural model 7 tested and a full SEM diagram.
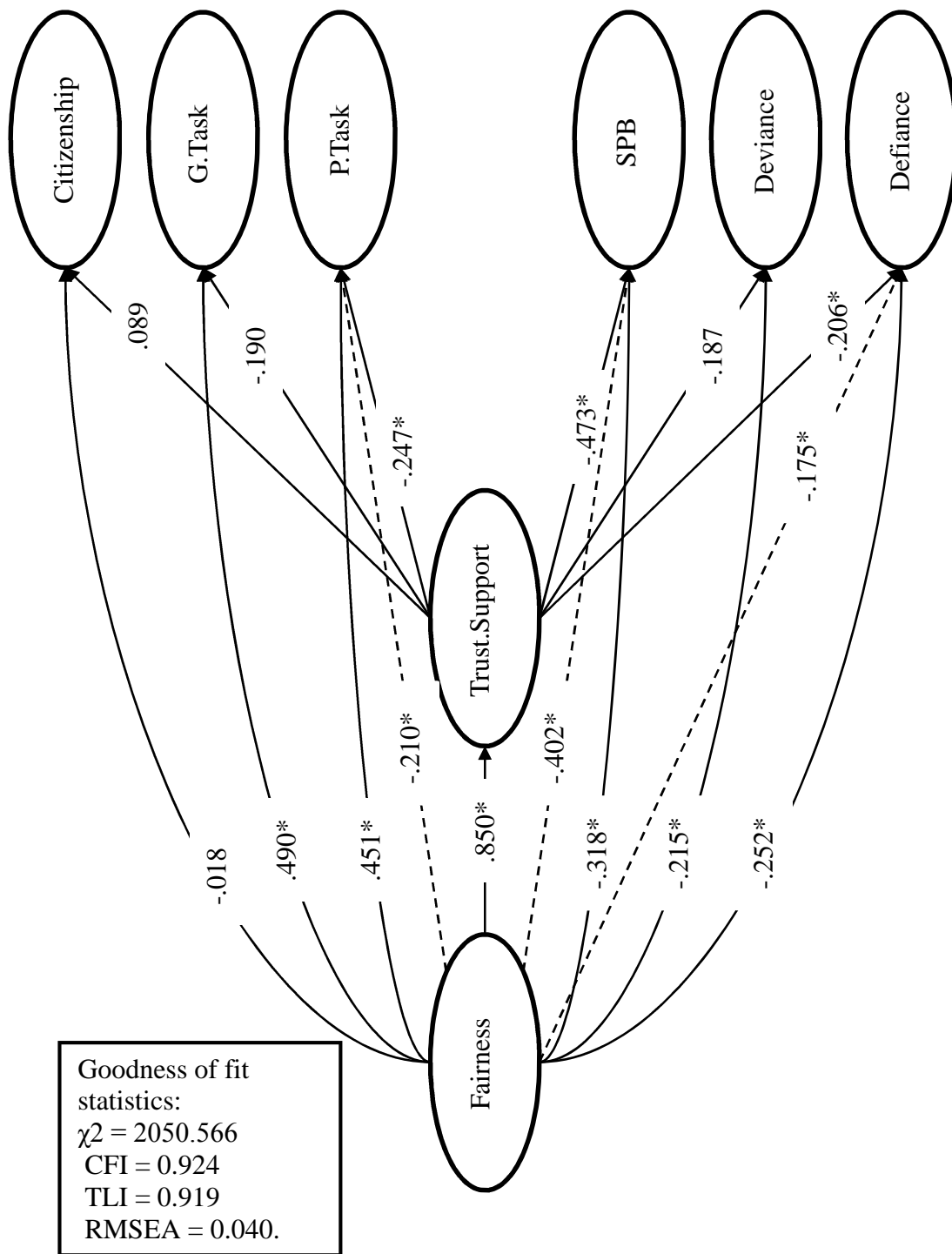
Figure 16. **Structural Model with Standardized Path Estimates.** Results for final model fit with standardized path estimates for test data. Significance is indicated by an asterisk. The dashed line represents significant indirect effects.
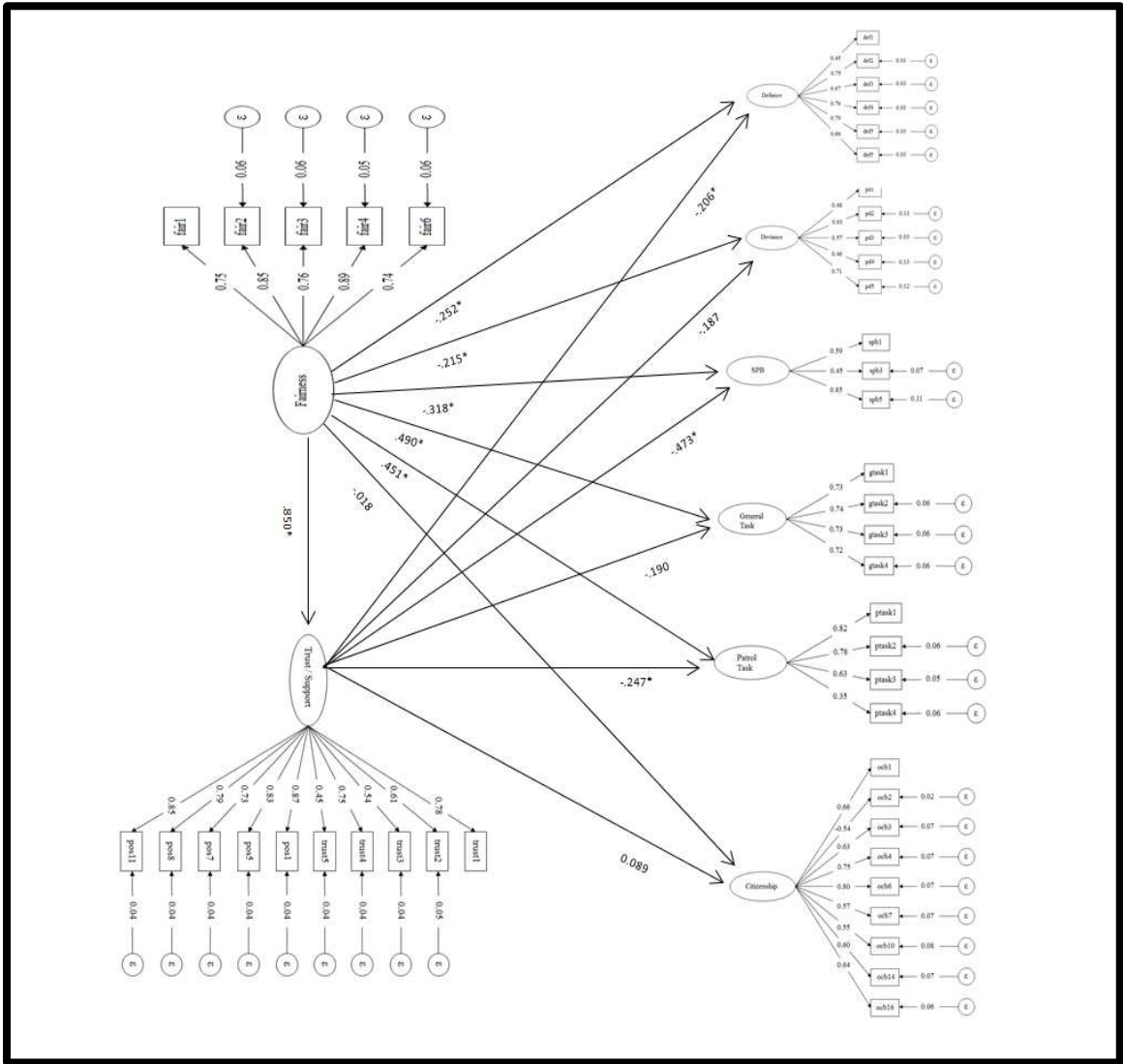
***Figure 17*. Full SEM Model with Standardized Direct Path Estimates Displayed.**
Results for final model fit with standardized path estimates for test data. Significance is
indicated by an asterisk. Indirect effects not displayed.

Examining Research Questions and Hypotheses

  Direct Effects. Most of the hypotheses relating to fairness were supported. Fairness had a positive effect on general task performance, $\beta = .49$, $p < .001$ and police task performance, $\beta = .451$, $p < .001$, supporting hypotheses 1.4 and 1.5. Fairness had a negative effect on self-protective behaviors, $\beta = -.318$, $p < .001$, deviance, $\beta = -.215$, $p = .038$, and defiance, $b = -.252$, $p = .008$, supporting hypotheses 1.6, 1.7, and 1.8. Finally, fairness had a significant direct effect on trust/support, $\beta = 0.85$, $p < .001$. Table 40 provides hypotheses and results regarding the direct effects of fairness.

  Trust/support only had a significant negative effect on police task performance, $\beta = -.247$, $p = .014$, self-protective behaviors, $\beta = -.473$, $p < .001$, and defiance, $\beta = -.206$, $p = .026$. These coefficients supported hypotheses 1.20, 1.25, and 1.26, which were added to accommodate the combining of trust and support into a single factor. The path for trust/support to police task performance was significant, but it was opposite from the hypothesized positive relationship. Table 41 presents support and non-support for hypotheses 1.9 through 1.20 regarding direct effects of trust and POS. Table 42 provides the added hypotheses relating to combined trust/support latent factor used in the analysis.

  All of the coefficients were standardized in the analysis, so coefficients represent the number of standard deviations the dependent variable would change for a unit increase in the independent variable. For example, a one unit increase in fairness would result in a .85 standard deviation increase in the mean of trust and support. Table 43 provides the standardized regression estimates for latent variables.

Table 40. Direct Effects of Overall Fairness: Hypotheses: 1.1-1.8

Number	Hypothesis	Standardized path	Support
1.1	There is a positive relationship between overall fairness and perceived organizational support.	N/A	N/A*
1.2	There is a positive relationship between overall fairness and organizational trust.	N/A	N/A*
1.3	There is a positive relationship between overall fairness and organizational citizenship behavior.	-0.018	Non-Support
1.4	There is a positive relationship between overall fairness and police task performance.	0.451	Support
1.5	There is a positive relationship between overall fairness and general task performance.	0.490	Support
1.6	There is a negative relationship between overall fairness and self-protective behaviors.	-0.318	Support
1.7	There is a negative relationship between overall fairness and production deviance.	-0.215	Support
1.8	There is a negative relationship between overall fairness and defiance.	-0.252	Support

*Trust and support were combined making hypotheses not applicable.

Table 41. Direct Effects of Trust and Perceived Organizational Support Hypotheses: 1.9-1.20

Number	Hypothesis	Standardized path	Support
1.9	There is a positive relationship between organizational trust and police task performance.	N/A	N/A*
1.10	There is a positive relationship between organizational trust and general task performance.	N/A	N/A*
1.11	There is a positive relationship between organizational trust and organizational citizenship behavior.	N/A	N/A*
1.12	There is a negative relationship between organizational trust and production deviance.	N/A	N/A*
1.13	There is a negative relationship between organizational trust and self-protective behavior.	N/A	N/A*
1.14	There is a negative relationship between organizational trust and defiance.	N/A	N/A*
1.15	There is a positive relationship between perceived organizational support and police task performance.	N/A	N/A*
1.16	There is a positive relationship between perceived organizational support and general task performance.	N/A	N/A*
1.17	There is a positive relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational citizenship behavior.	N/A	N/A*
1.18	There is a negative relationship between perceived organizational support and production deviance.	N/A	N/A*
1.19	There is a negative relationship between perceived organizational support and self-protective behavior.	N/A	N/A*
1.20	There is a negative relationship between perceived organizational support and defiance.	N/A	N/A*

*Trust and support were combined making hypotheses not applicable.

Table 42. Added Direct Effects Research Hypotheses for Overall Fairness and Trust/Support: Hypotheses 1.21-1.26			
Number	Hypothesis	Standardized path	Support
1.21	There is a positive relationship between overall fairness and perceived organizational trust/support.	0.850	Support
1.22	There is a positive relationship between organizational trust/support and police task performance.	-0.247	Non-Support
1.23	There is a positive relationship between organizational trust/support and general task performance.	-0.19	Non-Support
1.24	There is a positive relationship between organizational trust/support and organizational citizenship behavior.	0.089	Non-Support
1.24	There is a negative relationship between organizational trust/support and production deviance.	-0.187	Non-Support
1.25	There is a negative relationship between organizational trust/support and self-protective behavior.	-0.473	Support
1.26	There is a negative relationship between organizational trust/support and defiance.	-0.206	Support

Table 43. Standardized Regression Estimates for Latent Variables

Latent Variables and Predictors	β	*SE*	*z*	*p*
Trust/Support				
Fairness	0.850	0.053	18.620	.001*
Citizenship				
Fairness	-0.018	0.065	-0.179	0.858
Trust/Support	0.089	0.055	0.914	0.361
General Task				
Fairness	0.490	0.058	4.837	0.001*
Trust/Support	-0.190	0.048	-1.940	0.052
Patrol Task				
Fairness	0.451	0.094	4.398	.001*
Trust/Support	-0.247	0.079	-2.467	.014*
Self-Protective Behaviors				
Fairness	-0.318	0.086	-3.732	.001*
Trust/Support	-0.473	0.073	-5.624	.001*
Deviance				
Fairness	-0.215	0.060	-2.075	.038*
Trust/Support	-0.187	0.052	-1.811	0.07
Defiance				
Fairness	-0.252	0.069	-2.650	.008*
Trust/Support	-0.206	0.058	-2.231	.026*

Note. * = p < .05.

Mediating Effects. The results of the structural model analyses indicated that trust/ support was a significant mediator between fairness and police performance task, indirect effects = -.210, p = .014. Trust/support was also found to be a significant mediator between fairness and self-protective behaviors, indirect effects = -.402, p < .001, and defiance, indirect effects = -.175, p = .026. Interestingly, the direct effect of trust/support on performance task was -.247, whereas the direct effect of fairness was .451. The opposite sign suggested that trust/support tends to suppress the otherwise positive effect of fairness on police task performance. The direct effect of fairness and trust and support predicting self-protective behaviors was -.318, p < .001, and the direct effect of fairness and trust and support predicting defiance was -.252, p = .008. Table 44, Table 45, and Table 46 provide the original hypotheses that were not applicable due to trust and perceived support being combined into single latent construct. Based on these results, hypotheses 2.19, 2.21, and 2.23 can be supported. Table 47 provides the new hypotheses 2.19 – 2.23 and the indirect, direct, and total effects.

