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Fairness in Chinese Organizations

Kai-Guang Liang
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FAIRNESS IN CHINESE ORGANIZATIONS

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ABSTRACT

FAIRNESS IN CHINESE ORGANIZATIONS

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This study examined the roles of organizational justice and individual cultural characteristics in affecting employees' work attitudes and behaviors, in particular, the contextual aspect of job performance in Chinese organizations. Data were collected from 232 employee-supervisor dyads in three Sino-western joint ventures in the People's Republic of China. Results indicated that distributive justice had a significant impact on one dimension of contextual job performance, i.e., interpersonal facilitation, and various attitudinal outcomes, such as job satisfaction, pay satisfaction, affective commitment and turnover intention. Among the three procedural justice variables (participation at company level, participation at job level, and appeal mechanism) examined, only participation at company level was found to have a significant but less powerful effect on one of the attitudinal outcomes, affective commitment. None of the three procedural justice variables had a significantly positive impact on contextual performance. Contrary to the hypothesis, participation at company level was found to have a negative effect on supporting organization. Collectivism was found to have a negative impact on contextual performance; its level did not moderate the relationship between justice and contextual performance. Finally, the results provided some support for the hypothesis that power distance moderated procedural justice–outcome relationships. Specifically, the results showed that, for people with high power distance, participation (either at company policy making level and daily work activity level) tended to negatively correlate with such job

behaviors as task performance and job initiative. In contrast, for people with low power distance values, participation had a small and positive correlation with task performance and job initiative.

This dissertation is dedicated to my mother, Yun-Xiang Li, for providing me unconditional love and faith in completing my life-long goal, especially during my seven-year's journey in the West.

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INTRODUCTION

Fairness concerns permeate organizational life. Judgments of fairness become particularly salient in situations with limited resources, when adverse consequences cannot be avoided, or when there is an exchange between individuals (Deutsch, 1985). Comparisons of pay raises, distribution of scarce budgets, promotions, and layoffs are just a few of the many situations in which fairness perceptions will affect people's thoughts, feelings, and behaviors. Fairness concerns are more pronounced in recent years given the fundamental changes that have taken place in many organizations (Cobb, Folger, & Wooten, 1995; Tsui, Pearce, Porter, & Tripoli, 1997). Increasing international competition and the rapid pace of technological innovation are forcing organizations to change their internal administration and management structures in order to become leaner, faster, and more flexible. Specific changes include large-scale reduction of the workforce, flattening of organizational levels, increasing use of contingent workers, and development of new employment relationships. Because these organizational initiatives involve changes in policies, procedures, and resource allocation, issues of fairness are inherent. As indicated by Sheppard, Lewicki, and Minton (1992), employees will pay special attention to fairness issues when any rule, policy or management decision is established, implemented, or interpreted (Preface, xi).

Organizational justice is the research area concerned about the fair treatment of employees in organizations. Development of the field occurred in two phases stretching from the early 1960s to the present (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997), during which two

The journal model used for this dissertation is the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (4th ed.).

major perspectives of organizational justice—distributive justice and procedural justice—have been conceptualized. Distributive justice refers to fairness about the results or outcomes of allocation or other administrative decisions that involve distribution of scarce resources among employees. Since the early 1960s, Adams' (1963) equity theory has been the dominant view of distributive justice. According to equity theory, a “fair” distribution is one in which there is an equal balance between the ratio of one person's inputs to outcomes and the input-outcome ratio of a comparison person. Conversely, unequal ratios between the two people should result in the perception of an “unfair” outcome distribution. This perception of unfairness will create dissatisfaction and behavioral change. Though equity theory has received strong empirical support, especially for underpayment predictions (see Greenberg, 1982), subsequent research has suggested that under varying circumstances, people use a wide variety of principles of distributive justice, among them are equity, equality, and need (Deutsch, 1975). Deutsch (1975) indicates, if people are pursuing economic productivity as a goal, they should choose equity as a principle of distributive justice; if people care more about harmonious interpersonal relationships, they should choose the equality principle; and finally if people want to foster personal development and personal welfare, they should use need as their principle in allocations.

Procedural justice, on the other hand, refers to the fairness of the means or the decision-making process underlying the allocation of outcomes or resolution of disputes. Thibaut and Walker (1975) were the first scholars who differentiated the concepts of distributive and procedural justice and offered a theory about determinants of procedural justice. They observed, from courtroom trials, that people not only concern themselves

about the verdict, but also equally and even more importantly care about the way a trial is conducted. They further found, even when receiving unfavorable outcomes, people tend to evaluate an outcome more positively when they believed the process by which it was determined was fair. Thibaut and Walker demonstrated that input to a decision process (voice) increased individuals' perceptions of the fairness of the process. Thibaut and Walker's (1975) concept of procedural justice has been termed the process control model of procedural justice. Parallel to Thibaut and Walker's work, Leventhal and his colleagues (1980; Leventhal, Karuza, & Fry, 1980) elaborated a broader framework for evaluating the fairness of procedures. They propose that a procedure is judged as fair if it is used: 1) consistently across persons and over time, 2) without bias toward decision makers or implementers, 3) on the basis of accurate information, 4) with opportunities to correct the decision, 5) with the interests of all concerned parties represented, and 6) without violating prevailing moral and ethical standards.

Studies in organizational justice have demonstrated the positive influence of both distributive and procedural justice on a wide variety of individual outcomes, for example, job satisfaction, trust toward management, organizational commitment, intention to leave, turnover and absenteeism, and compliance with organizational rules and decisions (See Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). However, previous research has largely ignored or has failed to demonstrate the effects of justice perceptions on subsequent job performance. This is probably due to the early conclusion that there is no straightforward relationship between work performance and attitudinal variables (Locke, 1976). However this might be true in the past, with the profound changes in organizational structure and redefinition of jobs witnessed in recent years, the domain of job performance has since changed and

expanded (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993 & 1997; Campbell, McCloy, Oppler, & Sager, 1993; Cascio, 1995). Traditionally, job performance has been defined as proficiency in accomplishing tasks that more or less directly contribute to the organization's primary objectives (Campbell et al., 1993). With the enlarged domain of performance, however, individuals can contribute significantly to organizational effectiveness in ways that go beyond this traditional job requirement. "They can either help or hinder efforts to accomplish organizational goals by doing many things that are not directly related to their main task functions but are important because they shape the organizational, social, and psychological context that serves as the critical catalyst for task activities and processes" (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, p. 71). This new focus in job performance is called contextual performance.

The conception of contextual performance is built upon previous research on a similar but somewhat narrower concept, organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs; Organ, 1988). OCBs, according to Organ (1988), are work-related behaviors that are discretionary in nature, are not recognized by the formal reward system in the short-term, and that in the aggregate contribute to the efficient and effective functioning of organizations. This definition would likely exclude contextual behaviors which may receive recognition and rewards from the organization. In contrast, the concept of contextual performance contains a much broader domain of job performance that includes both in-role and extra-role, and rewarded and non-rewarded job behaviors (Turner, Hayes, Bartle & Pace, 1999). Moreover, compared to traditional task performance or core technical proficiency, contextual performance is determined more by motivation and personality than by technical skill and ability (Borman & Motowidlo,

1993). If the focus is on the contextual aspect in job performance, the effect of perceptions of distributive and procedural justice may be more substantial. Though more recent studies have examined the effects of procedural justice on OCBs (e.g., Moorman, 1991; Farh, Lin, & Earley, 1997), research is still lacking that examines the relationships between the whole range of organizational justice and the broader domain of contextual performance. Thus, one of the purposes of this paper is to establish a theoretical linkage between both types of organizational justice (i.e., distributive and procedural justice) and contextual performance.

Another limitation in previous justice research is that there has been scant effort made to understand organizational justice in a global context (for exceptions, see Chen, 1995; Farh et al., 1997; Leung, Smith, Wang & Sun, 1996). Despite the voluminous and fruitful literature on organizational justice stemming from Adam's (1963) and Thibaut and Walker's (1975) work, research to date on organizational justice has been based mostly on samples from U.S. organizations. To the extent that the concepts and determinants of justice may differ as a function of cultural values, the findings obtained from US organizations may not be replicated in other cultural contexts. Indeed, Ackerman and Brockner (1996) found that the effect of process control (or voice) on organizational commitment is smaller in mainland China than it is in the US. They further indicated that this justice–outcome relationship is moderated by a major cultural dimension—power distance. That is, the absence of voice had a less harmful effect on commitment among people who hold high power distance values compared to those with low power distance values.

Moreover, some organizational outcomes, such as contextual performance, might also be subject to the influence of individual differences in cultural values. For example, Moorman and Blakely (1995) found that if individuals hold collectivistic values or norms, they are more likely to perform such contextual activities as interpersonal helping and protecting their organizations. If so, then individual differences in cultural values (e.g., individualism-collectivism) may moderate the relationship between organizational justice and contextual performance.

The context in which organizations are operating has changed dramatically in recent years. Going global is becoming a reality for almost all major corporations around the world. International comparative research on the similarity and differences in work behavior and attitudes across national boundaries, particularly studies on the applicability and generalizability of American theories of management and organizational behavior, is essential if business corporations are to compete in the globalized environment. Thus, the second purpose of this paper is to explore the cross-cultural generalizability of findings regarding the effects of organizational justice to organizations outside of the US. This study was designed to probe how cultural values may influence the way people perceive justice and react to justice perceptions. Specifically, this study will examine the potential moderating effects of two major cultural dimensions, individualism-collectivism and power distance, on justice–outcome relationships.

In summary, the present study has two objectives. First, it seeks to extend previous organizational justice research by probing the potential effect of justice on contextual performance in Chinese organizations. Second, it examines the potential moderating effects of individualism-collectivism and power distance on relationships

between justice perceptions and individual outcome variables such as organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and contextual performance.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES

Relevance of Research on Justice, Individual Differences in Cultural Values and Contextual Performance in Chinese Organizations

This study was conducted in Chinese organizations for three reasons. First, as will be discussed in the following section, there is a growing concern for justice among Chinese employees. Research concerning justice will be relevant to Chinese managers. Second, as China is in the process of social and economic change, individual variations in values and attitudes, such as individualism-collectivism and power distance, have been greatly enlarged. This will enable a study like this, using a single-nation sample, to examine variations in cultural dimensions in how people perceive and react to organizational justice. Third, the concept of contextual performance is consistent with performance appraisal practice in China; research on contextual performance in Chinese firms is both relevant and will have important implications. I discuss these ideas in more detail below.

Relevance of Justice Concept in Chinese Firms

China's transition from central planning to a free market economy since the late 1970s has made the country one of the biggest emerging markets in the world. China's economy has grown almost 10 percent per year throughout the last two decades. Early in the next century, China will be the largest producer of industrial goods and one of the largest trading nations in the world (The World Bank, 1997). However, this transformation has not been without problems. Uneven regional growth across the country, a growing surplus of labor, and restructuring of state-owned enterprises have resulted in rising unemployment and inequalities in income and resource distribution

(Benson, 1996). These economic problems, coupled with the ineffective political, social welfare, and legal systems, have caused widespread corruption, unequal job opportunities, and poor protection of workers' benefits and safety, which in turn have contributed to increasing conflicts between workers and management and between the unemployed and the government (Han & Morishima, 1992; Liang & Zhao, 1997).

Within this social context, the perception of justice or fairness—who is entitled to what and how such a decision is made—is gaining in importance in Chinese society, and in Chinese organizations in particular (Meindl, Yu, & Lu, 1990; Yu & He, 1995; Yu, Wang & He, 1992). As a result of economic reforms, Chinese companies have achieved considerable autonomy in the management of human resources in such areas as recruitment and selection, promotion, salary level, and even firing. There has been increasing use of Western human resource techniques and motivational systems that link pay and rewards with productivity levels at the individual, work group, and business unit level in Chinese firms. These organizational changes in policies, procedures, and resource allocation have brought the fairness issue to the forefront. Indeed, available evidence shows that there are growing concerns over both distributive and procedural fairness in resource allocations among Chinese workers. For example, in a national survey of 2,074 workers of large and medium-size enterprises in ten Chinese cities, 31% of the respondents attributed the current unfair distribution to “corrupt practices among Communist cadres,” and 24.8% to lip service to the “to each according to their work” principle (i.e., equity rule; All-China Federation of Trade Union, ACFTU, 1991; see also Hui & Tan, 1996). Also, several large-scale surveys involving thousands of workers indicate that unfair distribution of resources in Chinese organizations was cited most

frequently (35-40%) as the key factor that negatively affects their work motivation and initiative (see Hui & Tan, 1996). The so-called “red eye” disease, whereby those who benefit less from organizational change initiatives become jealous of those who benefit more, has been common in Chinese organizations (Tung, 1991; Yu & He, 1995). These perceptions of injustice in the workplace have not only affected Chinese workers' motivation and morale, but also have resulted in counter-productive individual behavior or collective actions. For example, the number of labor disputes in Chinese firms has been increasing at an annual rate of 30 to 50 percent since 1992 (China News Digest, August 1, 1997; Jiang, 1995; Yang, 1996). Therefore, a study of Chinese organizations with a focus on how Chinese employees pursue and react to justice would be fruitful both to practice and theory.

Changing Values in Current China

Many cross-cultural researchers have frequently described Chinese societies as collectivist and having high power distance (e.g., Hofstede, 1980). Chinese tend to value maintenance of the collectivity and continuation of harmonious relationships among members within it. They share values and beliefs with their in-group (e.g., family and friends), and they make strong distinctions between out-group members (e.g., unknown others) and in-group members (Triandis, 1988). This is contrasted with the greater individualism and egocentrism of western culture (Hofstede, 1980, 1993).

People with high power distance tend to value conformity and hierarchy. These are central themes in traditional Chinese societies and are related to two important Confucian doctrines. First, there are the "rules of propriety" (*Li* in Chinese), which structure interpersonal relationships into five cardinal (dyadic) relations (*Wu Lun* in

Chinese), such as emperor-subject (or superior-subordinate), father-son, husband-wife, older brother-younger brother, and senior friend-younger friend. The latter in each dyad is expected to be subject to the former. Second, Confucius emphasizes that man does not exist as a separate entity but is bound up with his context: his family, his group, and his sovereign. Thus, each individual is expected to conform to prescribed social structures and relationships and to appropriate forms of social behavior.

However, the strength of these traditional values is not constant across all Chinese people. Huo and Randall (1991) reported subgroup differences on cultural values in different regions within Chinese societies. Further, these intra-cultural differences might have been enlarged by the modernization process taking place today in China. Along with China's two-decade modernization program and economic reform, many traditional values such as collectivism are either changing or being challenged. Lockett (1988) noticed there has been a growing influence of individualism in mainland China since 1978, even though group orientation still remains a relatively strong feature of Chinese culture. This is especially true among the younger and highly educated. For example, in Liang's (1994) comparative research involving 380 Chinese and American graduate students, he found that Chinese students studying in the U. S. scored higher on individualism than their American counterparts. This finding is supported by research reported by Liu and Davis (1999). Several other empirical studies of reward allocation among Chinese have also showed a movement toward favoring more individual incentives, or the equity distribution rule, a sign of valuing more individualism (Baird, Lyles, & Wharton, 1990; Chen, 1995).

In contemporary China, probably due to the dominating authoritarian ideology imposed by the current communist regime, conformity and hierarchy seem to prevail in superior and subordinate dyads in every institution including business organizations (Boisot & Child, 1988; Lockett, 1988; Shenkar, 1993). This is partially supported by Laaksonen's (1984) research in Chinese state-owned enterprises from the late 1970s to the early 1980s, which showed a higher decision power gap between top management and workers in Chinese companies than that in Europe. However, there is evidence in recent years which shows that, as a result of social and economic reforms, the respect given to age and hierarchical position is weakening. For example, Chen, Lee, and Dou (1995) found that Chinese women on the mainland have broken away from their traditional subordinate role to men, and younger generations seem to show less respect toward authority. A similar trend has been observed in Taiwan. For example, in a series of studies with Taiwanese samples, Yang (1986, 1988) found that societal modernization has weakened traditional values, such as filial piety and respect for authority, especially among college students. Finally, as several China scholars observed, there was a period before the economic reform during which worker participation or democratic management was a popular practice in most state-owned Chinese enterprises (Wang, 1994; Xie, 1996). All of these factors might have altered traditional Chinese attitudes toward authority.

