

Evaluation of Dimensionality and Psychometric Properties of Organizational Justice Scale: Evidence from India

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Abstract

This paper aims to validate Organizational Justice Scale (OJS), prepared by Colquitt's (2001), for the employees working in a security service organization in India, using exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis. The scale was validated using data collected from employees working in a government security organization. Concurrent validity and discriminant validity were checked using the scales of Job Satisfaction and Political Interference, respectively. Colquitt's OJS was corroborated. The Indian version of the scale supported four dimensions of the variable for researchers, academicians, and practitioners to utilize. The OJS four-factor model was found to be prevalent in the Indian context. The scale can be employed by future researchers and is likely to generate a reliable result. The scale has not been studied in India, especially in security organizations. Hence, this paper will assist future researchers in exploring the concept of justice in the Indian context or among security personnel.

Keywords: Organizational justice, Indian context, political interference, job satisfaction, police.

Paper type - Research Paper

I. Introduction


The concept of justice is considered one of the most important variables to determine employee performance. Compared to other variables, justice is a recent concept that caught the attention of behavioral scientists in the latter part of the twentieth century. The topic's popularity is evident, as a word search in the Emerald database returned approximately 23,000 studies on the subject.

The word "justice" is frequently used to mean "fairness" (Colquitt, 2001) and is considered as a prerequisite for all positive performance indicators (Folger et al., 2005). Issues of justice of fairness are key concern to virtually all individuals. Greenberg (1990) coined the phrase "organizational justice" to describe people's subjective judgments of fairness in the workplace. Numerous studies on the topic have suggested that perception of organizational justice (OJ) is associated with outcomes both at individual and organizational levels. Extensive meta-analysis carried out by Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) and Colquitt (2001) have postulated that perception of justice leads to individual level outcomes such as citizenship behavior and job satisfaction (JS). Other studies have also positively linked justice to varied individual level constructs such as entrepreneurial intentions (Urban & Moloi, 2022), employee commitment (Malla & Malla, 2022), innovative behavior (K. & Ranjit, 2021), and well-being (Malla, 2013) etc. Likewise, there exists sufficient evidence to conclude that justice contributed effectively to organizational level outcomes such as leader-member exchange (Sarti, 2019), inclusive climate (Le et. al., 2021), and work engagement (Park et al., 2016) etc. Perception of organizational justice (or injustice) may lead to positive (or negative) outcomes for both organizations and employees. Some of the negative outcomes as a result of perceive injustice are turnover intention (Ekmekcioglu & Aydogan, 2019), deviant behavior (Syabani & Sobri, 2013), and stress and burnout (Shibaoka et al., 2010) etc.

Due to its important implications, the variable of organization justice has been studied extensively in the western context. Some of the recent studies have also suggested that the construct is influenced by cultural factors and hence there is need to study the variable in a non-Western context (Pillai et al., 2001; Jiang et al., 2015) using

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a culturally relevant instrument. Cross-cultural investigations of the organizational justice construct require its measurement with the help of credible instruments.

In the context of police organization too, the variable of organizational justice has been found to be of high relevance. Extant literature suggests that in comparison to corporate employees, police personnel work in a threatening and uncertain environment. OJ plays an important role in dealing with these uncertainties (Wolfe & Lawson, 2020). Results from a recent study (Carr & Maxwell, 2018) found a strong relationship between OJ and trust in public. Other studies have suggested an inverse relationship between OJ and police misconduct (Wolfe & Piquero, 2011), adhere to the code of silence (Kutnjak et al., 2022), negative work attitude (Wolfe & Lawson, 2020).

These factors necessitate the need for more research on organizational justice and the adoption of a culturally relevant scale. It is essential to explore the relationship between justice and other outcome variables using a specific cultural lens that considers differences in beliefs and cultures. One of the widely used scale to measure the concept was developed by Colquitt (2001). The individual items in Colquitt's organizational justice scale (OJS) that capture these elements may not provide relevant results in all samples. Not much has been done to find out whether and how organizational justice and its various aspects are regarded in different cultures. Meta-analysis of the subject suggests that most of the studies on OJ have been published based on the responses obtained from English-speaking sample. Therefore, further studies are required into the cross-cultural perspective of justice in non-Western countries (Jiang et al., 2015). There are currently no Indian versions of organizational justice scales. Hence, this paper is the first comprehensive Indian study to use confirmatory analysis to test the factor structure on employees working in a public security organization.

The empirical paper is divided into broad three categories. In the first place, an exhaustive literature review is presented, accompanied by the description of two widely used OJS scales. Second, empirical analyses on exploratory and conformity factor analysis are provided. Third, the results are discussed in detail, with significant findings presented in tabular format.