	Table 44. Original Mediating Effects of Trust and POS: Hypotheses 2.1-2.6					
Number	Hypothesis	Indirect Effect	Direct Effect	Total Effect	p	Support
2.1	The effect of fairness on police task performance is mediated by organizational trust and perceived organizational support.	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A*
2.2	The effect of fairness on general task performance is mediated by organizational trust and perceived organizational support.	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A*
2.3	The effect of fairness on organizational citizenship behavior is mediated by organizational trust and perceived organizational support.	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A*
2.4	The effect of fairness on self-protective behaviors is mediated by organizational trust and perceived organizational support.	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A*
2.5	The effect of fairness on production defiance is mediated by organizational trust and perceived organizational support.	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A*
2.6	The effect of fairness on defiance is mediated by organizational trust and perceived organizational support.	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A*

*Hypotheses not applicable due to trust and support being combined into single latent factor.

Table 45. Original Mediating Effects of Trust: Hypotheses 2.7-2.12						
Number	Hypothesis	Indirect Effect	Direct Effect	Total Effect	p	Support
2.7	The effect of fairness on police task performance is mediated by organizational trust.	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A*
2.8	The effect of fairness on general task performance is mediated by organizational trust.	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A*
2.9	The effect of fairness on organizational citizenship behavior is mediated by organizational trust.	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A*
2.10	The effect of fairness on self-protective behaviors is mediated by organizational trust.	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A*
2.11	The effect of fairness on production defiance is mediated by organizational trust.	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A*
2.12	The effect of fairness on defiance is mediated by organizational trust.	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A*

*Hypotheses not applicable due to trust and support being combined into single latent factor.

Table 46. Original Mediating Effects of POS: Hypotheses 2.13-2.18						
Number	Hypothesis	Indirect Effect	Direct Effect	Total Effect	p	Support
2.13	The effect of fairness on police task performance is mediated by perceived organizational support.	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A*
2.14	The effect of fairness on general task performance is mediated by perceived organizational support.	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A*
2.15	The effect of fairness on organizational citizenship behavior is mediated by perceived organizational support.	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A*
2.16	The effect of fairness on self-protective behaviors is mediated by perceived organizational support.	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A*
2.17	The effect of fairness on production defiance is mediated by perceived organizational support.	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A*
2.18	The effect of fairness on organizational deviance mediated by perceived organizational support.	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A*

***Hypotheses not applicable due to trust and support being combined into single latent factor.

Table 47. New Trust/Support Mediating Hypotheses: 2.19-2.23						
Number	Hypothesis	Indirect Effect	Direct Effect	Total Effect	*p*	Support
2.19	The effect of fairness on police task performance is mediated by perceived organizational trust/ support.	**-0.210**	**0.451**	**0.241**	**0.014**	**Support**
2.20	The effect of fairness on general task performance is mediated by perceived organizational trust/support.	**0.490**	-0.190	--	N/A	Non-Support
2.20	The effect of fairness on organizational citizenship behavior is mediated by perceived organizational trust/support.	-0.018	0.089	--	N/A	Non-Support
2.21	The effect of fairness on self-protective behaviors is mediated by perceived organizational trust/support.	**-0.402**	**-0.318**	**-0.720**	**<.001**	**Support**
2.22	The effect of fairness on production deviance is mediated by perceived organizational trust/support	**-0.215**	-0.187	--	N/A	Non-Support
2.23	The effect of fairness on organizational defiance is mediated by perceived organizational trust/support	**-0.175**	**-0.252**	**-0.427**	**0.014**	**Support**

Note. Items in bold were significantly significant as < .05.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Introduction

The purpose of this research was to investigate how organizationally directed perceptions of fairness, trust, and support are related to self-reported work-related behaviors and what, if any, impact these perceptions have on the work performance of police officers. This research investigated two primary questions: (a) What are the relationships between overall fairness, organizational support, organizational trust, organizational citizenship behaviors, general task performance, patrol-related task performance, self-protective behaviors, production deviance, and defiance?; and (b) Does perceived organizational support and organizational trust mediate the effects between overall fairness and organizational citizenship behaviors, general task performance, patrol-related task performance, self-protective behaviors, production deviance, and defiance? This chapter will present a summary of this study's findings, a discussion of the implications for present research as well as policy recommendations. Additionally, a description of this research study's limitations will be provided and suggestions for future research. This section will end with an overview of the most relevant findings in the conclusion.

Discussion of Research Findings

The Impact of Fairness on Social Exchange Indicators

The results showed that perceived overall fairness had a significant positive relationship with a combined trust/support latent factor, as hypothesized based on social exchange theory. In other words, if officers perceive that the organization is fair in terms of overall treatment and outcomes regarding themselves and fellow officers, they are

more likely to have trust in the organization and are more likely to perceive that they have support from the organization. These results are consistent with previous general occupational research on the relationships between organizational justice and social exchange indicators (Colquitt et al., 2013) and previous police research (Armeli et al., 1998; Boateng, 2015).

This research also provides support that police officers' perceptions of fairness are integrated into an officer's decision making about one's status and the worth of those contributions within an organizational context (Lind & Tyler, 1988, Tyler & Blader, 2000; 2003; Tyler & Lind,1992). Positive perceptions of organizational support and organizational trust assure officers that they will not be mistreated (i.e., not treated in an unfair manner) or taken advantage of by the organization. According to Tyler and Blader (2000), the need for acceptance and positive affirmation of self-worth is vital for a person beyond pecuniary benefits because it fulfills an emotional need. Research has shown that some of the socio-emotional needs that support provides are related to approval, esteem, emotional support, and affiliation (Armeli et al., 1998). Relationships are important within an organization because they not only help meet emotional needs of the employees but are critical for promoting positive reciprocation between individuals as well as between individuals and the institution (Blau, 1964; 1967).

Consistent with previous research, this research found that overall organizational fairness had significant positive relationships with both perceived organizational support and organizational trust (Colquitt et al. 2012; Colquitt et al, 2013). Simply, as officers' perceptions of overall organizational fairness increase, officers' perceptions of perceived organizational support and organizational trust will increase. This finding suggests that

the more fair an officer perceives his/her organization, the more likely the officer will hold the view that the organization values his/her work and cares about him/her and is also more likely to perceive that the department has his/her back.

The Impact of Fairness on Overall Work Performance

In this research, police officer work performance was measured as three separate, commonly used, dimensions: (a) task performance, (b) organizational citizenship behaviors, and (c) counterproductive work behaviors (Colquitt et al, 2013; Dalal, Baysinger, Brummel, LeBreton, 2012: Materson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). Task performance refers to actions that are typically required and expected within an employee's job role. Organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) are actions that benefit the organization as a whole but are typically not rewarded. This dimension is often viewed as an individual going above and beyond normal work expectations. Counterproductive work behaviors (CWB) are actions that harm the organization (Colquitt et al, 2013, Dalal et al., 2013).

Overall, multiple meta-analyses within general occupational research (Berry, 2007; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001, Colquitt et al., 2001; Colquitt 2013) and the criminal justice field (Anshel, 2000; Armeli et al., 1998; Arter, 2007; Crow, Lee, & Joo, 2012; De Angelis & Kupchik, 2007; Farmer et al., 2003; Hass et al., 2015; Harris & Worden, 2012; Kaarainan, Lintonen, Laiten, & Pollock, 2003; Myhill & Bradford, 2013); Tyler, Callahan, & Frost, 2007; Wolfe & Piquero, 2011) demonstrate that fairness is related to employee work performance.

Consistent with previous research, overall organizational fairness had a significant positive relationship with general and police-related tasks and a significant negative

relationship with all three types of counterproductive work behaviors: (a) self-protective behaviors, (b) organizational defiance, and (c) organization production deviance. The strongest standardized effect between overall organizational fairness and officer performance was general task performance, followed by police task, self-protective behaviors, defiance, and deviance.

This finding provides support that when officers perceive their organization as being fair, in a holistic sense, they are more likely to engage in more general and policing related tasks (i.e., enhanced productivity) and refrain from engaging in counterproductive behaviors. These findings are consistent with earlier occupational studies on forms of counterproductive behaviors (Berry et al., 2007; Fox et al., 2001; Sharlarcki & Folger, 1997; Robinson & Bennett, 1995) and police research (Wolfe & Piquero, 2011) and interviews with police officers (Reynolds & Hicks, 2014). This research supports that when officers perceive being mistreated in the form of unfair organizational practices, these experiences can create negative emotions, such as anger, which may result in retaliatory acts directed toward the organization. Furthermore, these negative experiences may result in officers decreasing their daily activities, such as traffic stops, making arrests, and community interactions. Overall, findings indicated that enhancing the perception of overall organizational fairness within a police organization may be vital to reducing counterproductive behaviors against the organization and enhancing police work behaviors.

Previous research has demonstrated that police officers, as a whole, are not content with many facet-specific characteristics of the job (Anshel, 2000; Arter, 2007, Brun, 2005; Carlan, 2007; Reynolds & Hicks, 2014). Some of their primary concerns

revolve around the promotion systems, support from supervisors, complaint processes, and the department administration (Carlan, 2007; Reynolds & Hicks, 2014). Although there are varying reasons that may account for officers' discontentment with their organizations, fairness continues to be at the core of many of these grievances. Perceptions of unfair treatment manifest in the form stress and strain, decreased job satisfaction, and decreased job commitment (Anshel, 2000; Arter, 2007; Brun, 2005; Carlan, 2007; Violanti & Aron, 1995). Furthermore, fairness is relevant for all criminal justice administrators because issues pertaining to fairness are not isolated to police alone but have been shown to influence other criminal justice professions as well, such as correctional officers (Lambert, 2003; Lambert et al., 2001, 2006, 2008).

However, inconsistent with previous studies, this research did not find a significant relationship between fairness and organizational behaviors. One possible reason that fairness was not significantly related to organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) was that engaging in these types of acts may have more to do with internal motivations and personality traits than working environment. Many individuals become officers because they want to help people and serve their community (Reynolds & Hicks, 2014). It may be that even if officers feel mistreated, they continue to help people and want to perform their jobs to their maximum potential. A second explanation may be in relation to construct measurement. This study created a police specific organizational citizenship behavior latent factor consisting of items based on dimensions of OCB described by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, and Bachrach (2000) versus utilizing an existing scale. Therefore, the difference in findings may be differences in how the

variable was measured in this study. It may be that fairness is related to particular aspects or dimensions of OCB, but not as measured in this study.

The Impact of Social Exchange on Overall Work Performance

In prior literature on social exchange (Boateng, 2015; Colquitt et al., 2013; Cropanzano et al., 2002; El Akermi et al., 2007; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Masterson et al., 2000), it was found that trust and perceived support would have a two-fold effect on performance: trust and support directly affect officer work performance, but they also mediate the effects of fairness. These hypotheses were based on concepts of social exchange that purports that relationships are premised upon voluntary reciprocation. Simply, individuals act in manners that would oblige others to reciprocate in a mutually beneficial exchange (Aryee, Budhar, & Chen, 2002; Blau, 1964,1967; Colquitt et al., 2013; Copranzano & Mitchell, 2005). Conversely, negative treatment would initiate a negative norm of reciprocity and a withdrawal of positive reciprocity (El Akrami et al., 2007). Therefore, fairness matters within workplace settings because perceptions of fair treatment impact many types of social exchange relationships within an organization (Cropanzano, Bryne, Bobocel, & Rupp, 2001; Copranzano & Mitchell, 2005). As posited by Copranzano and Mitchell (2005), "social exchange relationships evolve when employers 'take care of employees' which thereby engenders beneficial consequences" (p. 882).

In this study, social exchange was examined between a police department and their officers consistent with a multi-foci research approach (Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002; Rupp et al., 2014). This approach recognized that fairness perceptions are derived from different sources and the responses to the perceptions can be oriented toward different

targets. Based on previous meta-analysis research (Colquitt et al., 2012) and previous police-related research (Armeli et al., 1998; Boateng, 2015), it was hypothesized that both perceived organizational support and trust would mediate the effects of fairness on police officer performance. Overall, the findings did not support these hypotheses and conflicted with previous findings (Armeli et al., 1998; Boateng, 2015). The combined trust/support construct only partially mediated the effect of fairness on self-protective work behaviors, defiance, and patrol tasks. Therefore, findings support that when officers perceive that the organization has officers' best interests in mind and values their contributions to the organization, the officers are less likely to engage in SPB and defiance. Although trust/support does mediate the relationship between fairness and police tasks, the influence is opposite than hypothesized. Trust/support had a negative effect on police tasks rather than a positive effect. The findings in the research support that fairness enhances perceptions of trust/support, which decreases officers' patrol task performance.

One explanation may simply be that as officers build relationships within the organization, there is less fear of being penalized for lower performance—so officers do less work. In addition, trust/support had no significant direct or mediating effect on organizational citizenship behaviors, production deviance, or task performance, which are also inconsistent with previous research. While the inconsistent finding regarding organizational citizenship behavior may be explained due to construct measure, the researcher cannot provide an explanation for why trust/support did not have an influence on general task and production deviance other than the variables simply failed to have a statistically significant effect in this study.

Implications and Benefits of the Research

This present study examined officers' perceptions of organizational trust and organizational support as mediators in the relationship between overall perceived fairness and self-reported police overall performance. The results of this study provide several theoretical and practical implications. First, this study represents theoretical and empirical research regarding the relationships between fairness, social exchange, and performance in police organizations. Despite the fact that both fairness and social exchange have shown to enhance beneficial behaviors and attitudes while decreasing detrimental behaviors and attitudes within general occupational literature, there have been relatively few empirical studies conducted in police organizations. This study adds to the negligible research between police officer perceptions of fairness and their work-related behaviors (Crow et al., 2012; Farmer et al., 2003; Harris & Worden, 2012; Hass et al., 2015; Kaariainen et al., 2008;Wolf & Piquero, 2011). Thus, this study provides insight and a basis for police researchers to further examine the impact that an organizational work environment can have on police officer performance.