In short, twenty years of modernization and economic reform have shaken the basic values of the Chinese people. There is now greater complexity and diversity in individual differences and social values among people in modern Chinese societies.

Contextual Performance in Chinese Firms

Like Japanese firms (Inohara, 1990), Chinese organizations emphasize the contextual aspect of performance in their performance appraisal practices. In traditional Chinese organizations, job performance (*gongzuo biaoqian* in Chinese) is often defined broadly. It refers to any work behavior that indicates underlying attitudes, orientation, and loyalty worthy of reward (Liang, Deng, Xu, & Fu, 1992). Similar to Japanese companies, traditional Chinese organizations tend to place high value on work effort (*nuli* in Chinese, and *doryoku* in Japanese) in performance appraisal. Short-term lapses in work performance may be forgiven and the overall performance evaluation may be positive, as long as employees continue to make efforts to improve themselves and/or help others improve both in work performance and skills (Davis, 1998). This is probably because traditional Chinese firms tend not to rely on individual job prescription, which leads these organizations to rely less on contractual forms of individual reward systems and instead rely more on discretionary and/or contextual performance of their employees, as observed in Japanese firms (Ouchi, 1981). This emphasis on discretion is also consistent with the long-term employment and training systems in both traditional Chinese and Japanese organizations (Chen, M., 1995; Morishima, 1995). A preference for loosely defined jobs, long-term tenure, and discretion in managing employees is consistent with the value for collectivism (see Triandis, 1994). In other words, the emphasis on contextual aspect of job performance in Japanese and Chinese firms is related to the collectivistic orientation in both traditional Japanese and Chinese societies. Thus, it seems clear that the concept of contextual performance fits quite well in Chinese organizations.

Organizational Justice and Contextual Performance

As global competition continues to raise the performance bar for organizations, employees' contributions to organizational effectiveness that go beyond traditional job requirements will become more important. Contextual performance can be defined as behavioral efforts and initiatives "that contribute to organizational effectiveness in ways that shape the organizational, social, and psychological context that serves as the catalyst for task activities and process" (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997, p. 100). Examples of contextual performance range from persisting with enthusiasm and extra effort, volunteering to carry out duties not formally part of one's job, helping and cooperating with others, and endorsing and supporting organizational objectives (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, 1997). This newly expanded job performance domain is built upon three previous concepts: organizational citizenship behavior (OCB; Organ, 1988); prosocial organizational behavior (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986); and the effective soldier model (Borman, Motowidlo, Rose, & Hanser, 1985). Research on this new construct has recently emerged as a popular area for study (Arvey & Murphy, 1998; Welbourne, Johnson & Erez, 1998). Table 1 lists variables that may constitute aspects of contextual performance, of which OCB is one of the major components.

If contextual performance is important to organizations, then, what factors can contribute to employees' contextual performance? I believe justice perceptions (both procedural justice and distributive justice) will affect one's contextual performance. Support for this belief can be found in research that examines the justice and OCB relationship (Farh et al., 1997; Moorman, 1991), because OCBs are a major component of contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). As Organ (1990) argues,

Table 1
Borman & Motowidlo Taxonomy of Contextual Performance

#	Description of Contextual Performance
1.	<p>Persisting with enthusiasm and extra effort as necessary to complete own task activities successfully.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perseverance and conscientiousness (Borman et al., 1985) • Extra effort on the job (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Katz & Kahn, 1978)
2.	<p>Volunteering to carry out task activities that are not formally part of own job.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Suggesting organizational improvements (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Katz & Kahn, 1978) • Initiating and taking on extra responsibility (Borman et al., 1985; Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Katz & Kahn, 1978) • Making constructive suggestions (George & Brief, 1992) • Developing oneself (George & Brief, 1992)
3.	<p>Helping and cooperating with others.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assisting/helping coworkers (Borman et al., 1985; Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Katz & Kahn, 1978) • Assisting/helping customers (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986) • Organizational courtesy (Organ, 1988) • Sportsmanship (Organ, 1988) • Altruism (Smith et al., 1983) • Helping coworkers (George & Brief, 1992)
4.	<p>Following organizational rules and procedures.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Following orders and regulations and respect for authority (Borman et al., 1985) • Complying with organizational values and policies (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986) • Conscientiousness (Smith et al., 1983) • Meeting deadlines (Katz & Kahn, 1978) • Civic virtue (Graham, 1986)
5.	<p>Endorsing, supporting, and defending organizational objectives.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organizational loyalty (Graham, 1986) • Concern for unit objectives (Borman et al., 1985) • Staying with the organization during hard times and representing the organization favorably to outsiders (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986) • Protecting the organization (George & Brief, 1992)

Source. Reprinted from "Task performance and contextual performance: The meaning for personnel selection research," by W. C. Borman & S. J. Motowidlo, 1997, Human Performance, 19, pp. 99-110.

OCBs are based on employees' notion of social exchange. When employees believe that their company treats them fairly, they are likely to reciprocate by exerting extra effort on

the company's behalf. Extending this logic, it is reasonable to conclude that, to the extent that employees perceive organizational allocations as well as procedures to be fair, they will be more likely to perform activities construed to be part of contextual performance. This is because, compared to task performance, contextual performance is determined more by personality and motivational variables (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, 1997). The relationship between justice and contextual performance becomes even clearer if we recognize that: 1) by definition, contextual performance can be improved by organizational rewards and other means, while OCBs refer to behaviors that are not typically motivated by rewards; and 2) justice perceptions have a motivational function because they can affect perceptions of job performance-outcome contingencies, or instrumentality (Vroom, 1964).

The behavioral effects of justice perceptions have been demonstrated primarily in studies of distributive justice. Adams' equity theory, in particular, posits that people who are unfairly underpaid tend to exert low effort while equitable outcomes motivate workers to perform at a higher level (Greenberg, 1982). Many empirical studies have demonstrated that when people fail to perceive distributive justice, they are more likely to steal from a company (Greenberg, 1990), lower their productivity (Pritchard, Dunnette, & Jorgenson, 1972) and work quality (Lawler & O'Gara, 1967), be engaged in more retaliation behavior (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), and cooperate less (Schmitt & Marwell, 1972). Conversely, when employees perceive distributive justice, or the fairness of the distribution of work outcomes, they are more likely to have higher levels of motivation (Adams, 1965). While fair distribution, if defined by the equity rule (proportion of outcome to input), directly enhances instrumentality, thus high motivation, this logic may

also apply to procedural justice. The “self-interest model” of procedural justice (Lind & Tyler, 1988) assumes that fairness is valued to the degree to which it can enhance long-term interests. Unfair procedures do not guarantee that people will “get what they deserve” in the future. Therefore, the fair or unfair perceptions of procedural justice will also affect performance-outcome contingencies. To the extent that contextual performance can significantly contribute to overall job performance ratings (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994), justice perceptions will likely influence one’s contextual performance. This line of reasoning leads to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1a: There will be a positive relationship between perceptions of distributive justice and contextual performance.

Hypothesis 1b: There will be a positive relationship between perceptions of procedural justice and contextual performance.

Individualism-Collectivism, Organizational Justice, and Contextual Performance

Research on individual differences in contextual performance is at an early stage. Borman and Motowidlo's (1997) review of the literature suggests that personality predicts contextual performance significantly better than predicting overall job performance. For example, in a study with 421 Air Force mechanics, Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) found personality constructs, such as work orientation, dependability, cooperativeness, and locus control, were effective predictors of contextual performance (observed r ranges from .22 to .36). I extend this line of research by exploring the role of individualism-collectivism in contextual performance.

Parsons and Shills (1951) defined individualism-collectivism as a bipolar construct that reflects the extent to which group or collective goals take precedence over

individual goals. People high in collectivism (collectivists) tend to subordinate their own self-interests to their group's or organization's interests. Conversely, people high on individualism (individualists) tend to put forth effort to promote their own welfare over the interests of their groups or organizations (Hofstede, 1980). Available evidence shows that individualists differ from collectivists in many aspects. In comparison with individualists, collectivists are more likely to: 1) feel obliged to give priority to the group interest (Triandis, 1989); 2) put more emphasis on harmonious relations, though sometimes at the expense of task accomplishment (Kim, Triandis, Kagitcibasi, Choi, & Yoon, 1994); 3) be more cooperative and loyal to in-group members (Cox, Lobel & McLeod, 1991); and 4) share common goals, have stronger group identity, more communication, more group accountability, and a more egalitarian reward system (Chen, Chen, & Meindl, 1998).

Since collectivists have the goal of promoting the welfare of the group, as well as the attitudes that emphasize interdependence, loyalty, cooperation, and helping, it is reasonable to assume that employees who are more collectivist would be more likely to perform contextual behaviors because contextual activities are congruent with the values of helping, cooperation and emphasis on group goals over individual self-interest. There is some research to support this argument. The first study examining individualism-collectivism and contextual performance comes from recent work on the relationship between individualism-collectivism and OCBs (Moorman & Blakely, 1995). Moorman and Blakely (1995) found that individuals who hold collectivistic values or norms are more likely to perform OCBs, such as interpersonal helping, individual initiative, and

loyal boosterism. As discussed earlier, these OCBs fit well in the definition of contextual performance.

The second source of empirical support for this argument comes from Earley's (1989) study on social loafing, in which he found that people high in collectivism tend to engage in less social loafing, while those high in individualism tend to engage in more social loafing. Earley (1989) offered two different mechanisms to explain the incidence of social loafing among individualists and collectivists. He argued that individualists tend to engage in more social loafing because it maximizes personal gain. Collectivists tend to engage in less social loafing because group goals or interests take precedence over self-goals or interests. Social loafing, by definition, refers to reduced individual task performance in a group context. However, it also suggests that individuals who display social loafing behaviors would not help other members or promote the group interest. By extending Earley's finding to contextual performance, it can be argued that, compared to collectivists, individualists will show less contextual performance. This line of reasoning leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: Individualism-collectivism will be significantly related to contextual performance. Collectivists will perform more contextual activities than will individualists.

If hypothesis 2 is true, then it can be further argued that collectivists will work to attain collective goods (contextual performance) regardless of their perception of organizational justice; they view their contextual performance as a component essential to their group or organization's goal attainment and necessary to maintain harmony in the group. Therefore,

Hypothesis 3a: Individual differences in individualism-collectivism will moderate the relationship between distributive justice perceptions and contextual performance. Specifically, the distributive justice-contextual performance relationship will be less pronounced among collectivists than among individualists.

Hypothesis 3b: Individual differences in individualism-collectivism will moderate the relationship between procedural justice perceptions and contextual performance. Specifically, the procedural justice-contextual performance relationship will be less pronounced among collectivists than among individualists.

Power Distance, Procedural Justice, and Contextual Performance

Research has consistently shown that perceptions of procedural justice are related to individual outcome variables, such as organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Perhaps the most potent and extensively studied determinant of procedural justice is the extent to which those affected by the decision are allowed to participate in the decision-making process through the exercise of process control and voice (Akerman & Brockner, 1996; Lind & Tyler, 1988; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Numerous studies have demonstrated that people will react more favorably to a decision when they are given the opportunity to provide input or voice in the decision-making process than when the decision is made without their input. That is, when people have participated in the decision-making process, they will perceive the decision to be fair, and they will exhibit higher levels of organizational commitment (e.g., Tyler, 1991), greater trust in management (e.g., Konovsky & Pugh, 1994), increased job satisfaction (e.g., Fryxell & Gordon, 1989), and reduced turnover intentions (e.g., Dailey & Kirk, 1992).

However, as discussed earlier, this conclusion is based mainly on studies conducted in North America, particularly in the United States. To the extent that cultural values may influence the way people define procedural justice, it poses the question: do

the effects of voice or process control on people's reactions specified in these previous studies apply uniformly across different cultures or to people holding different cultural values? Several recent studies suggest that the impact of process control (or voice) might vary across a cultural dimension called power distance. Power distance refers to the extent to which the members of a society expect and accept that power is distributed unequally (Hofstede, 1980). Specific to the organizational context, people who hold high power distance values are more accustomed to authoritarian and hierarchical relationships, and are less likely to challenge decisions made by those in power. Conversely, people who hold low power distance values are more accustomed to sharing decision-making power with superiors and tend to consider participative leadership a natural thing. In fact, Tyler, Lind and Huo (1995) suggest that differences in power distance influence both the meaning and importance of justice in shaping reactions to authorities. This implies that people who hold high power distance values will be less likely to voice objection to a decision made by a higher authority or to use an appeal system than people with low power distance. Thus, it seems clear that cultural differences in power distance would affect the functioning of participation and appeal systems. For people low in power distance, process control (e.g., participation in the decision-making process, or appealing to a higher authority) is likely to be within their expectations, that is, they will value and expect power sharing. Likewise, people high in power distance will be less inclined to believe that authorities will and should allow them to provide input into decisions that affect them. Therefore, individual differences in power distance will be likely to moderate the effect of process control on people's reaction to decisions.

This hypothesis has partially been supported by Ackerman and Brockner (1996). In their study with Chinese and American student samples, they found that power distance affects the role of "voice" on organizational commitment; specifically, they found that the absence of voice had a less harmful effect on commitment among people high in power distance compared with those low in power distance. This finding was replicated by Gomez, Kirkman, and Shapiro (1998) in a cross-cultural study involving samples from US, Argentina and Mexico. However, if power distance is to have a moderating influence on voice or process control, this moderating effect will also apply to relationships between the voice procedure and individual reactions other than organizational commitment. This reasoning is indirectly supported by Konovsky, Elliott and Pugh's (1995) cross-cultural study on the relationship between procedural justice and organizational citizenship behavior in Mexico and US. Their results indicate that procedural justice has a weaker effect on OCBs among employees in Mexico, a developing country characterized by high power distance, than in US organizations, which are lower in power distance.

Based on the above discussion and empirical evidence, the following hypothesis is provided:

Hypothesis 4: Power distance will moderate the relationship between voice procedures (as measured by participation and appeal procedures) and organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and contextual performance. In other words, allowing more control in the decision process (via the exercise of either participation in the decision-making process or a mechanism to appeal to a higher authority after a decision is made) will produce more positive outcomes for those low in power distance than for those high in power distance.

METHOD

Research Sample

The sample for this research was drawn from employees of three Sino-foreign joint ventures in the pharmaceutical industry in the People's Republic of China.

Data were collected at Company A, located in Tianjin, by holding meetings with groups (ranging from 6 to 14 members) of employees and asking them to complete the employee version of the questionnaire. Data were collected at Company B and Company C, located in Jiangsu province and Beijing respectively, by sending the surveys through the companies' distribution systems and having the respondents mail the completed surveys directly to the researcher. The researcher used a major university in Beijing (where the researcher is affiliated) as the mailing address. In all three companies, employees' performance rating data were measured separately by asking supervisors to complete performance ratings and send them directly to the researcher. Employees' responses were matched with their supervisors' performance ratings.

Seventy-eight to 101 matching questionnaires were distributed to employees and their supervisors in each company. Among the 279 matched questionnaires sent out, a total of 232 dyads of employee and supervisor responded, yielding a response rate of 83%.

The final employee sample consisted mainly of workers (59.8%) and low level managers or supervisors (25.3%); the remaining 14.9% were divided among clerical staff, middle level and senior managers, and others. The majority of employees in the sample was male (61.2%), and most had high school or vocational school education (57.1%). Over 35.7% were between 21 and 30, 41.3% were between 30 to 40, and 22.2% were

over 40 years old. The average tenure with company was 7.36 years ($SD = 3.94$). The demographic profile of the participants of the three companies is shown in Table 2.