II. Literature Review

Over the last 50 years, research into organizational fairness has significantly increased. Adams (1963) initially studied the concept of justice in the form of equity theory. In organizational context, OJ is about perception that employees have about justice and fairness (Greenberg, 1987). The term organizational justice conveys the importance of fairness in the workplace (Greenberg, 1990). According to the social exchange theory proposed by Blau's (1964), when employees perceive that they are being rewarded for their work-related contributions using fair decision-making procedures, then they view their association with the employer beyond the legal framework. For the last three decades, organizational justice studies have been completed in management and psychology literature, demonstrating the concept's relative consequences on employees' organizational life (Nazarian et al., 2021). As suggested in extant literature, studies have demonstrated that perception of justice is linked to numerous organizational variables (Kurian, 2018), such as job involvement, job satisfaction, trust, commitment, physical and psychological well-being, stress, physical and mental health, task performance, leader-member exchanges, citizenship behavior, prosocial tendencies (Desivilya et al., 2006), absenteeism, and turnover intention.

The three elements of organizational justice are "distributive, procedural, and interactional" (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, 2001). Distributive justice refers to employees' views of fairness in the outcomes they receive (Adams, 1965). Equity theory suggests that distributive justice directly leads to employee motivation. Based on comparison with others, people form opinions of whether they are receiving fair treatment. Individuals must feel that they receive an equitable share of the allocated resources for distributive justice to be effective. According to Adams' theory, social exchange is the glue that connects employees and organizations. In a study done by Folger and Cropanzano in 1998, it was found that employees' perceptions of injustice negatively influence their job performance.

Allocation decision processes are referred to as procedural justice. Distributive justice is related to outcomes, whereas procedural justice is concerned with the processes necessary to arrive at the outcomes. Thibaut and Walker (1975) suggested that employees care as much about the process employed in making allocation choices as they do about the results or outcome. As a result, the perception of procedural justice determines distributive justice evaluations. Building on this work, Folger (1977) further contributed by adding six rules to help in determining fairness within procedures: consistency, bias, accuracy, correctability, representability, and ethicality. White et al., (2018) found a link between public perception of procedural justice and satisfaction with highway patrol officers.

Interactional justice, often considered as an extension of procedural justice (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997), relates to the specific facets of communication between supervisor and subordinate (Folger & Bies, 1989). Bies and Moag (1986) provided additional contributions to the literature, highlighting the nature of the interpersonal treatment people receive when interactional justice processes are applied. More specifically, dignity, respect, and honesty formed the thrust of fairness in relationships.

Interactional justice was later proposed to have two major components; interpersonal justice referring to “dignity and respect”, and informational justice referring to the extent of providing reasons for procedures and their ensuing outcomes (Colquitt et al., 2001; Greenberg, 1993). Further, in another study, Masterson et al. (2000) elucidated that procedural injustice is directed toward the organization, whereas interactional injustice is directed toward the supervisor. The perception of injustice can increase aggression and anti-citizenship behaviors (Scarlicki & Folger, 1997). In addition, retaliatory behaviors were predicted, such as resignation (Aquino et al., 1997), increased absenteeism (DeBoer et al., 2002), and even theft (Greenberg, 1993).

The concept of justice has evolved. However, there is a lack of agreement among researchers on the dimensions of justice. Numerous models, including up to seven dimensions, have been studied during the last few decades, with inconsistent findings on factor structure, as indicated by Maharee-Lawler et al. (2010). There are two scales widely used in organizational research; (a) a 20-item scale with four constructs, developed by Colquitt (2001), and (b) a 20-items scale with three constructs, advanced by Niehoff and Moorman (1993).

Colquitt developed the OJS and incorporated four dimensions of justice based on a thorough examination of the existing literature (Bies & Moag, 1986; Kim et al., 2021; Leventhal, 1976, 1980; Shapiro et al., 1994; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). The number of variables in the elements were distributive (four), procedural (seven), interpersonal (three), and informational (five). The components were evaluated on a five-point Likert scale.

The measure proposed by Niehoff and Moorman (1993) developed a distributive justice dimension consisting of five items, formal procedures contained six items, and interactional justice nine items that, together, measured the perception of procedural justice. The scale was rated on a seven-point Likert scale. The measure is considered an improvised version of the questionnaire developed by Moorman (1991).