Second, this study used a multi-foci examination of the impact of fairness and social exchange within police organizations by exploring the effects of organizational specific perceptions on organizational level outcomes. Thus, this study distinguished between organizational level perceptions and organizational level targets from that of supervisors or peers. This is important because research has shown that employees are influenced and react differently based on the judgment source and the target (Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002; Rupp, Shao, Jones, & Liao, 2014). The results from this study provide further understanding as to how organization-directed attitudes impact organization-

directed responses within police organizations. Furthermore, it demonstrates the importance of distinguishing between both the source and the response target.

Third, this study identifies distinct dimensions of counterwork behaviors to be examined within occupational literature—in particular police organizations. This study provides an initial creation, testing, and validation of measures of police self-protective behaviors, police production deviance, and police defiance to be further examined in future police research.

Fourth, in order to explore and investigate the complex relationships between perceived overall fairness, perceived organizational trust, perceived organizational support, general task, patrol-oriented task, organizational citizenship behaviors, self-protective behaviors, defiance, and production deviance, this study used structural equation modeling (SEM) in order to address several weakness of traditional regression models that have been used to examine the relationship between fairness and police officer work-related behaviors and attitudes in the past. Two primary advantages of using SEM in this study include: (a) structural equation modeling allows for latent variables to be derived and analyzed from multiple indicators in lieu of creating indexes or scales. This is a preferred method because latent variables allow for the assumption of measurement error; and (b) SEM enables multiple dependent and mediating variables to be modeled at the same time, which allows researchers to examine more complex relationships while simultaneously estimating the effects in lieu of having to examine independent equations consistent with regression analysis (Gau, 2010; Iacobucci, 2008).

The fifth benefit of this research is that it developed and tested an overall fairness perception construct that can be used in future research that measures police officers'

overall experiences with their performance, disciplinary actions, advancement and career opportunities, and their overall treatment within the department. This construct provides administrators with an assessment tool to gauge overall perceptions of officers within their departments as a whole and within sub-sections of the department, such as between precincts. Furthermore, this extends previous work by Ambrose and Schmink (2009) by incorporating different facets of police work-related experiences.

Sixth, the findings of this study provide police administrators and researchers with an increased understanding and insight into how fairness, and to some extent, social exchange influence police officer performance. By understanding the antecedents that influence work-related behaviors, administrators can create and implement policies that will enhance police performance, which could ultimately improve the quality of service provided to the community. The results of this study reveal that fairness, in holistic context, within a police organization is vital to enhancing police performance. Officers' perceptions of overall fairness were significantly associated with the frequency in which officers engaged in general and specific police-related tasks and the extent in which they engage in three types of counterproductive work behaviors: (a) production deviance, (b) defiance, and (c) self-protective behaviors. The findings also suggest that increases in positive perceptions of fairness are associated with increased social exchange in the form of trust and perceived organizational support. However, perceived fairness appears to influence work performance more than the social exchange process. Trust/support only had a statistically significant influence on patrol task, defiance, and self-protective behaviors. This suggests the extent that officers' performances are influenced in some part through their perceptions of trust in the organization and their perceived support.

These findings suggest that a crucial element in reducing counterproductive behaviors and enhancing officers' general and patrol-related tasks is improving fairness perceptions within the organization as whole.

However, the ways in which officers are treated within their organization have implications beyond the organization. Of more importance, there is support that how officers are treated will ultimately influence the way officers will treat citizens, which in return, impacts police overall effectiveness (Boateng, 2014). In society, the ability for legal authorities to be effective is dependent upon people to be willing to follow and obey the law, so legal authorities should act in a manner that promotes both compliance and voluntary deference (Tyler, 2006). One concept that has shown to enhance these pro-social behaviors is a concept referred to as *legitimacy*, which consists of an obligation to obey and have trust in an authority (Tyler, 2006). Both of these aspects—obedience and trust in authority—are paramount to garner public support and allows officers to fulfill their order-maintenance role. This public support hinges on people's perceptions that the police are legitimate legal authorities and, therefore, should be obeyed (Jonathan-Zamir et al., 2013; Tyler, 2006). Research has shown perceptions of procedural justice (a) enhances police legitimacy among citizenry (Gau, 2014; Mazerolle et al., 2013, Sunshine & Tyler, 2003; Tyler, 2004, 2006), (b) improves compliance, cooperation, (Tyler & Huo, 2002), (c) shows a willingness to obey the law (Tyler, 2006), (d) reduces legal cynicism (Gau, 2014), (e) increases citizens' assistance in police investigations, and (f) results in increased trust and confidence in the police (Murphy, Lorraine, & Bennett, 2014). Of more importance, these pro-police citizen behaviors have shown to be linked to police

effectiveness. For instance, cooperation with police has shown to increase police efficiency (Bradford, 2012; Tankebe, 2009).

Historical events such as the Watts riots in the 1960s, the L.A. riots in 1990s, and events that transpired as recent as 2014 in Ferguson, Missouri, demonstrate the importance of fostering perceptions of fair treatment during police-citizen interactions. This is why it is vital for police officers to understand how their actions impact the lives of citizens and their views about law enforcement in general (Pollock & Reynolds, 2014) Additionally, it is also important for police administrators to understand that their actions may not only impact officers' perceptions and behaviors but may also impact the way officers interact with the community. Simply, officers need citizens' support and cooperation to be successful and administrators need support and cooperation from their officers, both of which propagated through fair treatment. If police administrators want to enhance perceptions of fairness with the public and build trust and legitimacy, they must first promote fairness internally.

Policy Implications

In general, every organization has a specific culture and environment in which employees must operate; police organizations are no exception. Thus, it is vital to an organization's success that administrators foster a trustworthy and fair environment that confirms to its employees and conveys the message that the organization cares about and values their contributions. These actions are necessary to increase rapport and foster social exchange. One primary influence that impacts relationships is that of perceived fairness. This could be in terms of specific fair outcomes, procedures, treatment, or even overall perceptions of the organization. Previous research, although limited, not only

suggests that officers perceive many facets of their organizations as unfair but that these perceptions can negatively influence officer behaviors and attitudes. This research provides further support of the association among fairness, social exchange, and officer performance within an organization context.

Although fairness, trust, and support are important within any organization, they may be of greater importance in occupations, such as policing, in which employees may be skeptical, cynical, and suspicious of their leadership. For example, numerous media outlets reported a substantial reduction in police productivity (e.g., issued tickets, arrests, etc.) immediately following comments made by the Mayor Bill de Blasio, in New York that was perceived as unsupportive of police (Lind, 2015). Not only were the remarks perceived by many NYPD officers as derogatory toward the professionalism of the New York Police Department and its officers, but they demonstrated a lack of support from the administration (Durkin, 2014; Lind, 2015).

Events, such as the incident in New York, provide us with a recent, real world example of the importance of police executives and supervisors having awareness of how their actions may be perceived by their officers and how these perceptions influence police officers' perceptions and behaviors. Just as perceptions of unfair treatment will foster negative work-related attitudes and behaviors within a police organization, promoting fairness (e.g., utilizing procedural justice practices) will not only enhance organizational legitimacy but also promote positive work behaviors and attitudes.

The importance of fostering fairness within an organization continues to be promoted as a critical element to police organizational success as indicated below:

Just as it is important for a police department to treat community members with respect and dignity in order to ensure that the public will trust and have confidence in the police, it is important for police leaders to instill a sense of legitimacy and procedural justice within their departments. Police officers, like community members, respond well to being treated fairly and with respect (Fischer, 2014, p. 34)

If improving the organizational climate, in regard to enhancing fairness perceptions is important as this research suggest, what can administrators do to promote fairness within police organizations? Previous interviews with officers suggest that "Machiavellian – like" leadership styles, biased or inconsistent policies and procedures, and differential treatment are especially problematic (Reynolds & Hicks, 2014). Thus, organizations should incorporate training that employs procedural justice concepts at all levels of the organization (Colquitt et al., 2013; Pollock & Reynolds, 2014). This training should also be implemented at all stages of an officer's career, such as during his/her training academy (Pollock & Reynolds, 2014; Skogan, Van Craen, & Hennessy, 2014). For example, the Community Oriented Policing Services (COPS) website (www.cops.usdoj.gov) lists several available courses to train officers in procedural justice practices (e.g., "*Procedural Justice for Law Enforcement Organizations: Organizational Change through Decision Making and Policy*"). Administrators may also benefit from implementing leadership styles that promote positive procedural justice judgments (Baker, Gordon, &Taxman, 2014; Fischer, 2014). For example, Hass and colleagues (2015) have showed that fair treatment by supervisors is directly related to officer compliance with rules and policies. Both enhancing training and leadership skills are

consistent with recommendations put forth in the Interim Report of the President's Task Force on 21st Century Policing issued on March 2, 2015, to improve police professionalism and effectiveness (President's Task Force on 21st Century Policing, 2015). Lastly, administrators should continue to review their policies and practices to evaluate how these actions are viewed by their officers, particularly in regard to their disciplinary and complaint processes (De Angelis & Kupchick, 2007; Shane, 2012). For instance, Shane (2012) noted that implementing disciplinary matrixes would enhance officers' perceptions of fair treatment within the organization, while De Angelis and Kupchick (2007) provided guidance on enhancing citizen complaint processes.

Limitations of Research

Although this research provides insight for both researchers and police practitioners in the role that fairness plays in police performance, this study is not without limitations. Some of the limitations included: (a) the use of a cross-sectional design, (b) a non-probability sample, (c) low-response rate, (d) response bias, (e) common method bias, and (f) the use of subjective versus objective measures.

Cross-sectional Design

First, this study utilized a cross-sectional design. Due to this study being cross-sectional in nature, it is important to note that what is being analyzed in this research is the pattern of co-variation among the survey items, which are conceptualized to form the specific latent constructs that were used in this research. Therefore, although this research may provide greater insight into the relationships between examined constructs, the design precludes any reference toward causality. However, the causal direction hypothesized among perceived fairness, social exchange variables, and performance

measures is consistent with existing literature and theoretically based (Colquitt et al, 2013). Furthermore, this study employed SEM to overcome the limitation of the traditional cross-sectional design using linear regression for multivariate analysis, which allowed the researcher to control for the measurement of errors for the latent variables. In addition, the SEM approach enabled the researchers to analyze overall fairness, organizational trust, organizational support, and officer performance in one model that better reflects the complexity of the relationships.

Non-probability Sample

Second, a convenience sample (i.e., non-probability sample) was used in this study. Therefore, one must be cautious, because these results may not be reflective of all officers in the state from which the sample was drawn or even the police officer association as a whole, but merely of reflective of the attitudes and work performances of the participants. Nevertheless, the researcher considers the sampling procedure was appropriate for the purpose of this research because a fairly representative sample of police officers was drawn. The sample demographics were fairly consistent with the demographics of sworn officers in the entire state (see Chapter IV), which provides some assurance that the findings in this study are reflective of law enforcement perceptions and behaviors in the entire state; however, they may not be representative of other states.

Response Rate

A third limitation of the study was that it had a very low response rate. A total of 1,476 participants returned the survey out of 15,666, which provided a response rate of approximately 10%. Although this was a lower response rate than anticipated, it did provide a sufficiently large sample to examine the proposed research questions and test

174

hypotheses associated with this study. However, several plausible reasons may account for the low response rate that will be discussed.

First, it is highly possible that members simply did not read their email from the organization, thus, did not see the survey. Given the large amount of emails individuals could receive daily, it would also not be surprising that many officers simply disregarded the email. The second potential reason is that officers are typically weary and suspicious of outsiders. Police officers work in an environment that is perceived to be filled with dangers and conflict (Skolnick, 2002). Thus, many researchers suggest that officers are socialized into police subculture that promotes loyalty to peers and suspicion of others, including administrators (Kaariainen et al., 2008; Klockars et al., 2003, Paoline, 2004; Skolnick, 2002). This socialization process begins at training and is reinforced by peers and occupational experiences throughout an officer's career (Paolline, 2004; Van Mannan, 1975). Earlier prominent qualitative studies in policing found that officers developed "working personalities" that included suspicion of outsiders and administrators, social isolation, and strong internal group solidarity (Skolnick, 1966), in addition to developing specific work-related attitudes, such as cynicism (Niederhoffer, 1967). Goldstein (1977) argued that the suspicion of outsiders could hinder a researcher's ability to gain accurate and valid data using self-reported surveys. Thus, researchers should be aware of these types of obstacles that may be encountered when studying police attitudes or behaviors.

Previous researchers purport that officers are willing to talk about fairness-related issues within their organizations (De Angelis & Kupchik's, 2007; Reynolds & Hicks, 2014; Shane, 2012). Research also demonstrates that officers are willing to report on their

own and co-workers' behaviors (Hickman, 2007; Kaariainen et al., 2008; Reynolds &

Hicks, 2013). However, this research would suggest that the willingness is largely

dependent on your relationship to the officers and the amount of buy-in you have from

other officers. For example, over half of the participants did not respond to the online

survey until the director of the police organization sent out an email and posted a

comment on the association website that explained that the researcher was not only a

former police officer, but that this survey was approved by the organization, thus

vouching for the researcher and demonstrating that he could be trusted. Overall, it

appears that some officers are willing to self-report their work behaviors. However, this

study would suggest that the large majority of officers will not. This study demonstrates

how deep suspicion of outsiders still remains within police departments and the

importance for researchers to gain buy-in from officers. For several reasons, the survey

for this study was administered as an anonymous, online survey. However, the chosen

data collection methods were not without problems. For instance, there is no way to know

how many officers simply chose not take the survey by choice versus officers who would

have but never saw the survey or request to participate in their email. There is currently a

growing body of research on web-survey design and the impact of instrument design on

response rates. Previous research has shown that images, fonts and script styles, color

schemes, hierarchy of interpretive cues, and response formats influence participants'

responses (Tourangeau, Conrad, & Couper, 2013). It is possible that the participants'

responses may have been influenced by the instrument design of the survey used in this

research. For example, the instrument was constructed through SurveyMonkey, thus was

limited to specific design facets accessible within the program. Thus, further examination, testing, and refinement of this survey instrument is needed.