Table 2
Demographic Profile of the Participants in Three Companies

<u>Variables</u>	<u>Company A</u>	<u>Company B</u>	<u>Company C</u>	<u>All</u>
<u>N</u>	96	101	35	232
<u>Age</u>				
<30	42.1	24.8	55.8	36.5
31-40	38.9	50.5	20.6	41.3
41-50	9.5	16.8	23.5	14.8
>50	9.5	7.9	0.0	7.4
<u>Gender</u>				
Male	62.5	67.3	40.0	61.2
Female	37.5	32.7	60.0	38.8
<u>Education</u>				
Middle School	1.0	9.9	8.8	6.1
High School	57.3	55.4	61.8	57.1
2 yr College	20.8	21.8	20.6	21.2
4 yr University	18.8	11.9	8.8	14.3
Graduate School	2.1	1.0	0.0	1.3
<u>Job Level</u>				
Worker	60.7	55.5	70.5	59.8
Supervisor	25.5	28.7	14.7	25.3
Others	13.8	15.8	14.8	14.9
<u>Organizational Tenure</u>				
Mean (SD)	8.37 (3.67)	7.03 (4.20)	5.56 (3.04)	7.36 (3.94)

Note. Except for the rows in sample size N and organizational tenure, all entries are percentages. Due to rounding errors, the sum of all categories for some variables may not equal 100%.

One-way ANOVA was used to test the difference on organizational tenure, and contingency table analysis (chi square) was used to test the difference on age, gender, education level, and job level among the three joint ventures. Results showed that the samples in the three companies were similar except in age and gender compositions and average organizational tenure. All three joint ventures were very similar in their organizational sizes (ranged from 300 to 500). The samples from the three companies were combined into one for all analyses in the Results section.

Research Variables and Measures

Four sets of variables were included in this study: justice variables, outcome variables, moderator variables, and control variables. All variables were measured on a 7-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). The questionnaires were printed using the simplified Chinese characters used in mainland China. Appendixes A and B include reprints of the Chinese questionnaires used for the employee survey and supervisor ratings.

Distributive Justice

This variable was measured by a five-item scale taken from the Distributive Justice Index developed by Price and Mueller (1986). The five Distributive Justice Index items ask people to judge how they are fairly rewarded on the basis of their job responsibilities, effort, performance, experience, and stress. These five items have been used in a Chinese study and had a relatively high internal reliability (Leung et al., 1996). The Cronbach alpha coefficient of this scale in the current study was .94.

Procedural Justice

This study investigated three procedural justice variables: participation at company level, participation at job level, and appeal mechanism. *Participation at company level* refers to the extent to which employees are allowed to have input in the process of making company HR policies such as compensation policy, benefits policy, performance appraisal policy, recruiting/layoff policy, and training policy. It was measured by 5 items adapted from Balkin and Gomez-Meijia (1990) with a much broader HR policy content. The Cronbach alpha coefficient was .88. The scale items are included in Appendix C. *Participation at job level* refers to the extent to which employees are

allowed to have input in handling their daily work. Though the items of participation at job level were originally mixed with those of participation at company level, just as Alexander and Ruderman (1987) did in their study, the result from an exploratory factor analysis in the current study suggested they should be separated. Three of the four items in the scale were borrowed from the participation scale used by Alexander and Ruderman (1987). A typical item is, "I have a say in developing new work rules and procedures involving my job." The Cronbach alpha coefficient of participation at job level scale was .79 in this study. The scale items are included in Appendix D. *Appeal mechanism* refers to the extent to which employees can find a way to challenge a decision made regarding them by their superior or the organization. The development of an earlier five-item measure was mainly based on the work of Alexander and Ruderman (1987) as well as Spencer (1986). Due to its relatively low alpha coefficient found during the pilot study phase, two items were re-written and one new item was added with the assistance of a Chinese law professor who had extensive experience with labor disputes in China. The final scale consisted of 4 items, among which one was taken from Alexander and Ruderman (1987) and another from Spencer (1986). The Cronbach alpha coefficient of appeal mechanism scale was .73. The scale items are included in Appendix E.

An exploratory factor analysis (oblique rotation) of the 20 organizational justice items was used to guide the selection of the above 4 organizational justice scales. The result of this factor analysis can be found in Appendix F.

Contextual Performance and Task Performance

In Borman and Motowidlo's (1993) original taxonomy, the construct of contextual performance consists of the following five dimensions: 1) persisting with enthusiasm and

extra effort as necessary to complete one's task activities successfully (Extra Effort); 2) volunteering to carry out task activities that are not formally part of one's job (Volunteering); 3) helping and cooperating with others (Helping With Others); 4) following organizational rules and procedures (Following Rules); and 5) endorsing, supporting, and defending organizational objectives (Supporting Organization). A recent study by Coleman and Borman (in press) further investigated the dimensionality of contextual performance. Based on a consensus categorization by 44 job performance experts on 27 constructs within the contextual performance or OCB domain, Coleman and Borman generated a tri-structure of contextual performance with coworkers, job, and organization as three anchors. Correspondent to these anchors, contextual performance consists of the following three dimensions: personal support, conscientious initiative, and organizational support. The new taxonomy is believed to be as comprehensive as the original 5-dimension structure but more parsimonious (Borman, Hanson, Motowidlo, Drasgow, & Foster, 1998). Dimensions 1 and 2 (Extra Effort and Volunteering) in the original five-dimension structure combine to form the conscientious initiative construct, and the original dimensions 4 and 5 (Following Rules and Supporting Organization) merge into the new construct, organization support. The new construct, personal support, is equivalent to the original Helping Others dimension. This latest and relatively simpler taxonomy was adopted in the current study to guide the construction of contextual performance items. Given that there was a concern that the contextual aspect of job performance might not be separated from task performance in Chinese organizations, a measure of task performance was included in the study. An exploratory factor analysis

was then used to guide the construction of contextual performance scales as well as task performance scale.

A total of 27 items representing task performance and three aspects of contextual performance were used in the supervisor rating questionnaire. Among them, 6 items representing task performance activities were adapted from the work of Turner et al. (1999) as well as Williams and Anderson (1991). Eight items intended to measure conscientious initiative were adapted from Van Scotter and Motowidlo's (1996) job dedication scale. Another 8 items intended to represent personal help dimension of contextual performance were adapted from Van Scotter and Motowidlo's (1996) interpersonal facilitation scale. Finally, 5 items intended to measure organizational support were taken from Coleman and Borman's (in press) work as well as a Chinese company's performance appraisal rating form.

An exploratory factor analysis (maximum likelihood extraction and oblique rotation) was conducted on these 27 performance items. A scree plot test was used to determine the number of factors. Table 3 presents the factor loadings of all 27 performance items. The values that are underlined indicate the items that were retained to measure each dimension of performance. In interpreting the rotated factor pattern, an item was said to load on a given factor if the factor loading was .40 or greater for that factor, and was less than .40 for the others. Using these criteria, 11 items were loaded on Factor 1, which was labeled interpersonal facilitation, with 8 items conceptually reflecting interpersonal helping and cooperative behaviors, and three items reflecting following company's rules, personal discipline, and willingness to work overtime. These three items were not meaningful in interpreting the interpersonal facilitation factor and

Table 3
Results of Factor Analysis for the Performance Items (Oblique Rotation)

Items	IF	TP	JI	SO
The quality of the work fully meets the specified standards.	-10	<u>91</u>	02	03
Has achieved work objectives effectively.	06	<u>79</u>	-05	08
Always finishes work assignments on time and never misses a deadline.	00	<u>77</u>	01	-01
Fulfills all the requirements of the job.	03	<u>75</u>	07	03
Has demonstrated (or possessed) good professional knowledge and abilities in various assignments.	08	<u>70</u>	-02	11
Works conscientiously and rarely makes mistakes.	21	<u>60</u>	09	-04
Works hard with extra effort.	17	<u>52</u>	34	-18
Asks for challenging assignments.	04	-03	<u>79</u>	01
Tackles a difficult work assignment enthusiastically.	08	05	<u>77</u>	04
Takes the initiative to solve a new work problem.	04	14	<u>67</u>	07
Provides constructive suggestions about how the work unit/group can improve its effectiveness.	02	-14	<u>56</u>	41
Persists in overcoming obstacles to complete a task.	24	13	<u>54</u>	-06
Is capable of handling new problems at work.	-12	37	<u>51</u>	06
Treats others fairly.	<u>91</u>	-01	-05	-03
Shows willingness to help coworkers overcome obstacles at work.	<u>76</u>	04	09	01
Encourages others to overcome their differences and get along.	<u>73</u>	-01	02	04
Helps orient new people without being asked.	<u>71</u>	10	-14	15
Talks to other workers before taking actions that might affect them.	<u>58</u>	02	13	19
Praises coworkers when they are successful.	<u>55</u>	00	22	10
Helps others with their work when they have personal or family-related problems.	<u>55</u>	-06	05	19
Keeps high spirit when facing difficulty at work, and encourages others.	<u>54</u>	06	28	-01
Protects the organization's positive image and participates enthusiastically community service activities organized by the company.	05	-04	13	<u>77</u>
Engages actively in meetings and group activities within the company.	14	17	-14	<u>71</u>
Presents positive image of the organization to the outside world whenever there is a chance.	06	04	15	<u>59</u>
Shows willingness to work overtime to finish the urgent assignment.	48	05	28	-08
Exercises personal discipline and self-control.	59	14	17	-08
Strictly follows company's rules and procedures.	40	21	-01	14
Factor Eigenvalues	36.6	5.3	3.2	2.7
Variance Explained (%)	76.6	11.1	6.7	5.7
Factor Intercorrelation				
Interpersonal Facilitation		.59	.63	.54
Task Performance			.55	.38
Job Initiative				.43

Note. Underlined values indicate the items retained to measure the dimension. IF = Interpersonal Facilitation; TP = Task Performance; JI = Job Initiative; SO = Supporting Organization.

were dropped in constructing the scale. Factor 2, which was labeled task performance, had 7 high loading items with the first 5 reflecting work quality, quantity, timeliness, meeting job requirements and job competencies, and 2 additional items reflecting work effort and conscientiousness. These last two items were originally written for job initiative/dedication contextual dimension. This may reflect some unique feature of Chinese performance practice. Factor 3, which was labeled job initiative/dedication, consisted of 6 high loading items which reflect job initiative, making suggestions, persistence, and capable of handling new problems. Finally, Factor 4, which was labeled supporting organization, had three high loading items which reflect behaviors such as "Presents positive image of the organization to the outside world whenever there is a chance," and "Engages actively in meetings and group activities within the company."

The results of the factor analysis support the distinction made between task performance and three contextual performance dimensions. However, the interpretation of task performance in Chinese organizations might be slightly different than in Western organizations. In comparison with Western organizations, the Chinese appear to have a broader interpretation of task performance which may include some elements of contextual performance, such as taking extra effort and working conscientiously.

Based on the results of the above exploratory factor analysis, a task performance scale and three contextual performance scales were constructed. Task performance, which consisted of 7 items, had a coefficient alpha of .92. Job initiative/dedication was assessed by 6 items and had an alpha coefficient of .89. The interpersonal facilitation was assessed by 8 items (alpha = .92), and supporting organization by 3 items (alpha = .82).

The final items of these four performance scales as well as item-total correlation coefficients are included in Appendixes G to J.

Job Satisfaction

In general, there are two types of job satisfaction measures: overall job satisfaction and facet job satisfaction, which includes satisfaction with supervision, pay, and work environment, and so on. In this study, two scales of job satisfaction were included: overall job satisfaction and satisfaction with pay. The measure of *overall job satisfaction* originally consisted of three items taken from the Michigan Organization Assessment Questionnaire (MOAQ, Camman, Jenkins, Lawler, & Nadler, 1973). The negatively worded item did not fit in the scale well and was dropped during the pilot study phase which is described shortly. The final scale consisted of four items, all positively worded, with two items taken from the MOAQ, one adapted from Liang's (1986) job satisfaction scale, and the fourth from Chen, Hui, and Segó's (1998) turnover intention scale. The Cronbach alpha coefficient of this scale was .83. The scale items are included in Appendix K. *Satisfaction with pay* was measured with five items taken from the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). The Cronbach alpha coefficient for this scale was .88. The result of an exploratory factor analysis (oblique rotation) of overall job satisfaction and satisfaction with pay scales can be found in Appendix L.

Organizational Commitment

Two commonly used measures of organizational commitment were included: affective commitment and turnover intention. *Affective commitment* represents one's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson,

1989). The measure consisted of 8 items taken from Allen and Meyer (1990). A typical item is, “ I feel a strong sense of belonging to this organization.” This scale has been used by Davis et al. (1997) in a Chinese sample and its internal consistency (alpha) was .89, which was replicated in this study. *Turnover intention*, similar to the concept of continuance commitment, is a behavioral manifestation of non-commitment to the organization which can conceptually supplement affective commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Originally, it was assessed with 3 items taken from Camman, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh’s (1979) turnover intention scale. Again, the negatively worded item did not fit in the scale well and was dropped during the pilot study phase. The item was re-written so that it was positively worded. The final version of this scale had an alpha coefficient of .85. The scale items are included in Appendix M. The result of an exploratory factor analysis (oblique rotation) of affective commitment and turnover intention scales can be found in Appendix N.

Individualism-Collectivism (I-C)

Originally 12 items were used to measure this variable. These items were taken from previous I-C scales (Chen, 1997; Triandis, 1995; Wagner, 1996). Revisions were made during the English-Chinese translation phase. In the pilot study, these 12 items did not generate an I-C scale with an alpha coefficient exceeding the conventional level of .70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Three items were rewritten after the pilot study and only a total of 8 items were retained in the formal version of the survey questionnaire. Based on an exploratory factor analysis of I-C scale items as well as power distance scale items (see the description in the next section), 7 items were used to form the final I-C

scale, which had an alpha coefficient of .73 in the current sample. These items are included in Appendix O.

Power Distance

This variable was measured with a scale developed by Earley and Erez (1997). The scale can be used at the individual level and has been used in a study involving Chinese samples. I made a number of wording adjustments to the original items and created several new items to reflect Chinese thinking. The alpha coefficient of this scale was .75. The scale items are included in Appendix P. The result of an exploratory factor analysis (oblique rotation) of I-C and power distance scales can be found in Appendix Q.

Control Variables

The following five variables were included as control variables: age, gender, education, organizational tenure, and economic need. The first four demographic variables were collected by asking respondents to provide this information in the questionnaires they completed. Age was broken down into five groups: 20 years or younger, 21 to 30 years, 31 to 40 years, 41 to 50 years, and older than 50 years. The fifth control variable, economic needs, was measured by a three-point scale item adapted from Xie (1996): "All sources considered, please circle one of the following situations that best describes your current income level." The answers range from 1="my income is not sufficient for satisfying the basic needs" to 3="my income is well sufficient for satisfying my various needs."

Translation of Questionnaires

Since several scales in the questionnaire had already been translated into Chinese and tested in Chinese samples (i.e., affective commitment, power distance, I-C scale,

distributive justice) in previous studies (e.g., Chen, 1997; Davis et al., 1997; Leung et al., 1996), only minor wording changes were made for the present research. For scales that did not have a Chinese version, English-to-Chinese translation was made. Because this was a one-nation study, the emphasis in the translation was to capture the meaning of the scale item rather than to render the exact literal translation of the words. Hofstede (1980) and Alwin, Braun, Harkness, and Scott (1994) suggest that this method of translation may be less time consuming but more effective than the back translation method (Brislin, 1980). The latter is widely adopted for comparative studies involving multinational samples. Finally, during the pilot test and item revision process, all revisions were written in Chinese.

Procedures

Three pilot studies were conducted in China because many concepts and instruments are directly borrowed from the English literature and might not be familiar to the targeted research sample. The first pilot study was conducted to test the suitability of the employee version of the questionnaire which measured all research variables except job performance. The sample for this pilot study consisted of 56 Chinese employees and managers in a university's extended training program in a city in Eastern China. Two pilot studies were conducted to test the suitability of the supervisor rating questionnaire which measured the four job performance variables. The first was conducted in the east-coast city mentioned above and the sample consisted of 46 Chinese managers and officials in another university's extended training program. Because the alpha reliabilities of the four intended scales of job performance were relatively poor, probably due to a biased instruction (the participants were only asked to rate an imaginary good

subordinate among all of their reports) and some ambiguity in the original items, the questionnaire items as well as the instructions were revised with the help of a senior Chinese industrial psychologist who has extensive knowledge about Chinese performance management practices. A second pilot study was then conducted in a third university's extended training program located in Beijing. The sample for this pilot study consisted of 44 Chinese managers. The resulting alpha coefficients of all performance measures were well above the conventional level of .70.