Several aspects were considered before deciding in favor of Colquitt’s OJS. First, the scale was comprehensive, consisting of four interrelated yet distinct subsets (Rana & Singh, 2022; Sharma & Kumra, 2022). The justice dimensions were all related to clear outcomes. For example, according to Colquitt (2001), distributive justice links to individual outcomes such as job satisfaction. Similarly, group compliance and group commitment connect to procedural fairness, and interpersonal justice links to extra-role behavior such as commitment and altruism. Thus, this scale seemed to capture specific outcomes. Second, the data were required to be rated on a five-point scale, against a seven-point scale. The smaller scale would be simpler for respondents, especially when collecting data through a physical questionnaire. Third, the literature associated high reliability with a five-point scale (Jenkins & Taber, 1977; Lissitz & Green, 1975; McKelvie, 1978). Finally, a five-point scale was the popular choice of behavioral researchers.

Despite solid evidence that considers organizational justice an important indicator for work performance, there is a paucity of research investigating the concept’s relevance across various cultures. However, studies have examined whether results are generalizable across cultures, especially non-Western populations (Jehanzeb & Mohanty, 2020; Omar et al., 2018; Pillai et al., 2001; Silva & Caetano, 2016). Existing literature implies that the aspect of justice is relevant across various cultures. However, more investigation is required into its associated elements. Initial studies suggested that justice dimensions were universal, with exact causes and consequences. However, a growing body of research on cross-cultural justice advocates that some dimensions of fairness may be culturally influenced. In addition, the effects of justice have not been universal across various countries. Social situations, cultural origins, and beliefs may play a role in building the perception of justice (Greenberg, 2001; Jiang et al., 2015; Pillai et al., 2001; Silvernail, 2016). Fischer et al. (2011) attempted to explain cross-cultural differences as power, distance, and collectivism. Results reported from Great Britain (Fischer & Smith, 2008), France (Igalens & Roussel, 1999), Germany (Streicher et al., 2008), and Korea (Park et al., 2018) provided evidence in favor of dimensional dissimilarity. The bulk of studies use Western, educated, industrialized, rich, and democratic (WEIRD) samples that do not realistically represent world populations (Henrich et al., 2010). Non-Western samples may be different in numerous ways, such as economic, literacy levels, affluence, and sense of security, implying that perceptions of justice are not always precise, and the identified gap must be addressed.

Individuals in some contexts are different from those in others. Hofstede (2001) and other researchers (Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961; Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Rokeach, 1973; Trompenaars, 1993) have provided comprehensive frameworks for cross-cultural mapping differences. Individualistic cultures, as an example, those seen in North America, place a greater focus on independent self-construction. In collectivist societies like China or India, the focus is more on interdependent construal of self (Malla & Malla, 2022). Since the concept of justice entails assessing ethics and morality, the effect in non-Western cultures may not be a direct replication of the Western framework (Etayankara, et al., 2021). It has been postulated that having some cultural orientations may impact employees’ attitudes to incentive allocation decisions, a topic that forms the core of the justice scale (Kirkman & Shapiro, 1997, 2001). Therefore, it is imperative to explore the validity of the suggested dimensions in a collectivistic and power-distance-oriented Indian culture.

The broad definition of job satisfaction is how satisfied (satisfaction) or dissatisfied (dissatisfaction) people are with their work (Rineer et al., 2017; Virgolino et al., 2017). Martinussen et al. (2007), in their study on police officers, positively linked job satisfaction to organizational behaviors. In another Asian study on police officers, Hwang (2008) revealed that work satisfaction was proportional to employees’ willingness to follow

management choices. Sembiring et al. (2021) reported a significant positive relationship between the elements of organizational justice and job satisfaction in Indonesian criminal investigative officers. In addition, literature has recorded confirmation of a significant and positive relationship between organizational justice and job satisfaction (Addae & Boso, 2021; Colquitt et al., 2001; Karapinar & Camgoz, 2013). In a study done on Ghana prison officers, Boateng and Hsieh (2019) reported a positive link between OJ and JS.

The theory of organization politics has intrigued many researchers (Sharafi & Seyedameri, 2019). Mintzberg (1985) defined organizational politics as "individual or group behavior that is informal, ostensibly parochial, typically divisive, and above all, in a technical sense, illegitimate, sanctioned neither by formal authority, accepted ideology, nor certified expertise." Organizational politics or political interference refers to the "actions by individuals which are directed toward the goal of furthering their own self-interests without regard for the well-being of others or their organization" (Kacmar & Baron, 1999). Andrews and Kacmar (2001) predicted a negative relationship between justice and organizational politics in their seminal research. Other empirical research suggested that people perceive their working environment as unjust due to internal politics (Harris et al., 2007; Kaya et al., 2016; Zagladi et al., 2015). Similar results have been obtained from non-Western studies (Aggarwal et al., 2018; Gambhir & Kkan, 2022; Zhang & Geng, 2018).