Response Bias

A fourth limitation concerns potential response bias in not only who completed the survey but also the manner in which the participants answered the survey items. This issue often is a more prominent issue in research with sensitive topics or socially undesirable behaviors (Bradburn, Sudman, & Wasink, 2004; Kalton, 1983). Due to the sensitive nature of this research and using police officers, this research had to deal with potential risk of response bias. For example, 12% of the officers only partially answered the survey, leaving questions pertaining to work-related behaviors blank. Officers may have simply refused to answer the questions out of concern to protect themselves or their department. Simply, officers may have avoided questions that could potentially get them in trouble or show themselves, their department, or police in a less than favorable light. Conversely, the officers may have answered in a way that cast themselves in a favorable light (i.e., social desirability). Thus, there is the possibility when using survey data that the results may stem from systematic biases rather than the hypothesized effects. However, the researcher did take steps in order to reduce response bias. First, this research used a self-report anonymous online survey. Second, the survey was conducted outside of the participant's workplace. Third, the researcher was vetted and given support from the organization's leadership to conduct the survey. Fourth, the researcher ensured them in the informed consent that this was not being done with departments and that their responses were anonymous.

Common Method Variance

The fifth potential limitation involves this research using self-reported measures for all the variables used in the analyses. This allowed for the possibility that the variance may be attributed variable construct versus what the variable was assumed to measure (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Spector, 2006) causing the correlations between variables to become inflated due to common method variance (CMV). However, as noted by Rupp et al. (2014), this is a common issue in justice research since fairness is perceptual in nature and is always self-reported. Although utilizing secondary data or third-person reports (supervisory report) could have potentially reduced common method variance issues (Podsakoff et al., 2003) in this research; the use of self-reported measures was preferred due to the sensitivity of the topic, the difficulty in observing certain types of behaviors (e.g., counterproductive behaviors), and the sample being comprised of police officers. Furthermore, the use of secondary data or third-person reporting would not have allowed for anonymous reporting.

Although a limitation of the study, research has shown that the common method variances' base rate is relatively low (Spector, 2006) and in some cases, revealed no difference between self-reported and third-party reports of outcome measures (Rupp et al., 2014) For example, a study on integrity violations by Ones, Viswesvaran, and Schmidt (1993), revealed higher validity estimates among self-reports. In explanation of their finds, they made note of the fact that many behaviors go unnoticed, thus limiting the validity of external measures. Secondly, there is an abundance of evidence for robust correlations between a participant's responses and actual behavior (Ones et al., 1993). In addition, other researchers have commented that utilizing supervisory assessments may

not provide a more reliable estimate of employee performance due to the halo effect (Dalal, 2005; Dalal et al., 2012). Simply, supervisors may overestimate or underestimate behaviors due to preexisting bias. Overall, research has shown that self-report surveys are a viable means to measure aspects of fairness and work performance within a police organization.

Subjective Versus Objective Measures

The sixth and final limitation that will be discussed concerns the use of subjective versus an objective measures. Although the research supports a theoretical causal model between fairness, social exchange, and officer performance, the indicators used to measure these concepts are not objective. For example, the factor representing perceived overall fairness is based on indicators that measure a police officer's perception of fairness in the organization. Simply, whether the department is actually fair is not being measured, only how the officer perceives fairness within the organization. The same holds true among the performance measures.

Since the performance indicators (i.e., organizational citizenship behaviors or defiance) are based on self-report items, there may exist differences between what people think they do and what they actually do. However, given that police work is often performed outside direct supervision, it is often difficult to measure behaviors other than job-related tasks that can be verified by official data (i.e., incident reports, traffic stop data forms). Particularly, counterproductive behaviors that are often performed covertly can make it more difficult to measure using official data (i.e., complaints and disciplinary records) or third-party observations (i.e., peers or supervisors). Therefore, the use of self-report data provides an efficient alternative method to address this issue. However, the

179

findings are based on subjective measures, thus these measures should be considered when evaluating the findings of this research.

Avenues for Future Research

Even though this research adds to police literature and our understanding of the direct and indirect effects of fairness on police performance, there is further research to be done. First, further research needs to be explored in identifying different typologies of counterproductive behaviors beyond just organization target responses, such as interpersonal deviance: rude behaviors, sabotage, verbal abuse, and gossip. These measures have been used in general occupational literature (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Berry et al., 2000, 2003, 2007; Dalal, 2005; Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Sharlicki & Folger, 1997). In addition, researchers should further examine counterproductive-directed responses to supervisors and coworkers consistent with the mutli-folci approach (Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002; Rupp, Shao, Jones, & Liao, 2014).

Next, although this research examined social exchange as a potential mediator between fairness perceptions and police officer work performance, other potential mediators should be explored (commitment, leader-member exchange (LMX), job-satisfaction) that have been shown to influence other police-related behaviors and attitudes (Crow et al., 2012). In addition, potential moderators of fairness perceptions and performance should be incorporated in future police performance research, such as the individual traits (Aquino & Douglas, 2003; Colquitt et al., 2013). Examples would be negative effect (Dalal et al., 2012; Penney & Spector, 2005), emotional intelligence (Devonish & Greenidge, 2010), and equity sensitivity (Blakely et al., 2005), all of which

have shown to moderate the effects of fairness on performance outcomes within the general occupation literature.

Although many demographic variables such as age, race, education, and marital status have been found not to be significantly related to perceptions of fairness in general occupational research (Baker, Gordon, & Taxman, 2014; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Skarlicki, Folger, & Tesluk, 1999; Tyler, 2011) or police research (Crow et al., 2012; Tyler et al. 2007), future research should continue to explore other organizational or individual characteristics that may be linked to fairness perceptions. Researchers should incorporate measures that examine differences in organizational environment and work experiences, for example:

- The organizational use of a disciplinary matrix

- Department size

- Officer tenure

- Duty position within the organization

- Officer rank

- Disciplinary record of officer

Previous research has suggested that many of these organizational factors may play a role in influencing officers' perceptions of fairness within the organization (Boateng, 2015; Baker, Gordon, & Taxman, 2014; Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2003; Eitle et al., 2014; Harris & Worden, 2012; Hass et al., 2015; Shane, 2012, 2013; Tyler et al. 2007; Violanti & Aron, 1995). Although not the focus of this study, post-analyses related to this research suggest many of these organizational factors and officer-related variables are related to perceptions of overall fairness, such previous disciplinary actions, tenure,

and whether the department utilizes a disciplinary matrix (see Appendix C for post-analyses results).

Expanding beyond the organization, future research should also continue to explore how the work environment within a police organization influences officers' attitudes and behaviors toward the public (Barker, 1999; Farmer et al., 2003; Hass et al., 2015; Hassell, 2007; Neiderohoffer, 1967; Reuss-Ianni, 1993; Skolnick, 1966; Van Maanen, 1975). For instance, examine how procedural justice practices implemented within both police organizations and police academy training is associated with an officer's implementation of procedural justice practices during police-citizen interactions (Skogan, Van Craen, & Hennessy, 2014). This is important, because the way the police interact with citizens and the fairness of the procedures they use impact citizens' perception of police legitimacy (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003)

Conclusion

Although advances continue to be made regarding our understanding of how certain organizational factors influence police officers' behaviors (Beckman, Lum, Wyckoff, & Larsen-Vander Wall, 2003; Frydl & Skogan, 2004; Shane, 2012), there are still relatively few police studies that examine the associations between perceptions of organizational justice and performance outcomes within policing (Baker, Gordon, & Taxman, 2014; Farmer et al., 2003; Kaariainen et al., 2008; Tyler et al., 2007; Wolfe & Piquero, 2011) or that examine indicators of social exchange within police organizations (Armeli et al., 1998). Therefore, a primary reason for this research was to increase our understanding of how fairness and social exchange work within police organizations, while simultaneously examining the potential mediating effects of social exchange

between overall fairness perceptions and self-reported police performance among police officers.

This was cross-sectional study of police officers' self-reported attitudes and self-reported work-related behaviors. The data for this research were collected using an online self-reported survey consisting of 76 questions. The survey was administered to a non-probability (i.e., convenience) sample of sworn law enforcement officers who were members of police officer associations in a southern state. A total of 1,476 officers responded (10% response rate). Survey questions were designed to measure nine proposed theoretical concepts (latent factors) relevant to this study: perceived overall fairness, perceived organizational trust, perceived organizational support, general task performance, patrol-oriented task, organizational citizenship behaviors, production deviance, organizational defiance, and self-protective behaviors. The remaining nine questions pertained to officers and department characteristics: years of police experience, the size of the department, whether the department utilizes a disciplinary matrix, whether the officer has received previous disciplinary actions, officer's rank, officer's duty position, officer's self-reported race, ethnicity, and gender.

Fairness, trust, and support were measured using a six-point Likert type response scale to measure perceptions ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree), with fairness having an additional option of (not applicable) for each question. The latent factors: general task performance, patrol-oriented task, organizational citizenship behaviors, production deviance, organizational defiance, and self-protective items used a six-point Likert type response scale to measure frequency ranging from 1 (never) to 6 (most of the time).

Prior to conducting structural equation modeling to examine the relationships and effects of overall fairness, perceived organizational trust, perceived organizational support, a measurement model or confirmatory factor analysis was conducted on the data using both R statistical program and Stata. This was done in order to assess how well each of the items loaded onto their respective constructs. Prior to examining the measurement and structural model, the sample data were split so that 50% of the data were in a training dataset, while the other 50% were in a test dataset. The train dataset was used to build the model, and the test dataset was used to confirm the model's fit with an independent sample. Modification indices were examined and items were removed until a good measurement model fit. Next, to address the research questions and hypotheses, a structural model was developed to examine the effects of overall fairness, organizational trust, and perceived organizational support. The structural model used to test research hypotheses showed a good model fit for the training data and test dataset.

The structural model was used to test hypotheses related to the primary research questions:

1. What are the relationships between overall fairness, organizational trust, perceived organizational support, organizational citizenship behaviors, task performance, production deviance, self-protective behaviors, and defiance?

2. Do perceived organizational support and organizational trust mediate the effects between overall fairness and organizational citizenship behaviors, task performance, production deviance, self-protective behaviors, and defiance?

Findings from the analyses showed that overall fairness was positively related to general task performance, patrol-related task performance, and organizational

trust/support, while negatively related to self-protective behaviors, deviance, and defiance. Organizational trust/support was negatively related to self-protective behaviors. In regard to the mediation effects of perceived organizational support and trust between overall fairness and police officer performance, findings showed combined measure of organizational trust and perceived organizational support did partially mediate the effects between overall fairness and patrol task performance, deviance, and self-protective behaviors.

Final Remarks

The primary purpose of the study was to develop and test a model that examines the mediating roles of trust and perceived support in linking perceptions of overall organizational fairness and police officer performance. This study provides considerable insight into the role that fairness and social exchange play in influencing police officer work performance. Overall the results demonstrate that fairness influences both attitudes and behaviors directed toward the organization among police officers.

From a policy standpoint, the findings increase our understanding of police performance and provides guidance to help police administrators increase performance and ultimately the quality of service provided to the community. One of the best ways police administrators can enhance officer performance is to implement the same fairness procedures within their organization that they use to enhance police legitimacy within communities. In short, departments should consider implementing procedural justice-based policies internally. This research provides further support for both the influence that fairness has on police officer performance, but also the importance for police administrators to become more proactive in fostering a work environment that promotes

fairness principles throughout all levels of the organization. In summary, if administrators want to improve the quality of service officers provided to the community and reduce police counterproductive work behaviors, they must first improve the working conditions of officers. This research demonstrates that one of the ways police administrators can improve working conditions is the manner in which officers are treated. Simply put, cops who feel they are treated well will more likely do their jobs well.

APPENDIX SECTION

APPENDIX A

PERMISSION TO USE (POS) SCALE: EMAIL CORRESPONDENCE

WITH DR. EISENBERGER

July 24, 2014

Dear Paul,

I am happy to give you permission to use the POS scale. The POS items have been found to work well with a wide variety of occupations including uniformed occupations. If you use your own items that emulate the POS scale you will not be able to directly compare your results with prior results. In short, I think it is a good idea to use the standard POS items, substituting the word "Department" for "organization."

Cordially,
Bob
Robert Eisenberger
Professor of Psychology
College of Liberal Arts & Soc. Sciences
Professor of Management
C. T. Bauer College of Business
University of Houston
reisenberger2@uh.edu
(302)353-8151

TEXAS ★ STATE
UNIVERSITY ®

The rising STAR of Texas

POLICE OFFICER: ORGANIZATIONAL ENVIRONMENT AND SATISFACTION SURVEY

RESEARCH PARTICPANT INFORMATION AND CONSENT FORM

Hello, my name is Paul Reynolds. I am a former police officer and currently enrolled in the School of Criminal Justice Doctoral Program at Texas State University- San Marcos. In cooperation with TMPA, I am conducting a survey to help better understand the impact of police officers' working environment. Your input is appreciated and is a vital part of this research. If you have any questions regarding this project, please feel free to contact me at (pr1100@txstate.edu).

This survey asks questions about your feelings/opinions pertaining to perceptions of fairness, support, and trust in regards to your organization. The survey also asks questions that pertain to how these feelings/ opinions impact your work habits. Several sample questions from the survey are provided below. You are welcome to look at a copy of the full survey before you decide whether or not to participate. If you would like to do so, please email the researcher listed above.

SAMPLE QUESTIONS

- Indicate your level of agreement with the following statement: overall, I have been treated fairly at this department.

- Indicate your level of agreement with the following statement: if I had my way, I wouldn't let my leadership have any influence over decisions that are important to me.

- Indicate your level of agreement with the following statement: the organization strongly considers my goals and values.

- Indicate the extent you engage in the following action: I try to act in the best interest of the department when I make decisions.

- Indicate the extent you engage in the following action: I try to stay motivated doing police work.

What am I being asked to do?