In order to match employees' responses with supervisors' performance ratings, employees were asked to write down their names on the questionnaire, with the following two procedures to ensure the confidentiality: 1) the employees were either asked to mail the completed questionnaires directly to the researcher in Companies B and C, or were asked to seal the completed questionnaire with an envelope and directly hand it to the researcher in person in Company A; and 2) employees were assured that their individual responses would not be reported back to their company. In addition, professional ethical codes related to confidentiality were explained. In order to facilitate cooperation from the participants, each employee was provided a sheet of 4 American stamps as a gift for participating in this survey. Also, considering supervisors would have to rate 1 to 11 subordinates' job performance, each supervisor was offered a more expensive gift (i.e., a desk clock) to seek their cooperation. Finally, in order to gain support from the top management of each participating company, the researcher promised to provide a summary report of the survey to each company.

Data Analyses

Descriptive statistics, correlation analyses and moderated regression analyses were used to test the proposed hypotheses.

Descriptive statistics for all variables provided information on sample sizes, means, standard deviations, observed ranges, possible ranges, and internal consistency reliabilities.

Correlation analyses were conducted for all research variables. Zero-order correlation coefficients were obtained among justice variables (distributive justice, participation, and appeal mechanism), individual outcome variables (interpersonal facilitation, job dedication, overall job satisfaction, satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with procedures, affective commitment, and turnover intention), moderator variables (individualism-collectivism and power distance), and control variables (age, gender, education, organizational tenure and economic needs).

Hierarchical regression analyses were used to examine the main effects of justice variables on employees' reactions. Specifically, for each outcome variable (e.g., interpersonal facilitation), the regression analysis consisted of the following three sequential steps. In Step 1, age, gender, education, organizational tenure and economic needs were entered as control variables. In Step 2, the two cultural variables, I-C and power distance, were entered in the regression equation. In Step 3, both distributive justice or procedural justice variables (i.e., participation at company level, participation at job level and appeal mechanism were entered as a group) were entered into the regression equation to assess their possible main effects after partialling out of the effects of the control variables as well as cultural variables. Distributive justice and procedural justice

were entered in the same step because there was no *a priori* theory regarding which justice variable should be entered first. A two-step procedure using hierarchical multiple regression was used to examine the main effects of I-C on employees' contextual performance. The I-C variable was entered in the second step after the five control variables were entered.

Moderator tests were performed using multiple regression analyses recommended by Cohen and Cohen (1983). Specifically, for each individual outcome variable (e.g., interpersonal facilitation), the regression analyses consisted of the following three steps. In Step 1, age, gender, education, organizational tenure and economic needs were entered as control variables. In Step 2, a justice variable (distributive justice, participation at company level, participation at job level, or appeal mechanism) and a moderator variable (individualism-collectivism or power distance) were entered into the regression equation to assess their possible main effects after partialling out of the effects of the control variables. Finally in Step 3, a two-way interaction between the justice variable and the moderator variable was entered to examine the possible moderating effect of individualism-collectivism and power distance.

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics, Scale Reliabilities and Correlations

The means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and correlations for all variables are shown in Table 4. As can be seen in Table 4, all scales met the generally accepted reliability cutoff point of .70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Measures of the two cultural values, individualism-collectivism and power distance, which had relative low reliabilities in several other Chinese studies (e.g., .55 of power distance in Ackerman & Brockner, 1996; .51 to .69 of I-C in Chen et al., 1997), have alpha coefficients of .73 and .75 respectively in this study.

As shown in Table 4, age was significantly correlated with individualism-collectivism and power distance; the younger one's age, the higher one's preference for individualism and the lower one's score on power distance. This provided some support to the earlier observation that values are changing in the current Chinese society. The correlation between individualism-collectivism and power distance was significant but relatively small ($r = .24$, $p < .001$), suggesting they were quite distinct constructs. The mean score of power distance was 4.26 with the standard deviation of 1.06 on a 7-point scale; however, the mean of collectivism score was 6.12 and the standard deviation was the smallest (0.65) among all 7-point scale variables. These data provided a mixed support to the earlier observation that there is greater complexity and diversity in individual differences and social values among people in modern China.

The correlation between three justice variables (i.e., participation at company level, appeal mechanism, and distributive justice) and four attitudinal outcome variables.

Table 4
Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, and Intercorrelations of Research Variables

Variables	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1.Age	2.91	.91	(NA)										
2.Gender	1.38	.49	-.05	(NA)									
3.Education	3.50	.85	-.07	-.05	(NA)								
4.Organizational Tenure (year)	7.37	3.98	.53	.03	-.12	(NA)							
5.Economic Needs	2.22	.42	.17	.02	.07	.21	(NA)						
6. Individualism-Collectivism	6.12	.65	.26	-.11	-.12	.20	.05	(.73)					
7.Power Distance (PD)	4.26	1.06	.22	-.15	-.05	.02	.05	.24	(.75)				
8.Participation-Company	4.34	1.55	.13	.05	-.19	.01	.03	.24	.34	(.88)			
9.Participation-Job	5.49	1.27	-.02	-.03	-.04	.05	.00	.18	-.09	.13	(.79)		
10.Appeal Mechanism	5.02	1.36	.13	.11	-.20	.13	.03	.23	.21	.48	.23	(.73)	
11.Distributive Justice	4.80	1.56	.17	-.01	-.18	.05	.16	.21	.36	.40	.11	.33	(.94)
12.Job Satisfaction	5.16	1.27	.38	-.08	-.16	.20	.11	.33	.37	.28	.10	.23	.47
13.Satisfaction with Pay	5.14	1.27	.29	-.01	-.13	.11	.24	.30	.36	.28	.07	.17	.73
14.Turnover Intention	2.51	1.50	-.32	.05	.11	-.12	-.07	-.18	-.30	-.19	.00	-.19	-.46
15.Affective Commitment	5.49	1.10	.43	.08	-.22	.21	.15	.47	.31	.39	.10	.33	.50
16.Task Performance	5.73	.84	.09	.00	-.10	.08	.00	-.04	-.01	-.02	-.05	.03	.10
17.Job Initiative	5.24	.99	.11	-.22	.12	.08	.04	-.08	-.08	-.12	-.08	-.09	-.03
18.Interperson Facilitation	5.44	.97	.07	-.14	.06	.04	.05	-.08	-.05	-.05	-.03	-.01	.06
19.Supporting Organization	5.56	1.00	.18	-.09	.17	.08	.12	-.11	.07	-.11	-.08	.00	.07

Note. N=224. $p < .05$ if $r > |.13|$; $p < .01$ if $r > |.17|$; $p < .001$ if $r > |.22|$. Reliabilities are in the diagonal. NA = Not Available. Age was coded: <20=1; 20-30=2; 30-40=3; 40-50=4; >50=5. Gender was coded: male=1; female=2. Economic Needs was coded: 1=income not sufficient for basic needs and 3=income can satisfy more than basic needs; Individualism-Collectivism: higher score indicates collectivism. PD: higher score indicates high PD.

Table 4 (continued)

Variables	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
12.Job Satisfaction	(.83)							
13.Satisfaction with Pay	.59	(.88)						
14.Turnover Intention	-.62	-.56	(.85)					
15.Affective Commitment	.67	.57	-.59	(.89)				
16.Task Performance	.12	.07	-.11	.01	(.92)			
17.Job Initiative	.01	-.07	-.04	-.11	.65	(.89)		
18.Interperson Facilitation	.12	.06	-.10	-.01	.63	.72	(.92)	
19.Supporting Organization	.13	.09	-.12	.00	.47	.56	.62	(.82)

Note. N=224. $p < .05$ if $r > |.13|$; $p < .01$ if $r > |.17|$; $p < .001$ if $r > |.22|$. Reliabilities are in the diagonal. NA = Not Available. Age was coded: <20=1; 20-30=2; 30-40=3; 40-50=4; >50=5. Gender was coded: male=1; female=2. Economic Needs was coded: 1=income not sufficient for basic needs and 3=income can satisfy more than basic needs; Individualism-Collectivism: higher score indicates collectivism. PD: higher score indicates high PD.

(job satisfaction, satisfaction with pay, turnover intention, and affective commitment) were all significant at $p < .01$ level. However, participation at job level does not significantly correlate with any of the four attitudinal outcome variables. None of the justice variables correlated significantly with any of the four job performance dimensions (i.e., task performance, job initiative, interpersonal facilitation, and supporting organization).

All four attitudinal outcome variables were correlated significantly with each other (r ranged from .57 to .67, all at $p < .001$ level). The four performance dimensions rated by supervisors were all correlated with each other significantly ($p < .001$ level; r ranged from .47 to .72). However, the attitudinal outcome variables did not correlate significantly with the performance outcome variables, with the exception of job satisfaction and supporting organization ($r = .13$, $p < .05$). Correlation coefficients between individualism-collectivism and the four attitudinal outcome variables were all significant at $p < .001$ level. However, correlation coefficients between I-C and three contextual performance variables were not significant, and the directions of the relationships were all negative: the higher the collectivism, the lower the ratings of employees' contextual performance.

Power Analysis for Multiple Regression

Based on Cohen's (1992) suggestion, power was calculated for multiple regression analysis. For $N = 220$, 11 variables in equation, $R^2 = .15$, and $\Delta R^2 = .02$, the observed power is .93 for alpha = .05 test (2-tailed). In the moderator multiple regression case, when $N = 220$, five control variables and two predictors and one interaction in equation, $R^2 = .08$, and $\Delta R^2 = .03$, the observed power is .89 for alpha = .05 test (2-tailed).

Regression Analysis: Main effects of Justice on Outcome Variables

Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted to examine the main effects of distributive and procedural justice variables on employees' attitudes and job behaviors. The following three-step procedure was adopted based on Cohen and Cohen (1983): 1) the five control variables (i.e., age, gender, education, organizational tenure and economic needs) were entered in the first step; 2) the two cultural values (i.e., I-C and power distance) were entered in the second step; and 3) both the distributive justice variable and the three procedural justice variables (i.e., participation at company level, participation at job level, and appeal mechanism) were entered in the third step. Table 5 reports the results of this regression analysis. As shown in Table 5, distributive justice had a consistent effect on each of the four self-reported outcome variables (job satisfaction, satisfaction with pay, turnover intention, and affective commitment). The signs of the four beta weights were all in the anticipated direction and they were statistically significant at $p < .001$ level. The results also show that distributive justice had a significant impact on interpersonal facilitation ($\beta = .16, p < .05$) and had close to a significant effect on both task performance ($\beta = .14, p < .10$) and supporting organization ($\beta = .12, p < .10$). However, distributive justice did not have any significant impact on job initiative.

Table 5 shows that procedural justice had a less consistent effect on the outcome variables. Among the three procedural justice variables examined, participation at company level was found to have a significantly positive impact on affective commitment ($\beta = .13, p < .05$) in the expected direction. However, the results show that appeal mechanism had a significantly negative effect on satisfaction with pay ($\beta = -.13,$

Table 5
Results of Regression Analysis of Justice on Outcome Variables

Outcome Variables	Predictors	β	R^2	ΔR^2	dfs
<u>Commitment</u>					
Step 1:	Age	.47***	.26	.26***	5,210
	Gender	.13 *			
	Education	-.20 **			
	Organizational Tenure	-.11			
	Economic Needs	.11 [†]			
Step 2:	Individualism-Collectivism	.33***	.42	.15***	7,208
	Power Distance	.19***			
Step 3:	Distributive Justice	.26***	.51	.09***	11,204
	Participation-Company	.13*			
	Participation-Job	.00			
	Appeal Mechanism	.03			
<u>Job Satisfaction</u>					
Step 1:	Age	.38***	.17	.17***	5,212
	Gender	-.05			
	Education	-.13*			
	Organizational Tenure	-.03			
	Economic Needs	.05			
Step 2:	Individualism-Collectivism	.17**	.28	.11***	7,210
	Power Distance	.27***			
Step 3:	Distributive Justice	.29***	.36	.08***	11,206
	Participation-Company	.02			
	Participation-Job	.05			
	Appeal Mechanism	.00			
<u>Pay Satisfaction</u>					
Step 1:	Age	.32***	.15	.15***	5,211
	Gender	.02			
	Education	-.15 *			
	Organizational Tenure	-.13 [†]			
	Economic Needs	.22***			
Step 2:	Individualism-Collectivism	.17***	.27	.12***	7,209
	Power Distance	.28***			
Step 3:	Distributive Justice	.68***	.62	.35***	11,205
	Participation-Company	-.03			
	Participation-Job	.02			
	Appeal Mechanism	-.13*			
<u>Turnover Intention</u>					
Step 1:	Age	-.42***	.14	.14***	5,212
	Gender	-.01			
	Education	.06			
	Organizational Tenure	.12			
	Economic Needs	.00			
Step 2:	Individualism-Collectivism	-.07	.19	.05**	7,210
	Power Distance	-.20**			
Step 3:	Distributive Justice	-.39***	.31	.12***	11,206
	Participation-Company	.03			
	Participation-Job	.02			
	Appeal Mechanism	-.04			

Note. [†]p<.10; *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001; two-tailed tests. Gender was coded: male=1 female=2. Due to rounding errors, the difference between R^2 in adjacent steps may not equal ΔR^2 .

Table 5 (continued)

Outcome Variables	Predictors	β	R^2	ΔR^2	dfs
<u>Task Performance</u>					
Step 1:	Age	.07	.02	.02 [†]	5,213
	Gender	.00			
	Education	-.09			
	Organizational Tenure	.04			
	Economic Needs	-.01			
Step 2:	Individualism-Collectivism	-.08	.03	.01	7,211
	Power Distance	-.01			
Step 3:	Distributive Justice	.14 [†]	.05	.02	11,207
	Participation-Company	-.09			
	Participation-Job	-.07			
	Appeal Mechanism	.03			
<u>Job Initiative</u>					
Step 1:	Age	.07	.08	.08 ^{**}	5,214
	Gender	-.22 ^{***}			
	Education	.12 [†]			
	Organizational Tenure	.08			
	Economic Needs	.01			
Step 2:	Individualism-Collectivism	-.10	.11	.03 [*]	7,212
	Power Distance	-.10			
Step 3:	Distributive Justice	.06	.12	.01	11,208
	Participation-Company	-.08			
	Participation-Job	-.08			
	Appeal Mechanism	.00			
<u>Interpersonal Facilitation</u>					
Step 1:	Age	.06	.03	.03	5,212
	Gender	-.15 [*]			
	Education	.04			
	Organizational Tenure	.00			
	Economic Needs	.04			
Step 2:	Individualism-Collectivism	-.12 [†]	.05	.02	7,210
	Power Distance	-.05			
Step 3:	Distributive Justice	.16 [*]	.07	.02	11,206
	Participation-Company	-.07			
	Participation-Job	-.05			
	Appeal Mechanism	.03			
<u>Supporting Organization</u>					
Step 1:	Age	.17 [*]	.08	.08 ^{**}	5,214
	Gender	-.10			
	Education	.17 ^{**}			
	Organizational Tenure	.02			
	Economic Needs	.09			
Step 2:	Individualism-Collectivism	-.17 [*]	.11	.03 [*]	7,212
	Power Distance	.07			
Step 3:	Distributive Justice	.12 [†]	.14	.03	11,208
	Participation-Company	-.18 [*]			
	Participation-Job	-.05			
	Appeal Mechanism	.08			

Note. [†] $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$; two-tailed tests. Gender was coded: male=1 female=2. Due to rounding errors, the difference between R^2 in adjacent steps may not equal ΔR^2 .

$p < .05$), and participation at company level had a significantly negative impact on supporting organization; both were in a direction that was unanticipated. No other significant relationships between procedural justice and the outcome variables were found from this analysis.