Due to a lack of research on the perception of justice in India, this study attempts to use the four-dimensional scale suggested by Colquitt (2001) to carry out an analysis.

III. Sample and Strategy of Inquiry

A purposive sample was used for data collection. Only respondents with permission from their senior officers participated. The sample was compiled of 270 male respondents working in the Police Force at middle and lower levels ($n = 270$). Anonymous data were collected through a structured physical questionnaire. A total of 307 questionnaires were collected, but only 270 were suitable for analysis. Data collected from female respondents were insubstantial, so that was also excluded.

Procedure

Since the respondents were mostly non-English speaking employees, the three scales were translated into Hindi, the local Indian language. A rigorous process of translation ensured a linguistic equivalence between the Hindi and English variants of the scales. The scale-translation was a three-stage process: (a) Forward translation of the original scales to Hindi by five postgraduates, well-versed with both languages. (b) Reverse translation to English by a senior linguist professor who had no prior knowledge of the scale. (c) Pilot testing of a small sample ($n = 10$) to ensure that the translation process was accurate.

Measures

Organizational Justice: Data was collected using a 20-item scale based on the works of Colquitt (2001). For example, "Is your outcome appropriate for the work you have completed?"

Job Satisfaction: JS data was collected using a three-item scale which was an adapted version of Cammann's et al. (1983) scale. It had items such as, "I am satisfied with my job."

Political Interference: Political interference was measured by a nine-item scale developed by Maslyn and Fedor (1998) using statements such as, "Favoritism rather than merit determines who gets ahead in my workgroup."

Translated versions of the scales were used for the final data collection. The items were rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (disagree) to 5 (agree).

IV. Results

Statistical analysis was conducted using SPSS 25 and AMOS 22. Researchers recommend using exploratory factor analysis (EFA) initially and following it with confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (Wymer & Alves, 2013). EFA was conducted to satisfy two broad objectives: (1) attain validity of the construct and (2) achieve data reduction by dropping variables with low factor loadings.

Internal consistency results are reported in Table I. Cronbach's alpha value of $\alpha = 0.86$, and the item-to-total correlation range was high above the cut-off value of 0.70 and 0.30, suggested by Nunnally (1978). The data fulfilled the sample adequacy criteria, with a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value of 0.85 (Hair et al., 2006). The results suggested that the translated OJS was highly reliable. Bartlett's test of sphericity was found to be significant at 0.001, indicating that the data were suitable for factor analysis.

Table I
Mean, SD, Correlations and Cronbach's Alpha

	Retained Items	Mean	SD	Corrected Item- Total Correlation
1	"Have you had influence over the (outcome) arrived at by those procedures?"	2.60	1.24	.478
2	"Have those procedures been applied consistently?"	2.71	1.23	.512
3	"Have those procedures been based on accurate information?"	2.53	1.19	.432
4	"Does your (outcome) reflect the effort that you have put into work?"	3.30	1.34	.491
5	"Is your (outcome) appropriate for the work you have completed?"	3.13	1.35	.513
6	"Does your (outcome) reflect what you have contributed to the organization?"	3.38	1.27	.465
7	"Is your (outcome) justified, given your performance?"	3.24	1.31	.454
8	"Has (he/she) treated you in a polite manner?"	2.84	1.26	.585
9	"Has (he/she) treated you with dignity?"	2.96	1.29	.605
10	"Has (he/she) treated you with respect?"	3.00	1.27	.668
11	"Has (he/she) been candied in (his/her) communications with you?"	2.83	1.26	.568
12	"Has (he/she) explained the procedures thoroughly?"	2.82	1.19	.586
13	"Were (his/her) explanations regarding the procedures reasonable?"	2.94	1.29	.430
Standardized Alpha = 0.86				

A principal components analysis using Kaiser's criterion extracted the OJS into four factors with an explained variance of 66.87% (*Table II*) in line with Colquitt's original scale. The factor results with loadings are presented in *Table III*. In the data reduction process, seven items were discarded from the original OJS; one from Distributive, three from Procedural, one from Interpersonal, and two from Informational were dropped from the subscales, primarily to retain only the items with high factor loadings. To achieve this, (a) extraction of factors was stopped when the *eigenvalue* was below unity, (b) non-overlapping items with values of more than 0.40 were retained, and (c) item-total correlation values of more than 0.30 were retained (Cristobal et al., 2007). The criteria eventually enhanced the reliability of the scale.