You have been chosen to participate in this survey by the researcher, because of your experience working in the law enforcement field. I believe officers have something very important to say on this topic. The survey should take approximately15-20 minutes to complete. Unfortunately, there is no compensation for this survey, but your participation is greatly appreciated. My hope for this research is to be able to construct future police policies and programs that will enhance working conditions for

1

men and women in law enforcement.

Do I have to take the survey?

You do not have to take the survey. Your participation is voluntary. There are no consequences, costs, or financial risks to you if you decides not to participate in the survey. Some of the questions may seem personal. Should you decide that you want to participate, but come across a question you do not feel comfortable answering; you can chose to skip that question. Furthermore, you may end your participation at any time by simply going to the end of the survey and clicking the (done) button.

Will you share my answers with anyone?

This survey is completely anonymous and is designed to protect your privacy. Your answers will only be available to the researcher. NO IDENTYFYING INFORMATION, SUCH AS YOUR NAME, EMPLOYEE ID, OR EMPLOYER WILL BE ASKED ANYWHERE ON THE SURVEY. Please do not put any personal or identifying information on the survey form.

Further, information collected in this survey is for research purposes only. The results of this survey will on be published as a group of respondents. When the results of the survey are discussed, none of your information will be connected to the data. No personal information will be used in any report. Furthermore, the name of your police organization will also not be mentioned, but referred to as a police officer association in Texas.

CONTINUED ON NEXT PAGE.

Next

TEXAS ★ STATE
UNIVERSITY ®
The rising STAR of Texas

POLICE OFFICER: ORGANIZATIONAL ENVIRONMENT AND SATISFACTION SURVEY

RESEARCH PARTICPANT INFORMATION AND CONSENT FORM CONT.

How was I selected?

You received this request because of your affiliation with the Texas Police Officer Association. Upon emailing you, any email list provided to or used by the researcher will be destroyed. When you submit your responses to the online survey, your IP address is not stored in the results by Survey Monkey. Therefore, your responses are anonymous to the researcher. In addition, for your protections and privacy, your responses will be transmitted using SSL encryption (Verisign certificate Version 3, 128 bit encryption).

What if I have questions about the survey?

Should you have questions about this survey, you may contact the principle researcher Paul Reynolds (pr1100@txstate.edu). The dissertation chair/faculty sponsor for this project is Dr. Jocelyn Pollock, professor for the School of Criminal Justice at Texas State (jp12@txstate.edu). The results of this study will also be available to you upon request (via email) to the researcher.

Texas State University is very careful to ensure that all research conducted by university affiliates, in no way endangers the safety or wellbeing of research participants. There are no foreseeable risks, neither physical nor emotional, for you in this research project. This research (EXP2014N112591I) was approved by the Texas State IRB on 10-15-2014. Pertinent questions or concerns about this research, research participants right, and/or research-related injuries to participants should be directed to the IRB chair, Dr. Jon Lasser (512-245-3413 – lasser@txstate.edu) and to Becky Northcut, Director, Research integrity & Compliance (512-245-2314- bnorthcut@txstate.edu).

TO COMPLETE THIS SURVEY, YOU MUST HAVE READ AND UNDERSTOOD THE TERMS AND CONDITIONS LISTED ABOVE. PLEASE PRINT A COPY FOR YOUR RECORDS PRIOR TO CONTINUING.

Prev   Next

3

TEXAS ★ STATE
UNIVERSITY ®
The rising STAR of Texas

POLICE OFFICER: ORGANIZATIONAL ENVIRONMENT AND SATISFACTION SURVEY

1. I have read the consent form and volunteer to particpate in this survey

○ YES

○ NO

2. I am a certified-sworn law enforcement officer working for a state, county, or local law enforcement agency.

○ YES

○ NO

[Prev] [Next]

4

TEXAS ★ STATE
UNIVERSITY ®
The rising STAR of Texas

POLICE OFFICER: ORGANIZATIONAL ENVIRONMENT AND SATISFACTION SURVEY

3. For each statement, indicate your level of agreement with the following statements, on a scale ranging from (1) Strongly Disagree to (6) Strongly Agree.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree	N/A
My performance evaluations have been fair.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My disciplinary actions have been fair.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Opportunities to advance my career have been fair.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Overall, I have been treated fairly at this department.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Most officers who complain about fairness in this department have valid reasons.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Disciplinary actions at this department are fair overall.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
It matters who you are than what you do, when it comes to promtions and job assignements.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Officers evaluations are fair at this department.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Prev   Next

TEXAS ★ STATE
UNIVERSITY ®

The rising STAR *of Texas*

POLICE OFFICER: ORGANIZATIONAL ENVIRONMENT AND SATISFACTION SURVEY

4. For each statement, indicate your level of agreement with the following statements, on a scale ranging from (1) Strongly Disagree to (6) Strongly Agree.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
The department keeps my interests in mind when making decisions.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I would be willing to let my leadership have complete control over my future in this department.	○	○	○	○	○	○
If my leadership asked why a problem occurred, I would speak freely even if I were partly to blame.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel comfortable being creative because my leadership understands that sometimes creative solutions do not work.	○	○	○	○	○	○
It is important for me to have a good way to keep an eye on my leadership.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Increasing my vulnerability to criticism by my leadership would be a mistake.	○	○	○	○	○	○
If I had my way, I wouldn't let my leadership have any influence over decisions that are important to me.	○	○	○	○	○	○
The organization values my contribution to its well-being.	○	○	○	○	○	○

193

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
If the organization could hire someone to replace me at a lower salary it would do so.	○	○	○	○	○	○
The organization strongly considers my goals and values.	○	○	○	○	○	○
The organization would ignore a complaint from me.	○	○	○	○	○	○
The organization really cares about my well-being.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice.	○	○	○	○	○	○
The organization would grant a reasonable request for a change in my working conditions.	○	○	○	○	○	○
The organization is willing to help me when I need a special favor.	○	○	○	○	○	○
If given the opportunity, the organization would take advantage of me.	○	○	○	○	○	○
The organization shows very little concern for me.	○	○	○	○	○	○
The organization takes pride in my work accomplishments at work.	○	○	○	○	○	○

Prev   Next

7

194

TEXAS ★ STATE UNIVERSITY

The rising STAR of Texas

POLICE OFFICER: ORGANIZATIONAL ENVIRONMENT AND SATISFACTION SURVEY

5. Evaluate the following statements. For each statement, indicate the extent you engage in the following actions on a scale ranging from (1) Never to (6) Most of the time.

	NEVER	VERY RARELY	SELDOM	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	MOST OF THE TIME
Fulfill the responsibilities specified for someone in your position.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Perform tasks usually expected by your work organization as part of your job.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Complete your work in a timely, effective manner.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Meet the performance expectations of your supervisor.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I stay busier than other officers I work with.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am proactive in crime fighting than others officers.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I answer more dispatched calls than other officers i work with.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I try to assit citizens more than other officers	○	○	○	○	○	○
I go out of my way to assist citizens in distress even when not required by policy.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I assist less experienced officers when they have questions.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I try to cheer up other officers when they seem down.	○	○	○	○	○	○

	NEVER	VERY RARELY	SELDOM	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	MOST OF THE TIME
I try to stay motivated doing police work.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I get frustrated when I have to stay past my normal shift time.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I try to set a good example for other officers on the department.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I follow organizational rules even when I disagree with them.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I make negative comments about my department to others.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I often recommend to others that they should apply to my department.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I try to find out what happened prior in my sector/precinct before my shift starts.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I volunteer to take pending calls, even when I don't have to.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I try to be proactive in my enforcement activities when I have an opportunity.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I attend departmental sponsored functions even when off duty.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I stay abreast of organizational changes in the department	○	○	○	○	○	○
I try to attend as much training as possible, even if I have to pay for it myself.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I try to find ways to improve my skills and abilities an officer.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Meet up with coworkers to talk instead of engaging in work-related activities.	○	○	○	○	○	○

	NEVER	VERY RARELY	SELDOM	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	MOST OF THE TIME
Purposely disregard authority directives when opportunity arises.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Prev Next

	NEVER	VERY RARELY	SELDOM	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	MOST OF THE TIME
Do the bare minimal that is expected.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Sleep or take cat naps during your shift.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Engage in non-job related activities while on duty (reading, watching movies).	○	○	○	○	○	○
Take longer on calls to avoid other work.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I try to 'Lay-low' and stay off the department's radar.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I look after the welfare of others before myself.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I take extra precautions daily to protect myself from allegations.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I try to act in the best interest of the department when I make decisions.	○	○	○	○	○	○
In regard to my administration, I try to watch my back.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I use Departmental rules, policies, or laws against the administration when needed.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I purposely try undermining the administration's goals when opportunity arises.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I purposely disregard organizational policies or procedures when opportunity arises.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Attempt to make leadership look incompetent or foolish in front of others when opportunity arises.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I purposely try undermining leadership when opportunity arises.	○	○	○	○	○	○

10

	NEVER	VERY RARELY	SELDOM	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	MOST OF THE TIME
Purposely disregard authority directives when opportunity arises.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Prev   Next

TEXAS★STATE ®
UNIVERSITY
The rising STAR of Texas

BACKGROUND/ DEMOGRAPHICS

6. As of january, how many years have you been an officer?

7. Have you ever recieved formal disciplinary actions?
○ yes
○ No

8. Does your department utilize a disciplinary matrix?
○ yes
○ NO

9. How many sworn officers are in your police department/organization?

10. What is your primary position in the organization?

11. What is your current rank in the organization?

12. Which ethnicity do you most associate with?

13. Which race do you most associate with?

14. What is your gender?
○ Female
○ Male

12

200

APPENDIX C

POST-ANALYSES AND RESULTS

For completeness and to further explore the impact the organization and officer related characteristics have on perceptions of overall fairness, demographics were added into the previous model. Gender was coded as 0 = female, 1 = male. Race was coded as 0 = non-White, 1 = White. Ethnicity was coded as 0 = non-Hispanic, 1 = Hispanic. Duty was coded as 0 = non-patrol, 1 = patrol. Discipline was coded as 0 = no, 1 = yes. Discipline matrix was coded as 0 = no, 1 = yes. Tenure was coded initially as a continuous variable initially and then recoded as categorical variable with 1 = 1 to 2, 2 = 3 to 8, 3 = 9 to 15, 4 = 16 to 20, and 5 = 21 or greater years of service for additional analysis. Rank was coded as 0 = non-supervisor and 1 = supervisor. Results presented good model fit, χ^2 (1141) = 2427.269, p < .001, CFI = .912, TLI = .906, RMSEA = .040.

Results showed that discipline (β = -.181, p < .001), discipline matrix (β = .239, p < .001), tenure (β = .094, p = .025), and rank (β = .135, p < .001) all had significant effects on overall fairness. Overall fairness had a significant effect on trust/support, β = .850, p < .001. Overall fairness (β = -.006, p = .953) and trust/support (β = .079, p = .417) did not have significant effects on Citizenship. Fairness (β = .494, p < .001) and trust/support (β = -.194, p = .048) had significant effects on general task performance. Fairness (b = .456, p < .001) and trust/support (b = -.251, p = .012) both had significant effects on patrol task performance. For self-protective behaviors, both fairness (β = -.321, p < .001) and trust/support (β = -.470, p < .001) were significant. Fairness (β = -.220, p = .034) and trust/support (B = -.183, p = .076) were both significant for production deviance. For defiance, both fairness (β = -.249, p = .009) and trust/support (β = -.208, p

= .024) were significant. Table C1 provides standardized regression estimates for post structural model and Figure C1 presents the shows the structural analysis model with demographics included from R. It is worth noting that the addition of demographics into the model changes the covariance structure, which gives slightly different estimates than the model in Figure C2. The hypothesized negative relationship between trust/support and general task performance becomes significant with the inclusion of demographics in the model, $p = .048$.

Mediation Effects

The mediation effects in the SEM model with the demographics included were similar to the first SEM model. The indirect effect of trust & support as a mediator between fairness and self-protective behaviors was -.40, $p < .001$, and the direct effect was -.321, $p < .001$. The indirect effect of trust & support as a mediator between fairness and police task performance was -.214, $p = .013$, and the direct effect was .456, $p < .001$. The indirect effect of trust & support as a mediator between fairness and defiance was -.177, $p = .025$, and the direct effect was -.249, $p = .009$. Mediation effects are provided in Table C2.

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine if there were significant differences between the fairness scores of the various tenure levels as defined above (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5). Table C3 outlines the sum of squares test and Table C4 shows standardized coefficients scores.

The results of the ANOVA indicated that there were significant differences in the tenure levels, $F = 6.51$, $p < .001$. Running the analysis as a linear regression on the tenure

groups yields coefficients for each group. We can see from Table C5 that there is a

significant negative relationship between tenure level 2, b = -0.58, p = .003, and tenure 3,

b = -0.52, p = .007. This means that subjects in lower tenure levels tend to have

significantly lower fairness scores compared to rookies.

Conducting Path Analysis

As an additional validity check, the SEM model (with the demographics) was run

in R as a path analysis. Each set of observed variables were averaged to create a

composite score instead of a latent variable. The demographic variables from the SEM

model were used (discipline, discipline matrix, and rank). Path analysis is conducted in a

similar manner to SEM, but some of the assumptions are different. Path analysis assumes

that the independent variables are fixed and measured without error. It also assumes a

linear relationship between the independent and dependent variables, and that the mean

of the residuals over many replications is zero.

The resulting model had a marginally good model fit, $\chi^2(28) = 84.537$, $p = < .001$,

CFI = 0.972, TLI = 0.939, RMSEA = 0.053. For the demographic variables, Discipline (β

= -.180, p < .001), discipline matrix (β = .243, p < .001), and rank (β = .174, p < .001)

were significant. Tenure was not significant in the model, β = .070, p = .080. Fairness had

a significant effect on trust/support, b = .782, p < .001. Fairness (b = -.068, p = .280) did

not have a significant effect on organizational citizenship behaviors, but trust/support (β

= .132, p = .036) was significant. Fairness (β = .205, p < .001) had a significant effect on

General Task Performance, but trust/support (b = -.033, p = .595) was not significant. For

patrol task performance, fairness (β = .293, p < .001) was significant, but trust/support (β

= -.026, p = .673) was not. Both fairness (β = -.324, p < .001) and trust/support (β = -

.320, p < .001) had significant effects on self-protective behaviors. Both fairness (β = -.165, p = .007) and trust/support (b = -.155, p = .010) had significant effects on production deviance. For defiance, both fairness (b = -.317, p < .001) and trust/support (b = -.190, p < .001) were significant. Figure C2 presents the results of the path analysis model from R. Table C5 shows the regression estimates of the inner model.