In order to determine the unique contribution made by distributive justice beyond the influence of procedural justice, the five control variables and two cultural values variables, another set of hierarchical regression analyses was conducted. In this procedure, distributive justice was entered in the final step after all other variables were entered in the equation. The results show that distributive justice consistently had a significant impact on all attitudinal outcome variables after controlling for the influence of five demographic variables, two cultural variables, and procedural justice variables. The variance uniquely explained by distributive justice is: 5% for affective commitment, 6% for job satisfaction, 33% for satisfaction with pay, and 11% for turnover intention. Distributive justice also showed a significant and unique impact on interpersonal facilitation, and close to a significant impact on task performance and supporting organization, after controlling the effects of five demographic variables, two cultural variables, and procedural variables. The variance uniquely explained by distributive justice is: 2% for interpersonal facilitation, 1% for task performance, and 1% for supporting organization.

From the above results, hypothesis 1a, which states that there will be significant and positive relationship between distributive justice and contextual performance, was only partly supported. The result demonstrates that distributive justice was significantly related to interpersonal facilitation as expected. Also, distributive justice was found to

have close to a significant impact on supporting organization, though not reaching the conventional significance level (i.e., $p < .05$). Distributive justice did not have a significant relationship with job initiative. Hypothesis 1b, which states that there will be significant and positive relationship between procedural justice and contextual performance, was not supported. Among the three procedural justice variables examined (i.e., participation at company level, participation at job level, and appeal mechanism), none were found to have a positive relationship with contextual performance. Contrary to hypothesis 1b, participation at company level was found to have a negative relationship with supporting organization.

Regression Analysis: Main effects of I-C on Contextual Performance

Multiple regression analyses were conducted to examine the main effects of individualism-collectivism on employees' contextual performance. A two-step procedure was used. The five control variables (i.e., age, gender, education, organizational tenure and economic needs) were entered in the first step, and I-C was entered in the second step. The result of this regression analysis is shown in Table 6. The results show I-C had a significant contribution on supporting organization after controlling for five demographic variables. It also shows that I-C had a close to significant impact on job initiative and interpersonal facilitation beyond the impact of the five control variables. However, the directions of all these associations were in the opposite direction predicted by the hypothesis, i.e., the lower one's collectivism tendency, the higher their contextual performance (supporting organization, job initiative, and interpersonal facilitation). Thus, hypothesis 2, which predicts that collectivists will perform better on contextual activities than will individualists, was not supported by this study.

Table 6
Results of Regression Analyses of Individualism-Collectivism on Contextual Performance

Outcome Variables	Predictors	β	R^2	ΔR^2	dfs
<u>Job Initiative</u>					
Step 1:	Control Variables		.08	.08**	5,220
Step 2:	Individualism-Collectivism	-.13 [†]	.09	.01 [†]	6,219
<u>Interpersonal Facilitation</u>					
Step 1:	Control Variables		.03	.03	5,218
Step 2:	Individualism-Collectivism	-.13 [†]	.04	.02 [†]	6,217
<u>Supporting Organization</u>					
Step 1:	Control Variables		.08	.08**	5,220
Step 2:	Individualism-Collectivism	-.16*	.10	.02*	6,219

Note. The control variables are: Age, gender, education, organizational tenure, and economic needs. [†] $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; two-tailed tests. Due to rounding errors, the difference between R^2 in adjacent steps may not equal ΔR^2 .

Regression Analysis: Moderator Effects of I-C on Justice-Contextual Performance Relationships

Moderated regression analyses were conducted to examine I-C's moderating effects on justice and contextual performance relationships. The following three-step procedure suggested by Cohen and Cohen (1983) was adopted in this analysis: 1) in the first step, the five demographic variables were entered as control variables; 2) I-C and one of the justice variables were entered in the second step; and 3) the interaction term between I-C and the justice variable was entered in the third step. Table 7 reports the results of the regression analysis regarding the moderating effect of I-C on the justice-outcome relationship. The result shows: 1) the interaction between I-C and distributive justice was not related to the contextual performance variables; 2) the interaction between

Table 7
Results of Moderated Regression Analyses of Individualism-Collectivism with Justice Variables on Contextual Performance

Outcome Variables	Predictors	β	R^2	ΔR^2	dfs
<u>Job Initiative</u>					
Step 1:	Control Variables		.08	.08**	5,219
Step 2:	Distributive Justice	-.01	.09	.02	7,217
	Individualism-Collectivism	-.13 [†]			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	.31	.09	.00	8,216
Step 1:	Control Variables		.08	.08**	5,219
Step 2:	Participation-Company	-.08	.10	.02 [†]	7,217
	Individualism-Collectivism	-.11			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	-.20	.10	.00	8,216
Step 1:	Control Variables		.08	.08**	5,219
Step 2:	Participation-Job	-.06	.10	.02	7,217
	Individualism-Collectivism	-.12 [†]			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	-.65	.10	.00	8,216
Step 1:	Control Variables		.08	.08**	5,219
Step 2:	Appeal Mechanism	-.04	.10	.02	7,217
	Individualism-Collectivism	-.11 [†]			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	-.53	.10	.00	8,216
<u>Interpersonal Facilitation</u>					
Step 1:	Control Variables		.03	.03	5,217
Step 2:	Distributive Justice	.10	.05	.02 [†]	7,215
	Individualism-Collectivism	-.15*			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	.57	.06	.00	8,214
Step 1:	Control Variables		.03	.03	5,217
Step 2:	Participation-Company	-.03	.05	.02	7,215
	Individualism-Collectivism	-.13 [†]			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	-.24	.05	.00	8,214
Step 1:	Control Variables		.03	.03	5,218
Step 2:	Participation-Job	-.01	.04	.02	7,216
	Individualism-Collectivism	-.13 [†]			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	-1.25 [†]	.06	.01 [†]	8,215
Step 1:	Control Variables		.03	.03	5,216
Step 2:	Appeal Mechanism	.02	.05	.02	7,214
	Individualism-Collectivism	-.13 [†]			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	.83	.05	.01	8,213

Note. The control variables are: Age, gender, education, organizational tenure, and economic needs.
[†] $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; two-tailed tests. Due to rounding errors, the difference between R^2 in adjacent steps may not equal ΔR^2 .

Table 7 (continued)

Outcome Variables	Predictors	β	R^2	ΔR^2	dfs
<u>Supporting Organization</u>					
Step 1:	Control Variables		.08	.08**	5,219
Step 2:	Distributive Justice	.09	.11	.03*	7,217
	Individualism-Collectivism	-.17**			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	.22	.11	.00	8,216
Step 1:	Control Variables		.08	.08**	5,219
Step 2:	Participation-Company	-.07	.10	.03*	7,217
	Individualism-Collectivism	-.14*			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	-.16	.10	.00	8,216
Step 1:	Control Variables		.08	.08**	5,220
Step 2:	Participation-Job	-.04	.10	.02 [†]	7,218
	Individualism-Collectivism	-.15*			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	.51	.10	.00	8,217
Step 1:	Control Variables		.08	.08**	5,218
Step 2:	Appeal Mechanism	.05	.11	.02 [†]	7,216
	Individualism-Collectivism	-.16*			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	-.52	.11	.00	8,215

Note. The control variables are: Age, gender, education, organizational tenure, and economic needs.
[†] $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; two-tailed tests. Due to rounding errors, the difference between R^2 in adjacent steps may not equal ΔR^2 .

I-C and each of the procedural justice variables (i.e., participation at company level, participation at job level, and appeal mechanism) was not related to the contextual performance variables. The only interaction close to significance is the one between I-C and participation at job level on interpersonal facilitation, where $\Delta R^2 = .01$ ($p = .09$), $R^2 = .06$ (full model) and $\beta = -1.25$.

Based on the above result, hypotheses 3a and 3b, which state that I-C will moderate the relationship between justice (both distributive and procedural justice) and contextual performance, were not supported.

Regression Analysis: Moderator Effects of Power Distance on Procedural Justice-Outcome Relationships

Moderated regression analyses were conducted to examine the moderating impact of power distance on the relationship between procedural justice and the outcome variables. Again, the following three-step procedure suggested by Cohen and Cohen (1983) was adopted in this analysis: 1) in the first step, the five demographic variables were entered as control variables; 2) power distance and one of the three procedural justice variables (i.e., participation at company level, participation at job level, and appeal mechanism) were entered in the second step; and 3) the interaction term involving power distance and procedural justice was entered in the third step.

Table 8 reports the results regarding the moderating role of power distance on procedural justice-outcome relationships. As shown in Table 8, among 24 interactions examined, only three are significant. Power distance moderates the relationship between participation at job level and task performance ($p < .05$), the relationship between participation at company level and job initiative ratings ($p < .05$), and the relationship between participation at job level and job initiative ratings ($p < .01$).

These three significant interactions between power distance and procedural justice variables indicate that, for people with different values for power distance, procedural justice has different effects. To interpret the above findings, regression lines for high (one standard deviation above the mean) power distance and for low (one standard deviation below the mean) power distance were plotted and compared (Cohen & Cohen, 1983, p. 323). Figure 1 depicts the significant interaction effect of power distance on the relationship between participation at job level and task performance. The relationship

Table 8
Results of Moderated Regression Analyses of Power Distance with Procedural Justice on Outcome Variables

Outcome Variables	Predictors	β	R^2	ΔR^2	dfs
<u>Commitment</u>					
Step 1:	Control Variables		.26	.26***	5,213
Step 2:	Participation-Company	.25***	.37	.11***	7,211
	Power Distance	.17***			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	-.14	.37	.00	8,210
Step 1:	Control Variables		.26	.26***	5,213
Step 2:	Participation-Job	.12**	.32	.07***	7,211
	Power Distance	.26***			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	-.36	.32	.00	8,210
Step 1:	Control Variables		.26	.26***	5,213
Step 2:	Appeal Mechanism	.19***	.35	.09***	7,211
	Power Distance	.20***			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	.13	.35	.00	8,210
<u>Job Satisfaction</u>					
Step 1:	Control Variables		.17	.17***	5,215
Step 2:	Participation-Company	.12	.27	.10***	7,213
	Power Distance	.27***			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	.12	.27	.00	8,212
Step 1:	Control Variables		.17	.17***	5,216
Step 2:	Participation-Job	.12*	.26	.10***	7,214
	Power Distance	.31***			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	.30	.27	.00	8,213
Step 1:	Control Variables		.17	.17***	5,214
Step 2:	Appeal Mechanism	.11	.26	.09***	7,212
	Power Distance	.27***			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	.10	.26	.00	8,211
<u>Pay Satisfaction</u>					
Step 1:	Control Variables		.15	.15***	5,214
Step 2:	Participation-Company	.13*	.26	.11***	7,212
	Power Distance	.28***			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	.47	.27	.01	8,211
Step 1:	Control Variables		.15	.15***	5,215
Step 2:	Participation-Job	.10	.26	.10***	7,213
	Power Distance	.33***			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	-.08	.26	.00	8,212
Step 1:	Control Variables		.15	.15***	5,213
Step 2:	Appeal Mechanism	.05	.25	.09***	7,211
	Power Distance	.30***			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	.57	.25	.01	8,210

Note. The control variables are: Age, gender, education, organizational tenure, and economic needs.
[†] $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$; two-tailed tests. Due to rounding errors, the difference between R^2 in adjacent steps may not equal ΔR^2 .

Table 8 (continued)

Outcome Variables	Predictors	β	R^2	ΔR^2	dfs
<u>Turnover Intention</u>					
Step 1:	Control Variables		.13	.13***	5,215
Step 2:	Participation-Company	-.09	.18	.06***	7,213
	Power Distance	-.20**			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	.14	.18	.00	8,212
Step 1:	Control Variables		.12	.12***	5,216
Step 2:	Participation-Job	-.02	.18	.05***	7,214
	Power Distance	-.24***			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	.17	.18	.00	8,213
Step 1:	Control Variables		.13	.13***	5,214
Step 2:	Appeal Mechanism	-.11	.19	.06***	7,212
	Power Distance	-.21**			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	-.03	.19	.00	8,211
<u>Task Performance</u>					
Step 1:	Control Variables		.02	.02 [†]	5,216
Step 2:	Participation-Company	-.05	.02	.00	7,214
	Power Distance	.00			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	-.34	.02	.00	8,213
Step 1:	Control Variables		.02	.02 [†]	5,217
Step 2:	Participation-Job	-.07	.02	.00	7,215
	Power Distance	-.03			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	-.79*	.04	.02*	8,214
Step 1:	Control Variables		.02	.02 [†]	5,215
Step 2:	Appeal Mechanism	.00	.02	.00	7,213
	Power Distance	-.02			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	-.21	.02	.00	8,212
<u>Job Initiative</u>					
Step 1:	Control Variables		.08	.08**	5,217
Step 2:	Participation-Company	-.08	.10	.02	7,215
	Power Distance	-.10			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	-.69*	.11	.02*	8,214
Step 1:	Control Variables		.08	.08**	5,218
Step 2:	Participation-Job	-.09	.10	.02	7,216
	Power Distance	-.14*			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	-.98**	.13	.03**	8,215
Step 1:	Control Variables		.08	.08**	5,216
Step 2:	Appeal Mechanism	-.04	.10	.02	7,214
	Power Distance	-.11			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	-.57	.10	.01	8,213

Note: The control variables are: Age, gender, education, organizational tenure, and economic needs.
[†]p<.10; *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001; two-tailed tests. Due to rounding errors, the difference between R^2 in adjacent steps may not equal ΔR^2 .

Table 8 (continued)

Outcome Variables	Predictors	β	R^2	ΔR^2	dfs
<u>Interpersonal Facilitation</u>					
Step 1:	Control Variables		.03	.03	5,215
Step 2:	Participation-Company	-.03	.03	.01	7,213
	Power Distance	-.07			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	-.58	.05	.01	8,212
Step 1:	Control Variables		.03	.03	5,216
Step 2:	Participation-Job	-.05	.04	.01	7,214
	Power Distance	-.09			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	-.62	.05	.01	8,213
Step 1:	Control Variables		.03	.03	5,214
Step 2:	Appeal Mechanism	.01	.04	.01	7,212
	Power Distance	-.08			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	-.56	.04	.01	8,211
<u>Supporting Organization</u>					
Step 1:	Control Variables		.08	.08**	5,217
Step 2:	Participation-Company	-.13	.09	.02	7,215
	Power Distance	.08			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	.32	.10	.00	8,214
Step 1:	Control Variables		.08	.08**	5,218
Step 2:	Participation-Job	-.06	.08	.00	7,216
	Power Distance	.03			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	-.55	.09	.01	8,215
Step 1:	Control Variables		.08	.08**	5,216
Step 2:	Appeal Mechanism	.01	.09	.00	7,214
	Power Distance	.04			
Step 3:	Interaction Term	-.79	.10	.01	8,213

Note: The control variables are: Age, gender, education, organizational tenure, and economic needs.
[†] $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$; two-tailed tests. Due to rounding errors, the difference between R^2 in adjacent steps may not equal ΔR^2 .

between participation at job level and task performance was near zero for the low power distance group ($r = .08$, n.s.). However, the relationship between participation at job level and task performance became negative for the high power distance group ($r = -.30$, $p < .05$).