Mediation Effects

The mediation effects in the path analysis model with the demographics included were slightly different than the SEM models. The indirect effect of trust/support as a mediator between fairness and self-protective behaviors was -.25, p < .001, and the direct effect was -.324, p < .001. The indirect effect of trust/support as a mediator between fairness and police task performance was -.026, p = .595, and the direct effect was .205, p = .001. The indirect effect of trust and support as a mediator between fairness and defiance was -.148, p = .001, and the direct effect was -.317, p < .001. See Table C6 for results of mediation effects of trust/support in path analysis model.
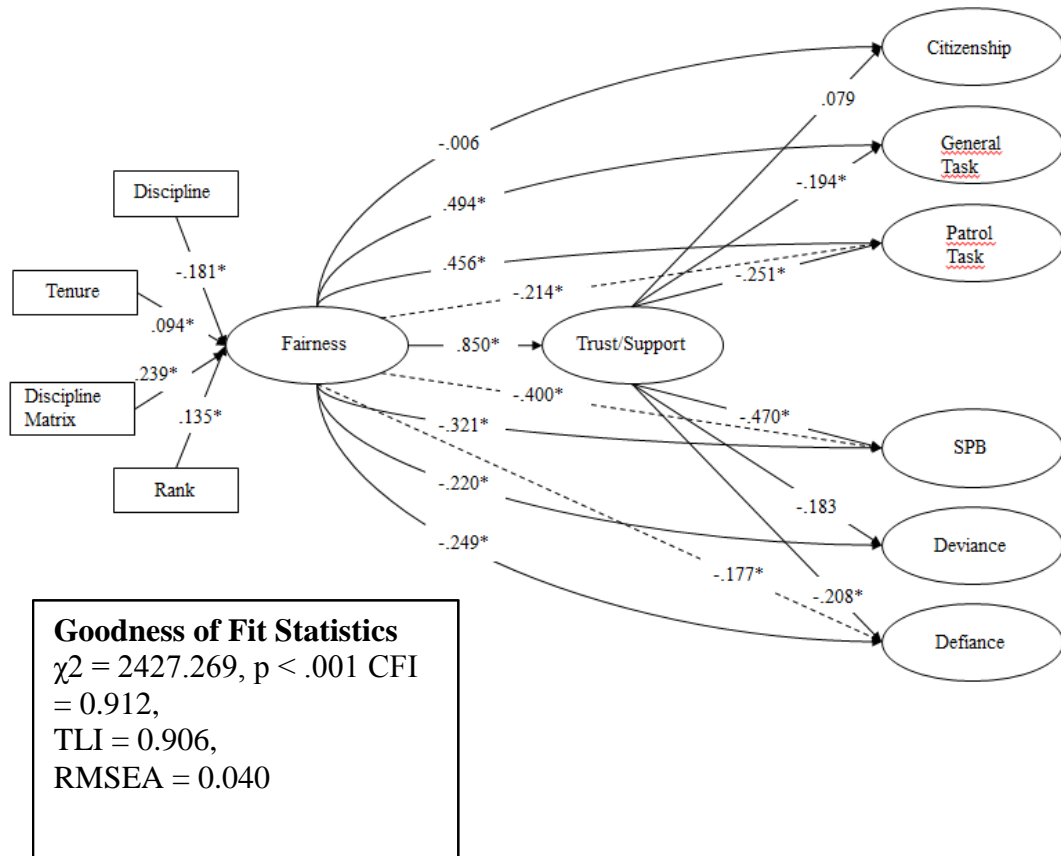
Figure C1. **Final Structural Model Including Demographics with Standardized Path Estimates.** Dashed line represents significant indirect effect.
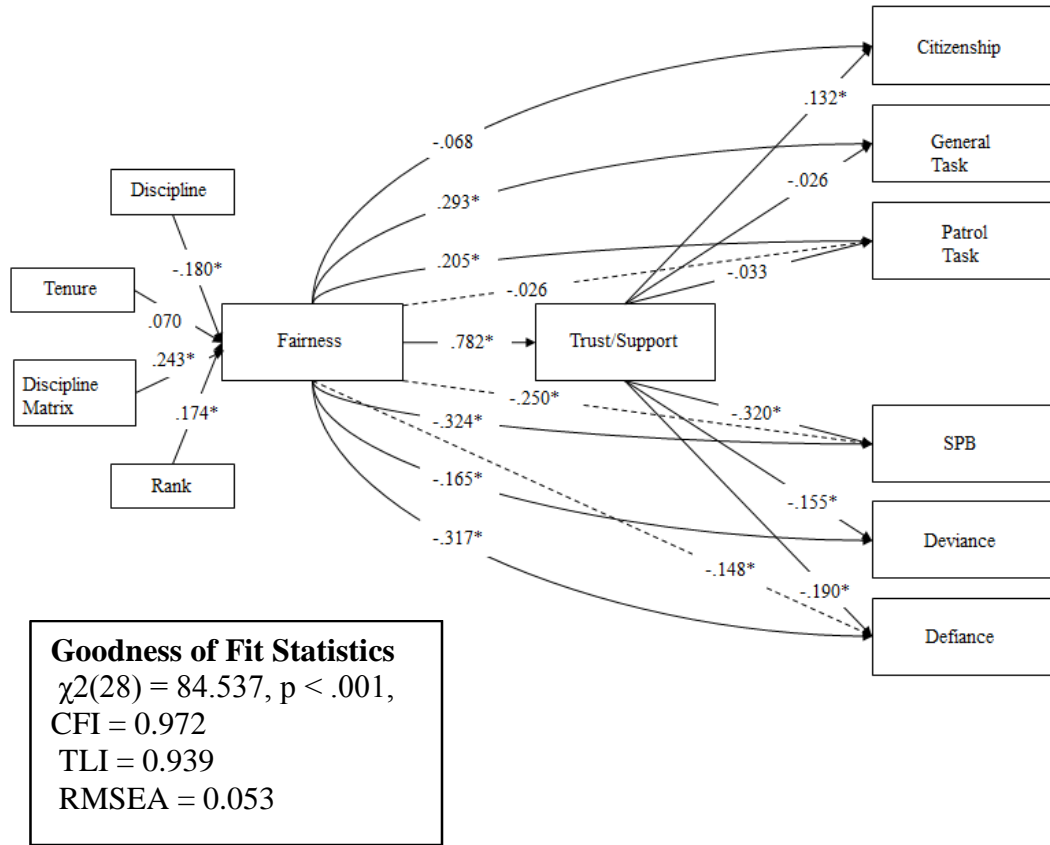
Figure C2. **Path Analysis Including Demographics with Standardized Path Estimates**. Dashed line represents significant indirect effect.

Table C1. Standardized Regression Estimates for Post SEM Model with Demographics

Latent Variables and Predictors	β	SE	z	p
Fairness				
Discipline	-0.181	0.084	-4.497	.001*
Discipline Matrix	0.239	0.081	5.983	.001*
Tenure	0.094	0.034	2.24	.025*
Rank	0.135	0.087	4.289	.001*
Trust/Support				
Fairness	0.85	0.053	18.632	.001*
Organizational Citizenship behaviors				
Fairness	-0.006	0.065	-0.059	0.953
Trust/Support	0.079	0.055	0.811	0.417
General Task				
Fairness	0.494	0.058	4.880	.001*
Trust/Support	-0.194	0.048	-1.981	.048*
Patrol Task				
Fairness	0.456	0.094	4.44	.001*
Trust/Support	-0.251	0.079	-2.506	.012*
Self-Protective Behaviors				
Fairness	-0.321	0.087	-3.756	.001*
Trust/Support	-0.47	0.073	-5.597	.001*
Deviance				
Fairness	-0.22	0.061	-2.116	.034*
Trust/Support	-0.183	0.052	-1.774	.076*
Defiance				
Fairness	-0.249	0.069	-2.623	.009*
Trust/Support	-0.208	0.058	-2.252	.024*

*p < .05.

Table C2. Mediation Effects of Trust and Support in SEM Model with Demographics

Variable	Indirect Effect	Direct Effect	Total Effect	z	p
Fairness & SPB	-0.400	-0.321	-0.721	-5.548	.001*
Fairness & Patrol Task	-0.214	0.456	0.242	-2.488	.013*
Fairness & Defiance	-0.177	-0.249	-0.426	-2.249	.025*

*p < .05.

Table C3. Type III Sum of Squares

Variable	Sum. Sq.	df	F-value	p
Intercept	898.30	1	548.16	< .001
Tenure	42.69	4	6.51	< .001
Residuals	2051.72	1252		

Table C4. Coefficients for ANOVA Testing for Differences in Fairness by Tenure

Variable	B	SE	t	p
Intercept	4.32	0.18	23.41	< .001
3-8 years	-0.58	0.19	-2.95	0.003
9-15 years	-0.52	0.19	-2.66	0.007
15-20 years	-0.11	0.2	-0.58	0.559
21 plus years	-0.3	0.19	-1.54	0.125

Table C5. Standardized Regression Estimates for Post Path Analysis Model with Demographics

Latent Variables and Predictors		β	*SE*	*z*	*p*
Fairness					
	Discipline	-0.18	0.102	-4.727	.001*
	Discipline Matrix	0.243	0.098	6.534	.001*
	Tenure	0.070	0.043	1.749	0.080
	Rank	0.174	0.080	4.427	.001*
Trust/Support					
	Fairness	0.782	0.020	32.855	.001*
Citizenship					
	Fairness	-0.068	0.030	-1.080	0.280
	Trust/Support	0.132	0.036	2.102	.036*
G. Task					
	Fairness	0.205	0.043	3.275	.001*
	Trust/Support	-0.033	0.051	-0.532	0.595
P. Task					
	Fairness	0.293	0.03	4.796	.001*
	Trust/Support	-0.026	0.036	-0.422	0.673
SPB					
	Fairness	-0.324	0.048	-6.411	.001*
	Trust/Support	-0.320	0.058	-6.380	.001*
Deviance					
	Fairness	-0.165	0.037	-2.716	.007*
	Trust/Support	-0.155	0.044	-2.573	.010*
Defiance					
	Fairness	-0.317	0.019	-5.694	.001*
	Trust/Support	-0.190	0.023	-3.429	.001*

*p < .05.

Table C6. Mediation Effects of Trust and Support In Path Analysis

Variable	Indirect Effect	Direct Effect	Total Effect	*z*	*p*
Fairness & SPB	-0.25	-0.324	-0.574	-6.263	.001*
Fairness & Patrol Task	-0.026	0.205	0.179	-0.532	0.595
Fairness & Defiance	-0.148	-0.318	-0.466	-3.41	.001*
*p < .05.					

REFERENCES

Adams, G. A., & Buck, J. (2010). Social stressors and strain among police officers: It's not just the bad guys. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, *37*(9), 1030-1040.

Adams, J. S. (1963). Toward an understanding of inequity. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, *67*, 422-436.

Adams, J. S. (1965). Inequity in social exchange. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 2, pp. 267-299). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Ambrose, M. L. (2002). Contemporary justice research: A new look at familiar questions. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 89*(1), 803-812.

Ambrose, M. L., & Schminke, M. (2009). The role of overall justice judgments in organizational justice research: A test of mediation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *94*(2), 491.

Ambrose, M. L., Seabright, M. A., & Schminke, M. (2002). Sabotage in the workplace: The role of organizational injustice. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *89*(1), 947-965.

Anshel, M. H. (2000). A conceptual model and implications for coping with stressful events in police work. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, *27*(3), 375-400.

Aquino, K., & Douglas, S. (2003). Identity threat and antisocial behavior in organizations: The moderating effects of individual differences, aggressive modeling, and hierarchical status. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *90*(1), 195-208.

Aquino, K., Tripp, T. M., & Bies, R. J. (2006). Getting even or moving on? Power,

    procedural justice, and types of offense as predictors of revenge, forgiveness,

    reconciliation, and avoidance in organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*,

    91(3), 653-668.

Armeli, S., Eisenberger, R., Fasolo, P., & Lynch, P. (1998). Perceived organizational

    support and police performance: The moderating influence of socioemotional

    needs. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *83*, 288-297.

Arrigo, B. A., & Claussen, N. (2003). Police corruption and psychological testing: A

    strategy for preemployment screening. *International Journal of Offender Therapy*

    and Comparative Criminology, 47(3), 272-290.

    doi:10.1117/0306624x03047003003

Arter, M. L. (2007). Stress and deviance in policing. *Deviant Behavior*, *29*(1), 43-69.

Aryee, S., Budhar, P. S., & Chen, Z. X. (2002). Trust as a mediator of the relationship

    between organizational justice and work outcomes: Test of a social exchange

    model. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 23*, 267-285.

Baker, T., Gordon, J. A., & Taxman, F. S. (2014). A hierarchical analysis of correctional

    officers' procedural justice judgments of correctional institutions: Examining the

    influence of transformational leadership. *Justice Quarterly*.

    doi:10.1080/07418825.2013.877517

Barker, J. C. (1999). *Danger, duty, and disillusion: The worldview of Los Angeles police*

    officers. Long Grove, IL: Waveland Press.

Bateman, T. S., & Organ, D. W. (1983). Job satisfaction and the good soldier: The

   relationship between affect and employee "citizenship." *Academy of Management

   Journal*, *26*(4), 587-595.

Beckman, K., Lum, C., Wyckoff, L., & Larsen-Vander Wall, K. (2003). Trends in police

   research: A cross-sectional analysis of the 2000 literature. *Police Practice and

   Research, 4*(1), 79-96.

Bennett, R. J., & Robinson, S. L. (2000). Development of a measure of workplace

   deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85*(3), 349-360.

Berry, C. M., Ones, D. S., & Sackett, P. R. (2007). Interpersonal deviance, organizational

   deviance, and their common correlates: A review and meta-analysis. *Journal of

   Applied Psychology*, *92*(2), 410-424.