Figure 2 depicts the significant interaction effect of power distance on the relationship between participation at company level and job initiative. The relationship

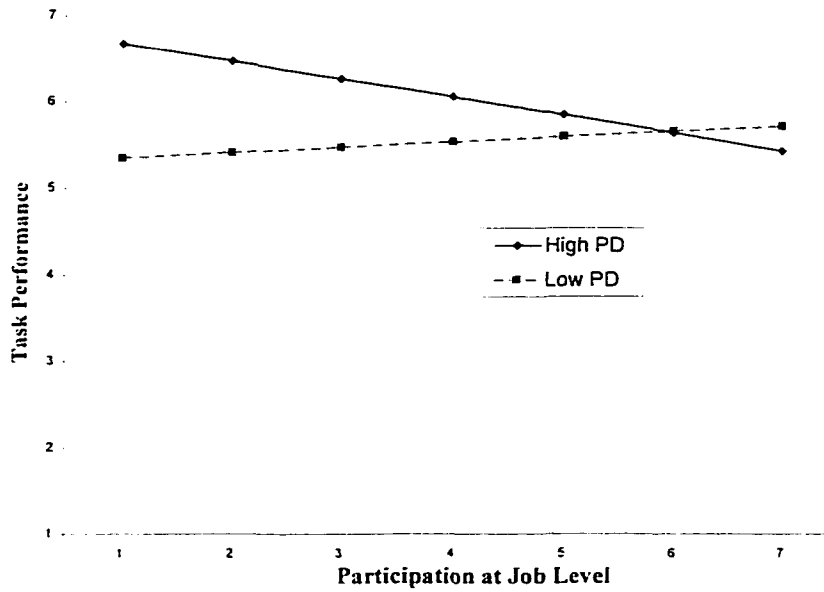


Figure 1. Participation at Job Level and Task Performance by Power Distance

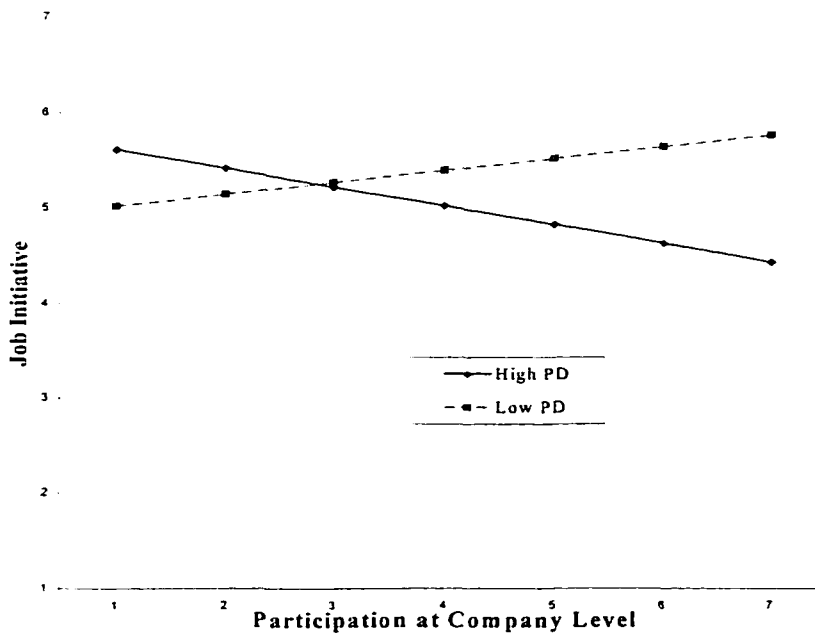


Figure 2. Participation at Company Level and Job Initiative by Power Distance

between participation at company level and job initiative was positive for the low power distance group ($r = .19$, n.s.). However, the relationship between participation at company level and job initiative became negative for the high power distance group ($r = -.20$, n.s.).

Figure 3 depicts the significant interaction effect of power distance on the relationship between participation at job level and job initiative. The relationship between participation at job level and job initiative was near zero for the low power distance group ($r = .04$, n.s.). However, the relationship between participation at job level and job initiative became negative for the high power distance group ($r = -.36$, $p < .05$).

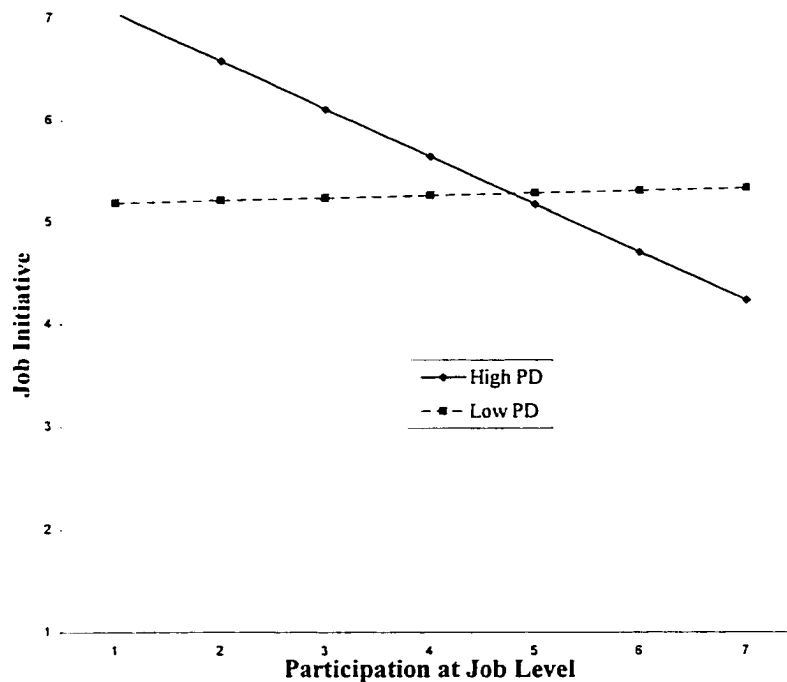


Figure 3. Participation at Job Level and Job Initiative by Power Distance

These results suggest that for high power distance Chinese employees, introducing procedural justice such as participating at job level and company policy level

might lead to poor job performance. However, for those Chinese employees who hold low power distance values, introducing procedural justice would likely reinforce employees' job performance such as job initiative behavior, or at least would not create negative outcomes.

Based on the above results, hypothesis 4, which states that power distance will moderate the relationship between procedural justice and organizational outcomes (affective commitment, job satisfaction, and contextual performance), was partly supported.

DISCUSSION

Role of Justice and Individual Cultural Values in Chinese Organizations

This study was conducted to address four issues regarding the roles of justice and individual cultural values in Chinese organizations. First, based on a review of organizational justice research and Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory, it was theorized that distributive and procedural justice would have effects on contextual job performance. Distributive justice defined in Adam's (1965) equity theory, as well as three aspects of procedural justice (participation at company level, participation at job level, and appeal mechanism) were examined in this study.

The findings revealed that distributive justice had a significant impact on one of the contextual performance dimensions, i.e., interpersonal facilitation. The portion of the variance explained was 2% after controlling for all other variables, including demographic variables, individual cultural values, and procedural justice variables. Distributive justice did not have a significant impact on the other two dimensions of contextual performance (job initiative and supporting organization). Given that the interpersonal facilitation factor accounted for 76.6% of the common variance in all performance items (see Table 3), the significant contribution to interpersonal facilitation by distributive justice is especially noteworthy. However, with regard to the procedural justice-contextual performance relationships, the results were disappointing. Among the three procedural justice variables (i.e., participation at company level, participation at job level, and appeal mechanism) examined, none were found to have a positive relationship with contextual performance. Contrary to hypothesis 1b, participation at company level was found to have a negative relationship with supporting organization. One possible

explanation for this is that, a voice-based system might not always promote justice (see Korsgaard & Roberson, 1995) and the value of voice as a foundation of fairness, whether in the form of participation in company's policy making process and daily work activities, or appealing to authority for fair treatment, is not universal (Ackerman & Brockner, 1996). In fact, as Ackerman and Brockner (1996) found, for people who automatically respect and accept hierarchy and authority, participation is not very effective for gaining favorable reactions.

A second explanation for this unexpected finding is that the job performance ratings provided by Chinese supervisors in China might not be as valid as those in the US. Indeed, as indicated in the Results section, the four performance dimensions rated by Chinese supervisors only correlated with each other but not with other variables, including job satisfaction. However, previous studies (e.g., Moorman, 1991) in the U.S. showed that there was a significant correlation between job satisfaction and job behavior ratings provided by supervisors. This suspicion is strengthened by the following two facts. First, unlike Western organizations, performance appraisal is only a recent phenomenon in Chinese firms, including Sino-foreign joint ventures. Compared with their American counterparts, Chinese managers are generally less experienced and have received less training in how to provide performance ratings for their employees. Indeed, one observed at a Sino-foreign joint venture's training center that, the range of Chinese managers' (assessors) ratings was only 1/9 of that provided by Western managers (Beamer, 1998). Second, there is evidence that Chinese employees and managers tend to value and therefore put a lot of time in nurturing friendship or "guanxi" with their superiors. Boisot and Liang (1992) found that Chinese managers spend four times as

much time as their Western counterparts looking up on business involving one's superior. Thus, the interpersonal affect, which was found to influence performance ratings when supervisors are asked to appraise their employees in U.S. organizations (Murphy & Cleveland, 1991), might play even a stronger role in Chinese firms.

Although the major focus of this study was the impact of justice on contextual performance, as discussed above, the effects of justice on attitudinal outcomes are also noteworthy. Zero-order correlations (see Table 4) showed that both distributive justice and procedural justice had significant relationships with all attitudinal variables, including affective commitment, satisfaction with pay, job satisfaction, and turnover intention. However, after controlling for demographic variables and cultural values, there are several interesting findings regarding the relative importance of distributive justice versus procedural justice. First, distributive justice consistently demonstrated an effect on attitudinal variables such as job satisfaction, pay satisfaction, turnover intention, commitment, while procedural justice only had a significant effect on affective commitment as expected. Second, the effect sizes of distributive justice on these attitudinal variables were larger than those of procedural justice. Distributive justice explained from 5% to 33% unique variance of the four attitudinal variables, whereas procedural justice only explained 2% unique variance of affective commitment. Third, among the three aspects of procedural justice examined, only participation at company level was found to make a significant and meaningful unique contribution to affective commitment, while appeal mechanism was found to have a negative effect on satisfaction with pay (see Table 5). Comparing the two kinds of organizational justice, it appears that

distributive justice played a much more important role than that of procedural justice in Chinese organizations.

Several cultural and social factors may explain the difference in importance between distributive justice and procedural justice in Chinese organizations. First, the dramatic transformation of Chinese economy as well as changes in political and social environments in the last two decades have lowered average workers' social status and economic security, while income gaps between newly rich classes and average workers are widening. The lost job security, decreasing social status, and widening income gap might direct Chinese workers' to pay more attention to distributive justice, and to a lesser degree to procedural justice. This is consistent with Maslow's (1970) theory of hierarchy of needs. It is also consistent with the prediction of fairness heuristic theory proposed by Lind and his colleagues (Lind, Kulik, Ambrose, De Vera Park, 1993) and demonstrated by van den Bos, Vermunt, and Wilke (1997). In two laboratory experiments, van den Bos et al. (1997) found that the judgment of fairness is more strongly determined by information that is presented first than by information presented later. In Chinese organizations and the society as a whole, distributive information is likely to be processed first because distributive or outcome comparisons across individuals, groups and occupations have been highly publicized concerns in recent years (some even refer to this fixation on outcome comparisons as "Red Eye Disease" or "Oriental Jealousy," see Yu & He, 1995). Second, while the concept of distributive justice is congruent with the Confucian tenet, "no worry about scarcity but unevenness; no worry about poverty but instability" (Lunyu, 1991, p. 266; cited in Chen, 1995), this concern for distribution of rewards is more likely absorbed into Chinese values; the concept of procedural justice,

which was only developed more recently in the West, might be more alien to Chinese. Coincidentally, in a study with employees from Mexico, a developing country also characterized with dramatic economic development in recent years, Konovsky et al. (1995) found that distributive justice was a stronger predictor of OCB (organizational citizenship behavior) than procedural justice, while the opposite is true in U.S. organizations.

Second, this study examined the direct effect of individualism-collectivism (I-C) on contextual performance. It was hypothesized that I-C would be related to contextual performance, and, specifically, collectivists would engage in more contextual activities than do individualists. The findings of this study revealed that, I-C marginally predicted contextual performance, but the relationship was in an unanticipated negative direction. The zero-order correlation coefficients between collectivism and job initiative, interpersonal facilitation, and supporting organization were all negative (-.08, -.08, -.11), though not reaching the conventional level of significance. This pattern of results was observed even after controlling for demographic variables (age, gender, education, organizational tenure, and economic needs). Table 6 shows that I-C had a significant impact on supporting organization ($\beta = -.16, p < .05$), and had close to significant impact on job initiative/dedication ($\beta = -.13, p < .10$) as well as on interpersonal facilitation ($\beta = -.13, p < .10$), all beyond the influence of five demographic characteristics serving as control variables. This finding conflicts with previous research by Moorman and Blakely (1995), which found positive correlations between collectivism and interpersonal helping, individual initiative, and loyal boosterism. However, the behavior ratings in Moorman and Blakely's study came from employees' self-reports

which might inflate the relationship with the measure of I-C due to common method variance. As a matter of fact, the zero-order correlation coefficients between I-C and four self-reported attitudinal variables in the current study were all positive and significant (see Table 4). Nevertheless, the negative impact of I-C on contextual performance is an unusual finding that cannot be adequately explained by available theories. Given that there was a concern for the validity of Chinese supervisors' performance ratings, the above finding should be interpreted with caution.

Third, the moderating effect of I-C on justice-contextual performance relationships was examined. Contrary to predictions, the results revealed that I-C did not have any significant impact on justice-contextual performance relationships. Two factors might contribute to this null result. First, in the development of the hypothesis, it was argued that collectivists would work to attain collective goods (therefore contextual performance) regardless of one's perception of organizational justice. However, this claim was not supported in this study, as discussed above. Second, the construct validity of performance ratings provided by Chinese supervisors is still to be established because the four performance ratings correlate only with themselves, not with others variables in the study.

Finally, the moderating effect of power distance on procedural justice-outcome relationships was examined. The results were not consistent in all 24 interactions examined. Overall, the relationships between procedural justice and attitudinal outcome variables (e.g., affective commitment, job satisfaction, satisfaction with pay, and turnover intention) were the same for the Chinese sample, regardless of the level of one's power distance values. However, the relationships between procedural justice and some types of

job behaviors such as task performance and job initiative were moderated by power distance. Results showed that the relationship between participation at job level and task performance was significantly different for people with high power distance values than those with low power distance values. Results also showed that the relationship between participation at company level and job initiative was significantly moderated by power distance. Finally, the relationship between participation at job level and job initiative differed significantly according to the level of one's value for power distance. In these three cases, for people with high power distance, participation (either at company policy making level and daily work activity level) tended to correlate negatively with such job behaviors as task performance and job initiative. In contrast, for people with low power distance values, participation had a positive, or at least non-negative, effect on either task performance or job initiative. Together, these findings suggest that for high power distance Chinese employees, introducing procedural justice such as participation might not increase their positive reactions, or even worse, may increase their negative reactions. However, for those Chinese employees who hold low power distance values, introducing procedural justice would likely reinforce their job behaviors such as task performance and job initiative, or at least would not create negative reactions. These results are consistent with the finding by Ackerman and Brockner (1996), that the value of participation, as a form of procedural justice, is different for people with different cultural values on power distance. Indeed, in the traditional Chinese culture in which the virtues of submission, humility, tolerance, and hierarchy are cherished, and leaders are perceived as the parent of the group or organization, the value of participatory management, which originated in the West, has long been doubted (Hui & Tan, 1996; Redding, 1991). Thus,

the result that participation would not lead to positive reactions among high power distance Chinese employees is not totally surprising. However, the result that participation might be welcomed by lower power distance Chinese employees is particularly important. It shows that we must consider individual differences in cultural values even within the same culture (Smith & Schwartz, 1997). As discussed before, some traditional cultural values such as high power distance have been weakened by China's modernization process, and the variation in the level of power distance has been enlarged (Chen et al., 1995). It is therefore understandable that some people who hold traditional high power distance values would not be quite ready to embrace participation, while those who hold less traditional values (i.e., low power distance) would welcome participatory management.

Though the above results appear to provide evidence of individual cultural differences in response to procedural justice, caution should be taken for three reasons. First, as indicated earlier, the moderating effect of power distance was not consistent in all interactions examined. No such moderating effect was found on any of the attitudinal outcome variables. The reason why power distance had a moderating effect on job behaviors but not attitudinal outcomes is not clear in the current data. Second, although power distance was found to moderate some of the participation-job behavior relationships, it did not have such an effect on the relationships between participation and supporting organization or interpersonal facilitation. Third, only 3 out of 24 interactions examined were significant. Clearly, additional evidence is needed to establish power distance's moderating role in procedural justice-outcome relationships.

Theoretical Contributions

This study extends previous research in two ways. First, previous research has mostly focused on the impact of organizational justice on attitudinal variables (Lind & Tyler, 1988) and has largely ignored or failed to establish relationships between justice and job performance. Though more recent studies have examined the effects of procedural justice on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) (e.g., Moorman, 1991; Farh et al., 1997) mainly relying on social exchange theory (Organ, 1990), OCBs only reflect a small fraction of the entire job performance domain. Moreover, most of this research only recognizes the potential impact of procedural justice; the impact of distributive justice is left unexamined. Grounded in Vroom's expectancy theory, it is argued that both distributive and procedural justice affect contextual job performance, which is a much larger domain that consists of OCBs as well as other reward-oriented work efforts and initiatives. The results of the current study provide partial support for the motivational role of distributive justice and its relationship with contextual performance.