Bianchi, E. C., & Brockner, J. (2012). In the eyes of the beholder? The role of

   depositional trust in judgments of procedural and interactional fairness.

   Organizational Behavior and Human Decisions Process, 118(1), 46-59.

Bies, R. J., & Moag, J. S. (1986). Interactional justice: Communication criteria of

   fairness. *Research on Negotiation in Organizations*, *1*(1), 43-55.

Blakely, G. L., Andrews, M. C., & Moorman, R. H. (2005). The moderating effects of

   equity sensitivity on the relationship between organizational justice and

   organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *20*(2),

   259-273.

Blau, P. (1967). *Exchange and power in social life*. New York, NY: Wiley.

Boateng, F. D. (2015). Perceived organizational support and police officer effectiveness testing the organizational support theory in Ghana. *International Criminal Justice Review*. Retrieved from http://www.icj.sagepub.com/content/early/2014/ 05/28/1057567714536907.full.pdf

Borman, W. C., & Motowidlo, S. J. (1997). Task performance and contextual performance: The meaning for personnel selection research. *Human Performance*, *10*(2), 99-109.

Bowen, N. K., & Guo, S. (2011). *Structural equation modeling*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Bradburn, N. M., Sudman, S., & Wansink, B. (2004). *Asking questions: The definitive guide to questionnaire design—for market research, political polls, and social and health questionnaires*. San Francisco, CA: Wiley & Sons.

Bradford, B. (2014). Policing and social identity: Procedural justice, inclusion and cooperation between police and public. *Policing and Society*, *24*(1), 22-43.

Brown, R. A., & Frank, J. (2006). Race and officer decision-making: Examining differences in arrest outcomes between Black and White officers. *Justice Quarterly*, *23*(1), 96-126.

Brunetto, Y., & Farr-Wharton, R. (2003). The commitment and satisfaction of lower-ranked police officers: Lessons for management. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, *26*(1), 43-63.

Carlan, P. E. (2007). The search for job satisfaction: A survey of Alabama policing. *American Journal of Criminal Justice, 32*(102), 75-86.

Cato Institute. (2015, April 2). *The Cato Institute's national police misconduct reporting project*. Retrieved from http://www.policemisconduct.net

Chen, Z. X, Aryee, S., & Lee, C. (2005). Test of a mediation model of perceived organizational support. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 66*(3), 457-470.

Cochrane, R. E., & Tett, R. P., & Vandecreek, L. (2003). Psychological testing and the selection of police officers: A national survey. *Criminal Justice Behavior, 30*(5), 511-537.

Cohen-Charash, Y., & Spector, P. E. (2001). The role of justice in organizations: A meta-analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *86*(2), 278-321.

Colquitt, J. A. (2001). On the dimensionality of organizational justice: A construct validation of a measure. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(3), 386-400.

Colquitt, J. A., Conlon, D. E., Wesson, M. J., Porter, C. O., & Ng, K. Y. (2001). Justice at the millennium: A meta-analytic review of 25 years of organizational justice research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *86*(3), 425-445.

Colquitt, J. A., Greenberg, J., & Zapata-Phelan, C. P. (2005). What is organizational justice? A historical overview. In J. Greenberg & J. A. Colquitt (Eds.), *Handbook of organizational justice* (pp. 3-58). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Colquitt, J. A., LePine, J. A., Piccolo, R. F., Zapata, C. P., & Rich, B. L. (2012). Explaining the justice-performance relationship: Trust as exchange deepener or trust as uncertainty reducer? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *97*(1), 1.

Colquitt, J. A., Scott, B. A., & LePine, J. A. (2007). Trust, trustworthiness, and trust

    propensity: A meta-analytic test of their unique relationships with risk taking and

    job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *92*(4), 909-927.

Colquitt, J. A., Scott, B. A., Rodell, J. B., Long, D. M., Zapata, C. P., Conlon, D. E., &

    Wesson, M. J. (2013). Justice at the millennium, a decade later: A meta-analytic

    test of social exchange and affect-based perspectives. *Journal of Applied*

    Psychology, 98(2), 199-236.

Cropanzano, R., Bowen, D. E., & Gilliland, S. W. (2007). The management of

    organizational justice. *The Academy of Management Perspectives*, *21*(4), 34-48.

Cropanzano, R., Byrne, Z. S., Bobocel, D. R., & Rupp, D. E. (2001). Moral virtues,

    fairness heuristics, social entities, and other denizens of organizational justice.

    Journal of Vocational Behavior, *58*(2), 164-209.

Cropanzano, R., & Greenberg, J. (1997). Progress in organizational justice: Tunneling

    through the maze. *International Review of Industrial and Organizational*

    Psychology, *12*, 317-372.

Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. S. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary

    review. *Journal of Management*, *31*(6), 874-900.

Crow, M. S., Lee, C., & Joo, J. (2012). Organizational justice and organizational

    commitment among South Korean police officers. *Policing: An International*

    Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 35(2), 402-423.

Cuttler, M. J., & Muchinsky, P. M. (2006). Prediction of law enforcement training

    performance and dysfunctional job performance with general mental ability,

    personality, and life history variables. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, *33*(1), 3-25.

Dalal, R. S. (2005). A meta-analysis of the relationship between organizational

    citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior. *Journal of Applied*

    Psychology, *90*(6), 1241.

Dalal, R. S., Baysinger, M., Brummel, B. J., & LeBreton, J. M. (2012). The relative

    importance of employee engagement, other job attitudes, and trait affect as

    predictors of job performance. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *42*, E295-

    E325. doi:10.1111/j.1559-1816.2012.01017.x

De Angelis, J., & Kupchik, A. (2007). Citizen oversight, procedural justice, and officer

    perceptions of the complaint investigation process. *Policing: An International*

    Journal of Police Strategies & Management, *30*(4), 651-671.

Dejong, C., Mastrofski, S. D., & Parks, R. B. (2001). Patrol officers and problem solving:

    An application of expectancy theory. *Justice Quarterly*, *18*(1), 31-61.

Devonish, D., & Greenidge, D. (2010). The effect of organizational justice on contextual

    performance, counterproductive work behaviors, and task performance:

    Investigating the moderating role of ability-based emotional intelligence.

    International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 19(1), 75-86.

Durkin. E. (2014, December 18). Bill de Blasio details talk with biracial son about

    interacting with police: You "train them to be very careful when they have ... an

    encounter with a police officer." *Daily News.* Retrieved from

    http://www.nydailynews.com

Eisenberger, R., Hungtington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived

    organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 71*, 500-507.

Eitle, S., D'Alessio, S. J., & Stolzenberg, L. (2014, April 21). The effects of

    organizational and environmental factors on police misconduct. *Police Quarterly*.

    doi:10.1177/1098611114522042

El Akremi, A., Vandenberghe, C., & Camerman, J. (2010). The role of justice and social

    exchange relationships in workplace deviance: Test of a mediated model. *Human*

    Relations, *63*(11), 1687-1717.

Eliason, S. R. (1993). *Maximum likelihood estimation: Logic and practice* (No. 96).

    Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Engel, R. S. (2000). The effects of supervisory styles on patrol officer behavior. *Police*

    Quarterly, *3*(3), 262-293.

Engel, R. S., & Worden, R. E. (2003). Police officers' attitudes, behavior, and

    supervisory influences: An analysis of problem solving. *Criminology*, *41*(1), 131-

    166.

Famega, C. N., Frank, J., & Mazerolle, L. (2007). Managing police patrol time: The role

    of supervisor directives. *Justice Quarterly, 22*(4), 540-559.

Farmer, S. J., Beehr, T. A., & Love, K. G. (2003). Becoming an undercover police

    officer: A note on fairness perceptions, behavior, and attitudes. *Journal of*

    Organizational Behavior, 24(4), 373-387.

Fischer, C. (Ed.). (2014). *Legitimacy and procedural justice: A new element of police*

    leadership: A report by the Police Executive Research Forum (PERF).

    Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Assistance.

    Retrieved from http://www.policeforum.org

Folger, R., Cropanzano, R., & Goldman, B. (2005). Justice, accountability, and moral sentiment: The deontic response to "foul play" at work. In J. Greenberg & J. Colquitt (Eds.), *Handbook of organizational justice* (pp. 215-245). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Fox, S., Spector, P. E., & Miles, D. (2001). Counterproductive work behavior (CWB) in response to job stressors and organizational justice: Some mediator and moderator test for autonomy and emotions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 59*(3), 291-309.

Frydl, K., & Skogan, W. (Eds.). (2004). *Fairness and effectiveness in policing: The evidence*. Washington, DC: National Academies Press.

Fyfe, J. J., & Kane, R. (2006). *Bad cops: A study of career-ending misconduct among New York City police officers* (NCJ N0. 215795). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, National Institute of Justice. Retrieved from http://www.w.ncjrs.gov?pdffiles1/nij/grants/215795.pdf

Gau, J. M. (2010). Basic principles and practices of structural equation modeling in criminal justice and criminology research. *Journal of Criminal Justice Education*, *21*(2), 136-151.

Gau, J. M. (2014). Procedural justice, police legitimacy, and legal cynicism: A test for mediation effects. *Police Practice and Research*: *An International Journal*. Retrieved from http://www.dx.doi.org/10.1080/15614263.2014.927766

George, D., & Mallery, P. (2010). *SPSS for Windows step by step: A simple guide and reference, 18.0 update* (11th ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Goldstein, H. (1977). *Policing a free society*. Cambridge, MA: Ballinger.

Greenberg, J. (1987). A taxonomy of organizational justice theories. *Academy of Management Review, 12*(1), 9-22.

Greenberg, J. (1990). Organizational justice: Yesterday, today, and tomorrow. *Journal of Management*, *16*(2), 399-432.

Greenberg, J. (1993). The social side of fairness: Interpersonal and informational classes of organizational justice. In R. Cropanzano (Ed.), *Justice in the workplace: Approaching fairness in human resource management* (pp. 79-103). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Greene, J. R., Piquero, A. R., Hickman, M. J., & Lawton, B. A. (2004). *Police integrity and accountability in Philadelphia: Predicting and assessing police misconduct* (NCJ No. 207823). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, National Institute of Justice.

Gruys, M. L., Sackett, P. R. (2003). Investigating the dimensionality of counterproductive work behavior. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 11*(1), 30-42.

Guffey, J. E., Larson, J. G., Zimmerman, L., & Shook, B. (2007). The development of Thurstone Scale for identifying desirable police officer traits. *Journal of Police Crime Psychology, 22*(1), 1-9.

Harris, C. J., & Worden, R. E. (2012). The effect of sanctions on police misconduct. *Crime & Delinquency*. doi:0011128712466933

Hass, N. E., Van Craen, M., Skogan, W. G., & Fleitas, D. M. (2015). Explaining officer

compliance: The importance of procedural justice and trust inside a police

organization. *Criminology and Criminal Justice.* Retrieved from

http://www.crj.sagepub.com/content/early/2015/01/18/1748895814566288

Hassell, K. D. (2007). Variation in police patrol practices: The precinct as a sub-

organizational level of analysis. *Policing: An International Journal of Police

Strategies & Management*, *30*(2), 257-276.

Hickman, M. J. (2007). Validity of officer self-reported citizen complaints: A research

note. *Police Quarterly*, *10*, 332-341.

Homans, G. C. (1958). Social behavior as exchange. *American Journal of Sociology, 63*,

597-606.

Iacobucci, D. (2008). *Mediation analysis* (No. 156). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Publications.

Johnson, R. R. (2009a). Explaining patrol officer drug arrest activity through expectancy

theory. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*,

32(1), 6-20.

Johnson, R. R. (2009b). Using expectancy theory to explain officer security check

activity. *International Journal of Police Science & Management*, *11*(3), 274-284.

Johnson, R. R. (2012). Police officer salaries and agency performance outputs. *Criminal

Justice Studies, 25*(2), 191-203.

Kaariainen, J., Lintonen, T., Laitenen, A., & Pollock, J. (2008). The code of silence: Are

self-report surveys a viable means for studying police misconducts*? Journal of

Scandinavian Studies in Criminology and Crime Prevention, 9*, 86-98.

Kalton, G. (Ed.). (1983). *Introduction to survey sampling* (Vol. 35). Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Kapeler, V. E., Sluder, R. D., & Alpert, G. P. (1994). *Forces of deviance: Understanding the dark side of policing*. Prospect Heights, IL: Waveland Press.

Katz, D. (1964). The motivational basis of organizational behavior. *Behavioral Sciences*, *9*, 462-466.

Kenny, D. A., & McCoach, D. B. (2003). Effects of the number of variables on measures of fit in structural equation modeling. *Structural Equation Modeling, 10*, 333-351.

Kline, R. B. (2011). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Klinger, D. A. (2004). Environment and organization: Reviving a perspective on the police. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, *593*(1), 119-136.

Klockars, C. B., Kutnjak Ivkovic, S., & Haberfield, M. R. (2003). Police integrity in the United States of America. In C. B. Klockars, S. Kutnjak Ivkovic & M. R. Haberfield (pp. 265-279). *The Contours of Police Integrity.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Konovsky, M. A., & Pugh, S. (1994). Citizen behavior and social exchange. *Academy of Management Journal*, *37*(3), 656-669.

Krischer, M. M., Penney, L. M., & Hunter, E. M. (2010). Can counterproductive work behaviors be productive? CWB as emotion-focused coping. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *15*(2), 154-166.

Lambert, E. (2003). Justice in corrections: An exploratory study of the impact of organizational justice on correctional staff. *Journal of Criminal Justice, 31*, 155-168.

Lambert, E., & Hogan, N. (2013). The Association of Distributive and Procedural Justice with Organizational Citizenship Behavior. *The Prison Journal, 93*(3), 313-334.

Lambert, E., Hogan, N., & Allen, R. (2006). Correlates of correctional officer job stress: The impact of organizational structure. *American Journal of Criminal Justice, 30*(2), 227-246.

Lambert, E., Hogan, N., & Griffin, M. (2007). The impact of distributive and procedural justice on correctional staff job stress, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. *Journal of Criminal Justice, 35*(6), 644-656.