Second, this study provided a more comprehensive examination of the moderating role of power distance in the relationship between procedural justice and the outcome variables. It extends previous research by including more procedural variables (e.g., participation at job level and appeal mechanisms other than participation at company level) and more outcome variables (e.g., contextual performance and job satisfaction other than organizational commitment) in the justice-outcome equations. The results of this study provide partial support for the moderating role of power distance in procedural justice's influence on employees' reactions other than affective commitment. This is

especially noteworthy since the current finding is based on employees' actual work behaviors and attitudes in real organizations rather than responses to hypothetical situations as in previous research (Ackerman & Brockner, 1996).

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

Several limitations deserve discussion. Firstly, due to the requirement for matching employee data with supervisor performance ratings, employees were asked to put their names on their questionnaires. Though various measures were taken to ensure the confidentiality for respondents, it is not clear how non-anonymity of the survey would affect the validity of the responses. Previous research on OCBs used more complicated procedures and each respondent was assigned an anonymous code (see Moorman, 1991).

Secondly, despite various efforts to sample employees with different characteristics, for instance, age and gender of the sample were relatively balanced when selecting participants, the participants were predominantly high in collectivism. Estimation of the impact of collectivism may require using samples from different nations. This fact might limit the extent to which the results in this study can be generalized.

Thirdly, all participants were only drawn from Sino-Western joint ventures. Though this sector is now playing an increasingly important role in China's economy, state-owned enterprises still dominate the society. Research in organizational justice could perhaps be enriched by comparing joint-venture employees with those in state-owned enterprises.

Fourthly, the construct validity of contextual performance in Chinese organizations needs to be established. The measure of contextual performance was

mainly based on a translation of Western scales. Indeed, the distinction between task performance and contextual performance might not be the same as that in the Western organizations. For example, some aspects of task performance in Chinese organizations reflect activities typically considered to be indicators of contextual performance in Western organizations. An indigenous measure of contextual performance may be required to assure construct validity, and therefore provide a more powerful examination of the justice-contextual performance relationship.

Finally, this study did not directly compare people from different cultures. As indicated by Triandis (1994), direct comparisons are difficult and full of methodological pitfalls in that there are so many rival hypotheses, including how the researchers present themselves to the subjects, the selection and translation of research instruments and procedures that must be controlled. With the single-culture research design, these concerns are greatly alleviated. Indeed, the measures of two cultural values, I-C and power distance, as well as all other research instruments, had relative high internal reliabilities in the current study. In spite of these advantages, it is nevertheless risky to infer cross-cultural differences from the findings in a single-culture study. Additional research is required to provide direct evidence concerning how procedural elements of justice differentially influence people who hold different values in different cultures.

CONCLUSIONS

Three conclusions may be drawn from this research. First, as a form of motivational process, justice or fairness is alive and well in Chinese organizations, therefore worthy of management attention. By introducing fair management practices, especially in the allocation of various kinds of reward and resources, managers in Chinese organizations would likely reinforce more positive reactions from their employees, resulting in greater job satisfaction, loyalty, emotional attachment, and interpersonal helping in the workplace. Second, Western management practices that emphasize participation in decision making may not work well in Sino-foreign joint ventures. The data from this study suggest that management practices that reinforce perceptions of distributive justice would be more effective than efforts to improve perceptions of procedural justice. Third, when working in foreign countries, just as in one's native culture, managers must take individual differences, such as power distance values, into account when they try to influence employees' attitudes and behavior. Failure to recognize individual differences is likely to lead to unanticipated outcomes.

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APPENDIX A

CHINESE VERSION OF EMPLOYEE QUESTIONNAIRE

管理风格与工作行为研究问卷

本问卷是为研究国内企业管理风格与工作行为而设计的。这项研究的结果将有助于我们进一步了解管理风格及其对职工工作行为和态度的影响，为改进中国的企业管理提供理论和经验基础。

这份问卷不是试题，所以答案无所谓对错。请认真阅读问卷中的每一个题目，然后根据您本人的情况以及您所了解的公司情况选择适当的答案。

本研究将严格遵循国际学术研究中基本道德规范、尤其是美国心理学会(APA)的职业道德行为规范和准则。为了保证研究的公正性，您在问卷上的打分都只给研究人员看，公司人员不能看到任何个人的答卷和资料。同样，每个参加调查企业的数据和情况(包括企业名)，除特别授权外，都将得到严格的保密。我们将把您提供的数据和取自若干家企业中的数百位管理人员和员工的数据进行汇总，并以此作为我们的统计分析单位。该数据仅供学术研究之用。本研究的基本结果将在如下网页上登出：www.cwhrs.com。有兴趣者可届时查看。

本问卷分四部分。请回答每一个部分的所有问题。您一旦填满，请交给在场的研究人员。

十分感谢您提供宝贵时间与我们合作。

梁开广

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如何填答本问卷

问卷的第一至第三部分都要求您用如下7点量表来回答每一个题目，以表明您同意或不同意的程度。

完全不同意	基本不同意	有点不同意	不确定	有点同意	基本同意	完全同意
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

例如，对以下题目：

即使长大了，儿女们也应该在家与父母住在一起。1 2 3 4 5 6 7

如果您完全同意如上观点，您应将列在题目右边的数字7圈上；如果您完全不同意如上观点，您应将列在题目右边的数字1圈上；如果您既不同意也不反对如上观点，您应将列在题目右边的数字4圈上；以此类推。

注意，回答时请用圆圈将您要选的数字圈上，不要用其它符号。谢谢！

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第一部分：工作价值观

下面第1-18题是有关工作价值观念的一般问题。答案无所谓对错。请您用下列计分方法来表明同意或者不同意的程度。

完全不同意	基本不同意	有点不同意	不确定	有点同意	基本同意	完全同意
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

注意，回答时请用圆圈将您要选的数字圈上，不要用其它符号。

1. 对我来说，工作中保持与同事和睦相处非常重要。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. 同事们的处境好坏对我很重要。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. 即使知道会给自己带来不便，我也愿意向有困难的同事提供帮助。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. 通常，为了我所在的集体的利益，我会牺牲个人利益。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. 即使我有不同意见，尊重集体作出的决定对我来说绝对重要。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6. 在集体中，我通常都能尊重大多数人的愿望。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7. 整体的利益最终会带来个体的利益。没有整体的利益，个体利益不会长久。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8. 即使上级不知道，为了单位的整体利益，我也愿意在必要时作一点个人牺牲。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9. 在大多数情况下，经理应自己作决策，不必与下级商量。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10. 工作中如有不同意见或想法，下级必须无条件服从上级。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11. 经常向领导表示不同意见的人有时会妨碍领导们有效地开展工作。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12. 如果公司领导已经做出了某个决定，公司员工就不应该再加质疑。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
13. 在公开场合，下级不应该表达与领导不同的意见。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
14. 好的领导应该在没有人参谋的情况下也能做出正确的决策。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15. 如果过多地让下属人员参与决策，任何一位领导都将会失去权力和权威。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
16. 即使职工们认为打破规则对公司有利，公司的规则也不应该轻易被打破。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
17. 公司领导干部享受某些特权是天经地义的事。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
18. 下级对领导不应该随便称呼，而应该用头衔或尊称。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

第二部分：您所了解的工作条件和公司情况

下面第19-38题是有关您所了解的公司基本情况。答案无所谓对错。请您用下列计分方法来表明同意或者不同意的程度。

完全不同意	基本不同意	有点不同意	不确定	有点同意	基本同意	完全同意
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

19. 我们公司在制定职工福利政策时通常利用各种渠道广泛征求大家的意见。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
20. 在制定工资政策时，公司通常利用各种渠道广泛征求大家的意见。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
21. 在制定职工培训制度时，公司通常利用各种渠道广泛征求大家的意见。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
22. 在制定工作业绩考核制度时，公司通常利用各种渠道广泛征求大家的意见。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
23. 在制定下岗(或人事录用)制度时，公司通常利用各种渠道广泛征求大家的意见。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
24. 在制定新的工作程序和规则时，如果涉及我的工作，我有发言权。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
25. 在决定我的日常工作时，我有发言权。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
26. 在确定工作任务的轻重缓急时，我有发言权。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
27. 在领导给我分配工作任务时，我有发言权。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

下面第28-33题是一份有关企业内职工申诉制度的情况调查。申诉制度这里指公司处理内部职工投诉、抱怨的程序和规定。

28. 当我的直接上级作出不利于我的决定、而我本人又不服时，我可以越级向上申诉。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
29. 当公司领导作出不利于员工的决定、而当事人又不服时，公司内部有独立的机构和正当的程序来处理争议。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
30. 我们公司规定负责处理申诉的部门必须在一定时间内给出答复。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
31. 公司员工对报酬、工作业绩考核结果等人事问题有异议时通常都能得到满意的答复。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
32. 员工在向公司有关部门或领导提出申诉时，不必担心会因此受到打击报复。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
33. 如果我受到不公平待遇或不公正处分时，本公司有适当的申诉程序或制度可以保护我。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

下面第34-37题是一份有关报酬分配公平性的意见调查。这里所谓的报酬指除了工资报酬外，还包括提级晋升和其它各种形式的奖励或表扬。

34. 我的报酬公平地体现了我所承担的责任。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
35. 我的报酬与我的技能、经验和教育程度相称。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
36. 我的报酬公平地体现了我的工作努力程度。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
37. 我的报酬公平地体现了我为公司所作的全部贡献。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
38. 我的报酬公平地体现了我在工作中所承担的特殊压力或辛苦程度。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

第三部分：您对工作的感觉

下面第39-58题是有关您对工作中各个方面的感觉。答案无所谓对错。请您用下列计分方法来表明同意或者不同意的程度。

完全不同意	基本不同意	有点不同意	不确定	有点同意	基本同意	完全同意
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 39. 总的来说，我对我的工作感到满意的。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 40. 一般来讲，我喜欢在这里工作。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 41. 如果我有再次选择的机会，我还是会从事目前的工作。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 42. 我目前从事的工作是我心目中最理想的工作。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 43. 就我所做的工作而言，我对我的报酬感到满意。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 44. 与本单位其它同类工作相比，我对我的报酬感到满意。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 45. 与朋友们挣钱多少相比，我对自己挣钱的机会感到满意。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 46. 与单位外其他同类职工相比，我对我的报酬感到满意。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 47. 总的说来，我对我的工作报酬水平感到满意。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 48. 我经常想离开这个单位。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 49. 我很可能会在明年找个新工作。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 50. 我近来经常想要调离目前的工作岗位。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 51. 我将很高兴在这个企业渡过余生。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 52. 我向别人介绍我们企业时总感到很自豪。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 53. 我真正地感到好像这个单位的问题就是我自己的问题。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 54. 我不会很容易地象归属于我们单位一样归属于别的单位。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 55. 我想我是我们这个大家庭的一员。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 56. 我觉得我已和我们单位溶为一体了。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 57. 我们单位对我有极大的人生意义。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 58. 我感到对我们单位有极强的归属感。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

第四部分：您的基本情况

下面第59-70题是有关您个人的基本情况。这一部分题目请用打圈或填空的形式来回答。再次重申，本研究将严格遵循国际学术研究中基本道德规范。为了保证研究的公正性，您的个人资料将绝对保密，即使贵公司领导也不能看到。请务必如实填写下列情况，否则整个答卷作废。谢谢合作！

59. 您的姓名_____ 60. 您的工作部门是_____
61. 性别：1)男 2)女
62. 年龄：1)20岁以下 2)20 - 29岁 3)30 - 39岁 4)40 - 49岁 5)50岁以上
63. 您目前的婚姻状况：1)单身 2)已婚
64. 您的最高学历：1)小学 2)初中 3)高中或中专 4)大专 5)本科 6)硕士或以上
65. 您的工作单位是：1)国家机关 2)国营企业 3)集体企业 4)三资企业 5)私营企业 6)其它
66. 您目前的职位：1)高层经理 2)中层经理 3)基层管理人员 4)技术干部 5)技术工人
6)非技术工人 7)其它(请说明)_____
67. 您在目前职位上已工作多久? _____年_____月
68. 您在目前的公司已工作多久? _____年_____月
69. 如果包括您以前的所有工作，您的工作经历有多长? _____年_____月
70. 如果把各种收入来源(包括奖金、补贴等公司内的收入以及公司外各种收入)加起来，您目前的收入水平：
1) 不能满足基本生活需要 2) 基本能满足我的生活需要 3) 能满足我的各种生活需要
71. 如果您对本次问卷调查还有任何其它想法，欢迎您在这里写下宝贵意见或建议：

好，您已完成这份问卷调查。再次感谢您的宝贵时间和大力协助。

APPENDIX B

CHINESE VERSION OF SUPERVISOR QUESTIONNAIRE

职工工作行为评价表

作为管理人员，您可能每年都要对下属员工的工作业绩进行考核评价。本评价表是为研究职工工作行为而设计的。这项研究的结果将有助于我们进一步了解管理风格及其对职工工作行为和态度的影响，为改进中国企业管理提供理论和经验基础。

下面，根据您所了解的实际情况，请按27个考核标准为您的___位下属(名单附后)的工作表现打分。每份评价表约需5分钟时间。注意：这里的打分仅作参考用，数据绝对保密，即使贵公司领导也不能看到具体结果。所以您在打分时请按实际情况给分，请不要有任何顾虑。当您给您的___位下属打完分后，请再填写您的个人基本情况。

本研究将严格遵循国际学术研究中基本道德规范、尤其是美国心理学会(APA)的职业道德行为规范和准则。为了保证研究的公正性，您在问卷上的打分都只给研究人员看，公司人员，包括人事部经理，都不能看到任何个人的答卷和资料。同样，每个参加调查企业的数据和情况(包括企业名)，除特别授权外，都将得到严格的保密。我们将把您提供的数据和取自若干家企业中的数百位管理人员和员工的数据进行汇总，并以此作为我们的统计分析单位。该数据仅供学术研究之用。本研究的基本结果将在如下网页上登出：www.cwhrs.com。有兴趣者可届时查看。

请回答所有问题。您一旦填完，请用回邮信封密封好，然后按信封上的地址寄回(邮票已贴好)。十分感谢您提供宝贵时间与我们合作。

梁开广

美国弗吉尼亚州欧多明尼大学心理系
工业管理心理学博士候选人
中国人民大学劳动人事学院客座研究员

如何填答本评价表

本评价表的第一部分都要求您用如下7点量表来回答每一个题目，以表明您同意或不同意的程度。

完全不同意	基本不同意	有点不同意	不确定	有点同意	基本同意	完全同意
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

例如，对您的下属小王在过去一年中的工作表现有如下评价：

该职工在过去一年的工作中：

提出了数项具有创造性的建议，为公司作出了重大贡献。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

如果您完全同意如上评价，您应将列在题目右边的数字7圈上；如果您完全不同意如上评价，您应将列在题目右边的数字1圈上；如果您既不同意也不反对如上评价，您应将列在题目右边的数字4圈上；以此类推。

注意：回答时请用圆圈将您要选的数字圈上，不要用其它符号。谢谢！

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第一部分：职工工作行为评价

完全不同意 完全同意	基本不同意	有点不同意	不确定	有点同意	基本同意	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

(先生/女士)在过去一年的工作中:

1. 在各项工作任务中表现出(或具有)良好的专业知识和能力。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. 有效地达到工作目标。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. 工作质量完全达到所规定的标准。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. 完成工作中的所有要求。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. 能按时完成工作任务、从未拖延过工作期限。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6. 能有效地处理工作中出现的新问题。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7. 必要时愿意付出额外时间完成上级交给的紧急任务。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8. 对工作认真负责, 很少出差错。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9. 对工作极端努力。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10. 主动要求承担具有挑战性的工作任务。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11. 具有高度的组织纪律性和自我克制力。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12. 积极主动地去解决工作中出现的新问题。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
13. 工作中遇到困难时能坚持不懈地做出努力, 直至完成任务。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
14. 对分配到的高难度任务能积极主动地去承担和完成。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15. 赞扬工作中表现良好的同事。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
16. 工作中即使遇到困难也能保持乐观态度, 并以积极的态度和
 行动鼓舞他人的士气。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
17. 即使与同事有意见上的分歧, 相互之间也能和睦相处。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
18. 能公平、公正地对待他人。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
19. 乐意协助同事解决工作中的困难。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
20. 主动帮助新来的同事适应工作环境。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
21. 当同事遇到家庭或个人困难时, 能主动分担或代理他们的工作。 ... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
22. 遇事及时与同事协调沟通, 以免影响他们的正常工作。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
23. 一有机会, 主动对外介绍、宣传本单位的优点。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
24. 努力维护本单位形象, 并积极参与单位组织的各种社会公益活动。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
25. 以积极的态度参与单位内召开的有关会议。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
26. 主动提出合理化建议, 供本单位有关部门参考。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
27. 严格遵守本单位的各项规章制度。 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

以下两题请用打圈来回答。

28. 您是被评为人的: 1)直接领导 2)上上一级领导 3)其他间接领导
29. 您对被评为人的工作熟悉情况: 1)几乎每天了解或指导 2)每周了解或指导
3)每月了解或指导

第二部分：您的基本情况

下面第30-39题是有关您个人的基本情况。这一部分题目请用打圈或填空的形式来回答。请不要填写您的名字。再次重申，您的个人资料和对下属的评分都将得到严格的保密，即使贵公司领导也不会看到。

30. 您的性别：1)男 2)女
31. 您的年龄：1)20 - 29岁 2)30 - 39岁 3)40 - 49岁 4)50岁以上
32. 您目前的婚姻状况：1)单身 2)已婚
33. 您的最高学历：1)初中 2)高中或中专 3)大专 4)本科 5)硕士或以上
34. 您的工作单位是：1)国家机关 2)国营企业 3)集体企业 4)三资企业 5)私营企业 6)其它
35. 您目前的职位：1)高层经理 2)中层经理 3)基层管理人员 4)其它(请说明) _____
36. 由您直接指导工作或由您直接写工作业绩鉴定的下属有几位？ _____
37. 您在目前职位上已工作多久？ _____年_____月
38. 您在目前的公司已工作多久？ _____年_____月
39. 如果包括您以前的所有工作，您的工作经历有多长？ _____年_____月
40. 如果您对本次问卷调查还有任何其它想法，欢迎您在这里写下宝贵意见或建议：

好，您已完成这份问卷调查。再次感谢您的宝贵时间和大力协助。

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APPENDIX C

COMPANY PARTICIPATION SCALE ITEMS

Item	Item-Total r
1. Through various channels, my company tries to seek employees' opinions regarding benefits policies and decisions.	0.70
2. Through various channels, my company tries to seek employees' opinions regarding compensation policies and decisions.	0.70
3. Through various channels, my company tries to seek employees' opinions regarding employee training policies and decisions	0.74
4. Through various channels, my company tries to seek employees' opinions regarding performance appraisal policies and decisions	0.74
5. Through various channels, my company tries to seek employees' opinions regarding layoffs or staffing policies and decisions	0.66

Note. Alpha = .88; $N=224$.

APPENDIX D

JOB PARTICIPATION SCALE ITEMS

Item	Item-Total r
1. I have a say in developing new work rules and procedures involving my job.	0.56
2. I have a say in deciding what I will do day-to-day.	0.68
3. I have a say in setting priorities among tasks to be done within my job.	0.61
4. I have a say when my boss assigns a task for me.	0.57

Note. Alpha = .79; $N=224$.

APPENDIX E

APPEAL MECHANISM SCALE ITEMS

Item	Item-Total r
1. I can appeal to a higher authority if my supervisor treats me unfairly.	0.35
2. An independent agency within the company can advocate for employees if they are mistreated by the top company managers.	0.65
3. The company imposes a time limit within which the responsible parties must respond to the employee's appeal or complaints.	0.56
4. The appeals procedures in this company protect me from unfair treatment if a personnel action is brought against me.	0.51

Note. Alpha = .73, $N=224$.

APPENDIX F

RESULTS OF FACTOR ANALYSIS FOR THE COMPONENTS OF JUSTICE

Items	DJ	PC	PJ	AM
Through various channels, my company tries to seek employees' opinions regarding employee training policies and decisions	-04	<u>89</u>	01	-12
Through various channels, my company tries to seek employees' opinions regarding performance appraisal policies and decisions	02	<u>88</u>	-01	-12
Through various channels, my company tries to seek employees' opinions regarding compensation policies and decisions.	-03	<u>74</u>	04	10
Through various channels, my company tries to seek employees' opinions regarding layoffs or staffing policies and decisions	-04	<u>74</u>	03	07
Through various channels, my company tries to seek employees' opinions regarding benefits policies and decisions.	01	<u>73</u>	-09	11
I have a say in deciding what I will do day to day.	-01	10	<u>87</u>	-11
I have a say in setting priorities among tasks to be done within my job.	08	-01	<u>67</u>	-05
I have a say when my boss assigns a task for me.	-07	-15	<u>65</u>	17
I have a say in developing new work rules and procedures involving my job.	03	06	<u>64</u>	15
An independent agency within the company can advocate for employees if they are mistreated by the top company managers.	-07	-07	-04	<u>87</u>
The company imposes a time limit within which the responsible parties must respond to the employee's appeal or complaints.	-02	14	00	<u>66</u>
I can appeal to a higher authority if my supervisor treats me unfairly.	-07	-06	19	<u>48</u>
The appeals procedures in this company protect me from unfair treatment if a personnel action is brought against me.	29	18	00	<u>46</u>
Employees may not worry about being punished by the company when they file a complaint against their department or supervisor.	27	20	01	33
Employees' questions concerning pay or performance appraisal are usually answered promptly and satisfactorily.	25	33	01	32
I am fairly rewarded for the amount of effort I put forth.	<u>95</u>	-02	04	-04
I am fairly rewarded for the work that I have done well.	<u>90</u>	-02	01	02
I am fairly rewarded considering my job responsibilities.	<u>89</u>	-01	-03	-02
I am fairly rewarded for the stresses and strains of my jobs.	<u>85</u>	01	-03	04
I am fairly rewarded in view of the amount of skills, experience and education that I have.	<u>84</u>	-01	00	-10
Factor Eigenvalues	24.3	7.7	5.1	2.6
Variance Explained (%)	62.6	18.7	12.0	6.7
Factor Intercorrelation				
Distributive Justice		.47	.38	.14
Participation at Company Level			.52	.14
Participation at Job Level				.22

Note. Oblique rotation. Underlined values indicate the items retained to measure the dimension. DJ = Distributive Justice; PC = Participation at company level; PJ = Participation at job level; AM = Appeal Mechanism.

APPENDIX G

TASK PERFORMANCE SCALE ITEMS

Item	Item-Total r
1. Has demonstrated (or possessed) good professional knowledge and abilities in various assignments.	0.70
2. Has achieved work objectives effectively.	0.80
3. The quality of the work fully meets the specified standards.	0.82
4. Fulfills all the requirements of the job.	0.80
5. Always finishes work assignments on time and never misses a deadline.	0.74
6. Works conscientiously and rarely makes mistakes.	0.74
7. Works hard with extra effort.	0.72

Note. Alpha = .92; $N=224$.

APPENDIX H

JOB INITIATIVE SCALE ITEMS

Item	Item-Total r
1. Is capable of handling new problems at work.	0.64
2. Asks for challenging assignments.	0.75
3. Takes the initiative to solve a new work problem.	0.79
4. Persists in overcoming obstacles to complete a task.	0.67
5. Tackles a difficult work assignment enthusiastically.	0.82
6. Provides constructive suggestions about how the work unit/group can improve its effectiveness.	0.66

Note. Alpha = .89, $N=224$.

APPENDIX I

INTERPERSONAL FACILITATION SCALE ITEMS

Item	Item-Total r
1. Praises coworkers when they are successful.	0.73
2. Keeps high spirit when facing difficulty at work, and encourages others.	0.73
3. Encourages others to overcome their differences and get along.	0.74
4. Treats others fairly.	0.81
5. Shows willingness to help coworkers overcome obstacles at work.	0.81
6. Helps orient new people without being asked.	0.73
7. Helps others with their work when they have personal or family-related problems.	0.63
8. Talks to other workers before taking actions that might affect them.	0.78

Note. Alpha = .92, $N=224$.

APPENDIX J

SUPPORTING ORGANIZATION SCALE ITEMS

Item	Item-Total r
1. Presents positive image of the organization to the outside world whenever there is a chance.	0.64
2. Protects the organization's positive image and participates enthusiastically community service activities organized by the company.	0.71
3. Engages actively in meetings and group activities within the company.	0.68

Note. Alpha = .82; $N=224$.

APPENDIX K

OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION SCALE ITEMS

Item	Item-Total r
1. All in all, I'm satisfied with my job.	0.57
2. In general, I like working here.	0.62
3. If I were offered the chance again, I would still choose the current job.	0.78
4. The current job is the ideal one for me.	0.75

Note. Alpha = .83; $N=224$.

APPENDIX L

RESULTS OF FACTOR ANALYSIS FOR THE SATISFACTION ITEMS

Items	Satisfaction with Pay	Overall Job Satisfaction
If I were offered the chance again, I would still choose the current job.	00	<u>90</u>
The current job is the ideal one for me.	00	<u>89</u>
In general, I like working here.	22	<u>50</u>
All in all, I'm satisfied with my job.	19	<u>47</u>
Overall, I am satisfied with my pay.	<u>90</u>	01
How my pay compares with that for similar jobs in other companies.	<u>82</u>	-03
The amount of pay for the work I do.	<u>73</u>	13
How my pay compares with that of other workers.	<u>67</u>	11
The chance to make as much money as my friends.	<u>58</u>	17
Factor Eigenvalues	16.4	3.6
Variance Explained (%)	81.6	18.5
Factor Intercorrelation		
Satisfaction with Pay		.57

Note. Oblique Rotation. Underlined values indicate the items retained to measure the dimension.

APPENDIX M
TURNOVER INTENTION SCALE ITEMS

Item	Item-Total r
1. I often think of leaving this organization.	0.74
2. It is very possible that I will look for a new job next year.	0.76
3. Recently, I often think of changing the current job.	0.68

Note. Alpha = .85, $N=224$.

APPENDIX N

RESULTS OF FACTOR ANALYSIS FOR THE ORGANIZATIONAL
COMMITMENT ITEMS

Items	Affective Commitment	Turnover Intention
This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	<u>91</u>	04
I feel a strong sense of belonging to this organization.	<u>85</u>	-09
I feel it's impossible to separate myself from this organization.	<u>83</u>	-04
I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	<u>73</u>	-05
I feel very proud when I introduce this organization to others.	<u>64</u>	-08
I feel like part of the family at my organization.	<u>61</u>	-02
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	<u>51</u>	-27
It would not be as easy for me to have a strong sense of belonging to any other organizations as to my current one.	<u>40</u>	-07
It is very possible that I will look for a new job next year.	00	<u>88</u>
Recently, I often think of changing the current job.	02	<u>73</u>
I often think of leaving this organization.	-24	<u>69</u>
Factor Eigenvalues	19.5	2.9
Variance Explained (%)	86.3	13.7
Factor Intercorrelation		
Affective Commitment		-.58

Note. Oblique Rotation. Underlined values indicate the items retained to measure the dimension.

APPENDIX O

INDIVIDUALISM-COLLECTIVISM SCALE ITEMS

Item	Item-Total r
1. The well-being of my co-workers is important to me.	0.32
2. Even it would be inconvenient, I will offer help to a colleague who is in difficulty.	0.56
3. I usually sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of my group.	0.55
4. It is important to me that I respect decisions made by my groups even when I personally disagree.	0.47
5. I respect the majority's wishes in groups of which I am a member.	0.35
6. A collective's interest will eventually lead to the interest of individuals. Without protecting the interest of the collective, the interest of an individual won't last long.	0.38
7. For the benefit of a collective, I am willing to sacrifice myself a little bit, even if doing so will not gain any attention from the superiors.	0.51

Note. Alpha = .73; $N=224$.

APPENDIX P

POWER DISTANCE SCALE ITEMS

Item	Item-Total r
1. In most situations managers should make decisions without consulting their subordinates.	0.47
2. In work-related situations managers have a right to expect obedience from their subordinates.	0.45
3. Employees who often question authority sometimes keep their managers from being effective.	0.47
4. Once a top-level executive makes a decision, people working for the company should not question it.	0.51
5. Employees should not express disagreements with their managers in public.	0.53
6. Good managers should be able to make the right decisions without consulting others.	0.30
7. Managers who let their employees participate in decisions too often will lose power and authority.	0.44
8. A company's rules should not be broken, not even when the employee thinks it is in the company's best interest.	0.29
9. It's all natural for company's top managers to enjoy some privileges.	0.33
10. Subordinates should always address the official title or a title with respect to their superiors.	0.34

Note. Alpha = .75, N=224.

APPENDIX Q

RESULTS OF FACTOR ANALYSIS FOR THE CULTURAL VALUES ITEMS

Items	Power Distance	Individualism-Collectivism
Even it would be inconvenient, I will offer help to a colleague who is in difficulty.	-12	<u>70</u>
I usually sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of my group.	-01	<u>67</u>
It is important to me that I respect decisions made by my groups even when I personally disagree.	10	<u>56</u>
For the benefit of a collective, I am willing to sacrifice myself a little bit, even doing so will not gain any attention from the superiors.	20	<u>55</u>
I respect the majority's wishes in groups of which I am a member.	00	<u>46</u>
A collective's interest will eventually lead to the interest of individuals. Without protecting the interest of the collective, the interest of an individual won't last long.	08	<u>45</u>
The well-being of my co-workers is important to me.	-08	<u>44</u>
It is important for me to maintain harmony within my group.	-08	<u>30</u>
Once a top-level executive makes a decision, people working for the company should not question it.	<u>66</u>	-05
Employees should not express disagreements with their managers in public.	<u>66</u>	-04
Employees who often question authority sometimes keep their managers from being effective.	<u>56</u>	-06
Managers who let their employees participate in decisions too often will lose power and authority.	<u>56</u>	-06
In work-related situations managers have a right to expect obedience from their subordinates.	<u>53</u>	06
In most situations managers should make decisions without consulting their subordinates.	<u>52</u>	12
It's all natural for company's top managers to enjoy some privileges.	<u>43</u>	-07
Subordinates should always address the official title or a title with respect to their superiors.	<u>41</u>	-04
Good managers should be able to make the right decisions without consulting others.	<u>38</u>	11
A company's rules should not be broken, not even when the employee thinks it is in the company's best interest.	<u>35</u>	09
Factor Eigenvalues	5.1	2.7
Variance Explained	66.4%	17.8%
Factor Intercorrelation		
Power Distance		.29

Note. Oblique Rotation. Underlined values indicate the items retained to measure the dimension.

VITA

Kai-Guang Liang was born in Zhejiang Province, the People's Republic of China, on March 5, 1963. He received a B.S. in Psychology in 1983 and an M.S. in Managerial Psychology in 1986 from Hangzhou University. He was a lecturer and the director of Human Resources Management program at the Labor & Personnel School, Renmin University of China, in Beijing. As a university professor, he worked with the Ministry of Labor and consulted with several large Chinese companies, including Stone Group Co. He came to the United States in 1992 and began his graduate work at Central Michigan University (CMU). He received an M.A. in Industrial and Organizational Psychology from CMU in 1994. He then came to the Old Dominion University (ODU, Department of Psychology, MGB250, Norfolk, Virginia 23529) to continue his Ph.D. study. While attending ODU, he undertook various internship and consulting jobs in the areas of personnel selection and change management at Development Dimensions International, US Department of Commerce, and US Department of Agriculture. Since 1997, he has worked at AT&T's Sourcing & Selection Group. Upon completion of his Ph.D. studies, he plans to return to China to start a consulting firm. He aspires to become a model scientist-practitioner of industrial and organizational psychology in China.