Lambert, E., Hogan, N., & Griffin, M. (2008). Being the good soldier: Organizational citizenship behavior and commitment among correctional staff. *Criminal Justice and Behavior, 35*(1), 56-68.

Lavelle, J. J., Rupp, D. E., & Brockner, J. (2007). Taking a multifoci approach to the study of justice, social exchange, and citizenship behavior: The target similarity model. *Journal of Management*, *33*(6), 841-866.

Leventhal, G. S. (1976). The distribution of rewards and resources in groups and organizations. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology*, (pp. 91-131). New York, NY: Academic Press.

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

Liao, H., & Rupp, D. E. (2005). The impact of justice climate, climate strength, and justice orientation on work outcomes: A multilevel-multifoci framework. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*, 242-256.

Lind, D. (2015, April 13). The NYPD "slowdown" that's cut arrests in New York by half, explained. *Vox*. Retrieved from www.vox.com

Lind, E. A. (2001). Fairness heuristic theory: Justice judgments as pivotal cognitions in organizational relationships. In J. Greenberg & R. Cropanzano (Eds.), *Advances in organizational justice* (pp. 56-88). Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

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

Masterson, S. S. (2001). A trickle-down model of organizational justice: Relating employees' and customers' perceptions of and reactions to fairness. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *86*(4), 594.

Masterson, S. S., Lewis, K., Goldman, B. M., & Taylor, M. S. (2000). Integrating justice and social exchange: The differing effects of fair procedures and treatment on work relationships. *Academy of Management Journal, 43*(4), 738-748.

Mastrofski, S. D. (2004). Controlling street-level police discretion. *The annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, *593*(1), 100-118.

Mastrofski, S. D., Ritti, R. R., & Snipes, J. B. (1994). Expectancy theory and police productivity in DUI enforcement. *Law and Society Review, 28*(1), 101-136.

Mayer, R. C., & Davis, J. H. (1999). The effect of the performance appraisal system on trust for management: A field quasi-experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 84*(1), 123-136.

Mayer, R. C., Davis, J. H., & Schoorman, F. D. (1995). An integrative model of organizational trust. *Academy of Management Review, 20*, 709-734.

Mazerolle, L., Antrobus, E., & Bennett, S. (2013). Shaping citizen perceptions of police legitimacy: A randomized field trial of procedural justice. *Criminology, 51*(1), 33-63.

McElvain, J. P., & Kposowa, A. J. (2008). Police officer characteristics and the likelihood of using deadly force. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, *35*(4), 505-521.

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1997). *Commitment in the workplace: Theory research, and application*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

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

Moorman, R. H., Niehoff, B. P, & Organ, D. W. (1993). Treating employees fairly and organizational citizenship behavior: Sorting the effects of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and procedural justice. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal, 6*(3), 209-225.

Murphy, K., Lorraine M., & Bennett, S. (2014). Promoting trust in police: Findings from a randomised experimental field trial of procedural justice policing. *Policing and Society, 24*(4), 405-424.

Myhill, A., & Bradford, B. (2013). Overcoming cop culture? Organizational justice and police officers' attitudes toward the public. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 36*(2), 333-356.

Niederhoffer, A. (1967). *Behind the shield: The police in urban society*. New York, NY: Doubleday.

Organ, D. W. (1988). *Organizational citizenship behavior: The Good Soldier syndrome*. Lexington, MA: Lexington.

Organ, D. W. (1997). Organizational citizenship behavior: It's construct cleanup time. *Human Performance, 10*(2), 85-97.

Ones, D. S., Viswesvaran, C., & Schmidt, F. L. (1993). Comprehensive meta-analysis of integrity test validities: Findings and implications for personnel selection and theories of job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *78*(4), 679.

Pallant, J. (2010). SPSS survival manual (4th ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Paoline, E. A., III (2004). Shedding light on police subculture: An examination of officers' occupational attitudes. *Police Quarterly, 7*, 205-236.

Penney, L. M., & Spector, P. E. (2005). Job stress, incivility, and counterproductive work behavior (CWB): The moderating role of negative affectivity. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *26*(7), 777-796.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J. Y, & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research; A critical review of literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*(5), 879 -903.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Paine, J. B., & Bachrach, D. G. (2000). Organizational citizenship behaviors: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. *Journal of Management*, *26*(3), 513-563.

Pollock, J. M. (2014). *Ethical dilemmas and decisions in criminal justice* (8th ed.).

Belmon, CA: Wadsworth/Cengage.

Pollock, J. M., & Reynolds, P. D. (2014). Ethics in law enforcement. In R. Dunham & G.

Alpert (Eds.), *Critical issues in policing* (p. xx). Long Grove, IL: Waveland.

Porter, L. E., & Warrender, C. (2009). A multivariate model of police deviance:

Examining the nature of corruption, crime, and misconduct. *Policing and Society*,

19(1), 77-99.

President 's Task Force on 21st Century Policing. (2015). *Interim Report of the*

President s Task Force on 21st Century Policing. Washington, DC: Office of

Community Oriented Policing Services. Retrieved from

http://www.cops.usdoj.gov/pdf/taskforce/Interim_TF_Report.pdf

Punch, M. (2009). *Police corruption: Deviance, accountability and reform in policing*.

Cullumpton, United Kingdom: William.

Regoli, B., Crank, J. P., & Rivera, G. F. (1990). The construction and implementation of

an alternative measure of police cynicism. *Criminal Justice and Behavior, 17*(4),

395-409.

Reuss-Ianni, E. (1993). *Two cultures of policing: Street cops and management cops*. New

Brunswick, NJ: Transaction.

Reynolds, P. (2014, February). *Police officers' reactions to perceptions of organizational*

injustice. Paper session presented at the annual conference of the Academy of

Criminal Justice Science, Philadelphia, PA.

Reynolds, P., & Hicks, J. (2013). [Interview transcripts of police officer interviews on the

topic of fairness within police organizations] Unpublished data.

Reynolds, P., & Hicks, J. (2014). There is no justice in a police department: A phenomenological study of police experiences. *Police Practice and Research*: *An International Journal*. doi:10.1080/15614263.2014.931229

Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived organizational support: A review of the literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*, 698-714.

Riggle, R. J., Edmondson, D. R., & Hansen, J. D. (2009). A meta-analysis of the relationship between perceived organizational support and job outcomes: 20 years of research. *Journal of Business Research, 62*(10), 1027-1030.

Robinson, S. L., & Bennett, R. J. (1995). A typology of deviant workplace behaviors: A multi-dimensional scaling study. *Academy of Management Journal, 38*(2), 555-572.

Rotundo, M., & Sackett, P. R. (2002). The relative importance of task, citizenship, and counterproductive performance to global ratings of job performance: A policy-capturing approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*(1), 66-80.

Rupp, D. E., & Cropanzano, R. (2002). The mediating effects of social exchange relationships in predicting workplace outcomes from multifoci organizational justice. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *89*(1), 925-946.

Rupp, D. E., Shao, R., Jones, K. S., & Liao, H. (2014). The utility of a multifoci approach to the study of organizational justice: A meta-analytic investigation into the consideration of normative rules, moral accountability, bandwidth-fidelity, and social exchange. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *123*(2), 159-185.

Sanders, B. A. (2003). Maybe there's no such thing as a "good cop": Organizational challenges in selecting quality officers. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, *26*(2), 313-328.

Sanders, B. A. (2008). Using personality traits to predict police officer performance. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 31*(1), 129-147.

Schoorman, F. D., & Ballinger, G. A. (2006). *Leadership, trust and client service in veterinary hospitals* (Working paper). West Lafayette, IN: Purdue University.

Schoorman, F. D., Mayer, R. C., & Davis, J. H. (2007). Editor's Forum: An integrative model of organizational trust: Past present, and future. *Academy of Management Review, 32*(2), 344-354.

Shane, J. M. (2010). Organizational stressors and police performance. *Journal of Criminal Justice, 38*(4), 807-818.

Shane, J. M. (2012). Police employee disciplinary matrix: An emerging concept. *Police Quarterly*, *15*(1), 62-91.

Shane, J. M. (2013). Daily work experiences and police work experiences. *Police Practice and Research*: *An International Journal, 14*(1), 17-34.

Shanock, L. R., & Eisenberger, R. (2006). When supervisors feel supported: Relationships with subordinates' perceived supervisor support, perceived organizational support, and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *91*(3), 689.

Shore, L. M., & Tetrick, L. E. (1991). A construct validity study of the Survey of

Perceived Organizational Support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *76*(5), 637-

643.

Skarlicki, D. P., & Folger, R. (1997). Retaliation in the workplace: The roles of

distributive, procedural, and interactional justice. *Journal of Applied Psychology,*

82(3), 434-443.

Skarlicki, D. P., Folger, R., & Tesluk, P. (1999). Personality as a moderator in the

relationship between fairness and retaliation. *Academy of Management Journal*,

42(1), 100-108.

Skogan, W. G., Van Craen, M. & Hennessy, C. (2014). Training police for procedural

justice. *Journal of Experimental Criminology.* Retrieved from

http://www.link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s11292-014-9223-6

Skolnick, J. H. (1966). *Justice without trial: Law enforcement in democratic society*.

New York, NY: Wiley.

Skolnick, J. H. (2002). Corruption and the blue code of silence. *Police Practice and*

Research, *3*(1), 7-19.

Spector, P. E. (2006). Method variance in organizational research truth or urban legend?

Organizational Research Methods, 9, 221-232.

Spector, P. E., & Fox, S. (2005). A model of counterproductive work behavior. In S. Fox

& P. E. Spector (Eds.), *Counterproductive workplace behavior: Investigations of*

actors and targets (pp. 151-174). Washington, DC: American Psychological

Association.

Spector, P. E., Fox, S., Penney, L. M., Bruursema, K., Goh, A., & Kessler, S. (2006). The dimensionality of counterproductivity: Are all counterproductive behaviors created equal? *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *68*(3), 446-460.

Spencer, S., & Rupp, D. E. (2009). Angry, guilty, and conflicted: Injustice toward coworkers heightens emotional labor through cognitive and emotional mechanisms. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *94*(2), 429-444.

Stevens, J. P. (2009). *Applied multivariate statistics for the social sciences* (5th ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Routledge Academic.

Sunshine, J., & Tyler, T. R. (2003). The role of procedural justice and legitimacy in shaping public support for policing. *Law & Society Review, 37*, 513-548.

Tabachnick, B. C., & Fidell, L. S. (2012). *Using multivariate statistics* (6th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson Education.

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

Thompson, B. (2004). *Exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis: Understanding concepts and applications*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Tourangeau, R., Conrad, F., & Couper, M. (2013). *The science of web surveys*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Tyler, T. R. (2004). Enhancing police legitimacy. *The ANNALS of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 593*, 84-99.

Tyler, T. R. (2006). *Why people obey the law*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Tyler, T. R. (2011). *Why people cooperate: The role of social motivations*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Tyler, T. R., & Blader, S. L. (2000). *Cooperation in groups: Procedural justice, social identity, and behavioral engagement.* Philadelphia, PA: Psychology Press.

Tyler, T. R., & Blader, S. L. (2003). The group engagement model: Procedural justice, social identity, and cooperative behavior. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 7*(4), 349-361.

Tyler, T. R., Callahan, P. E., & Frost, J. (2007). Armed, and dangerous (?); Motivating rule adherence among agents of social control. *Law & Society, 41*(2), 457-492.

Tyler, T., Degoey, P., & Smith, H. (1996). Understanding why the justice of group procedures matters: A test of the psychological dynamics of the group-value model. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *70*(5), 913-930.

Tyler, T. R., & Fagan, J. (2008). Legitimacy and cooperation: Why do people help the police fight crime in their communities? *Ohio State Journal of Criminal Law, 6*, 231-275.

Tyler, T. R., & Huo, Y. J. (2002). *Trust in the law: Encouraging public cooperation with the police and courts*. New York, NY: Russell Sage Foundation.

Tyler, T. R., & Lind, E. A. (1992). A relational model of authority in groups. In M. P. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental psychology* (Vol. 25, pp. 115-191). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Van Maanen, J. (1975). Police socialization: A longitudinal examination of job attitudes in an urban police department. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 20*, 207-228.

Vardi, Y., & Weitz, E. (2004). *Misbehavior in organizations: Theory, research, and management.* Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum Associates.

Varela, J. G., Boccaccini, M. T., Scogin, F., Stump, J., & Caputo, A. (2004). Personality testing in law enforcement employment settings: A meta-analytic review. *Criminal Justice and Behavior, 31*, 649-673.

Violanti, J. M., & Aaron, F. (1995). Police stressors: Variations in perception among police personnel. *Journal of Criminal Justice, 23*(3), 287-294.

Viswesvaran, C., & Ones, D. S. (2002). Examining the construct of organizational justice: A meta-analytic evaluation of relations with work attitudes and behaviors. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *38*(3), 193-203.

Wayne, S. J., Shore, L. M., Bommer, W. H., & Tetrick, L. E. (2002). The role of fair treatment and rewards in perceptions of organizational support and leader-member exchange. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*(3), 590.

Westmarland, L. (2006). Police ethics and integrity: Breaking the blue code of silence. *Policing and Society, 15*(2), 145-165.

Weiss, P. A., Vivian, J. E., Weiss, W. U., Davis, R. D., & Rostow, C. D. (2012). The MMPI-2 L Scale, reporting uncommon virtue, and predicting police performance. *Psychological Services*. doi:10.1037/a0029062

White, M. D. (2008). Identifying good cops early predicting recruit performance in the academy. *Police Quarterly*, *11*(1), 27-49.

White, M. D., & Kane, R. J. (2013). Pathways to career-ending police misconduct: An examination of patterns, timing, and organizational responses to officer malfeasance in the NYPD. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, *40*(11), 1301-1325.

Williams, S., Pitre, R., & Zainuba, M. (2002). Justice and organizational citizen behavior

    intentions: Fair rewards versus fair treatment. *The Journal of Social Psychology,*

    142(1), 33-44.

Wolfe, S. E., & Piquero, A. R. (2011). Organizational justice and police misconduct.

    Criminal Justice and Behavior, 38, 332-353.