Table II
Factor Analysis Result

Factor	Total	Initial Eigenvalues % of Variance	Cumulative %	Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings
1	4.907	37.749	37.749	Total
2	1.612	12.401	50.150	2.782
3	1.192	9.168	59.318	3.460
4	.982	7.555	66.873	2.236
5	.709	5.451	72.324	
6	.639	4.919	77.243	
7	.607	4.668	81.910	
8	.504	3.876	85.786	
9	.458	3.522	89.308	
10	.417	3.206	92.514	
11	.402	3.091	95.605	
12	.324	2.494	98.099	
13	.247	1.901	100.000	

Table III

Pattern Matrix results indicate Factor Loadings

	1	2	3	4
Procedural 1	.623			
Procedural 2	.809			
Procedural 3	.571			
Distributive1		.696		
Distributive 2		.743		
Distributive 3		.658		
Distributive 4		.524		
Interpersonal1			-.722	
Interpersonal 2			-.778	
Interpersonal 3			-.862	
Informational2				-.632
Informational 3				-.482
Informational 5				-.399

The 13 OJS items finally retained after the EFA are shown in *Table IV*. The translated OJS consisted of 13 items and four significant factors from the original OJS:

- (a) Procedural Justice, consisting of item numbers 2, 3, and 5.
- (b) Distributive Justice, consisting of item numbers 8, 9, 10, and 11.
- (c) Interpersonal Justice, consisting of item numbers 12, 13, and 14.
- (d) Informational Justice, consisting of item numbers 16, 17, and 18.

Table IV

Factors and Loadings of Organizational justice Questionnaire

Original item no. in OJS	Serial No.	Factor 1: <i>Procedural justice</i>	Loadings
		Items	
2	1	"Have you had influence over the (outcome) arrived at by those procedures?"	.74
3	2	"Have those procedures been applied consistently?"	.74
5	3	"Have those procedures been based on accurate information?"	.54
Standardized Item Alpha = .7060			
		Factor 2: <i>Distributive justice</i>	
		Items	
8	4	"Does your (outcome) reflect the effort that you have put into work?"	.72
9	5	"Is your (outcome) appropriate for the work you have completed?"	.75
10	6	"Does your (outcome) reflect what you have contributed to the organization?"	.65
11	7	"Is your (outcome) justified, given your performance?"	.59
Standardized Item Alpha = .7733			
		Factor 3: <i>Interpersonal justice</i>	
		Items	
12	8	"Has (he/she) treated you in a polite manner?"	.75
13	9	"Has (he/she) treated you with dignity?"	.82
14	10	"Has (he/she) treated you with respect?"	.88
Standardized Item Alpha = .8539			

Factor 4: <i>Informational justice</i>			
Items			
16	11	“Has (he/she) been candied in (his/her) communications with you?”	.62
17	12	“Has (he/she) explained the procedures thoroughly?”	.83
18	13	“Were (his/her) explanations regarding the procedures reasonable?”	.59
Standardized Item Alpha = .7200			

Reliability analysis

Standardized reliability reported for each of the OJS subscales, point towards its acceptability (Procedural Justice = 0.72, Distributive Justice = 0.77, Informational Justice = 0.72, Interpersonal Justice = 0.85).

Concurrent validity

The four factors were assessed for concurrent validity by calculating their correlations with Job Satisfaction. All the correlations were significant ($p < 0.01$) and in consonance with existing literature (Addae & Boso, 2021; Colquitt et al., 2001; Sembiring et al., 2021). Results are provided in *Table V*. As per predictions, the subscales of the OJS and the composite scale were reported positively and significantly (Spagnoli et al., 2017).

Discriminant validity

In addition, researchers also suggested establishing discriminant validity to assess the relationship of factors with those that are opposite in orientation (Campbell & Fiske, 1959; Jena & Pradhan, 2017).

Literature suggested an inverse relationship between the constructs, and the same was reported in the analysis presented in *Table V* (Andrews & Kacmar, 2001; Bryne, 2005; Kaya et al., 2016), confirming the construct's discriminant validity.

Table V

Intercorrelations

		Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1	Informational	8.59	2.96					
2	Distributive	13.04	4.06	.39**				
3	Interpersonal	8.80	3.36	.52**	.43**			
4	Procedural	7.84	2.93	.50**	.30**	.44**		
5	Justice. Composite	38.27	10.06	.77**	.75**	.79**	.71**	
6	Job Satisfaction	11.39	3.03	.20**	.25**	.26**	.13*	.28**
7	Political Interference	15.24	5.144	-.40**	-.31	-.42**	-.24**	-.45**

Note: Significant Correlation coefficients are displayed in Table V ($p < 0.001$).

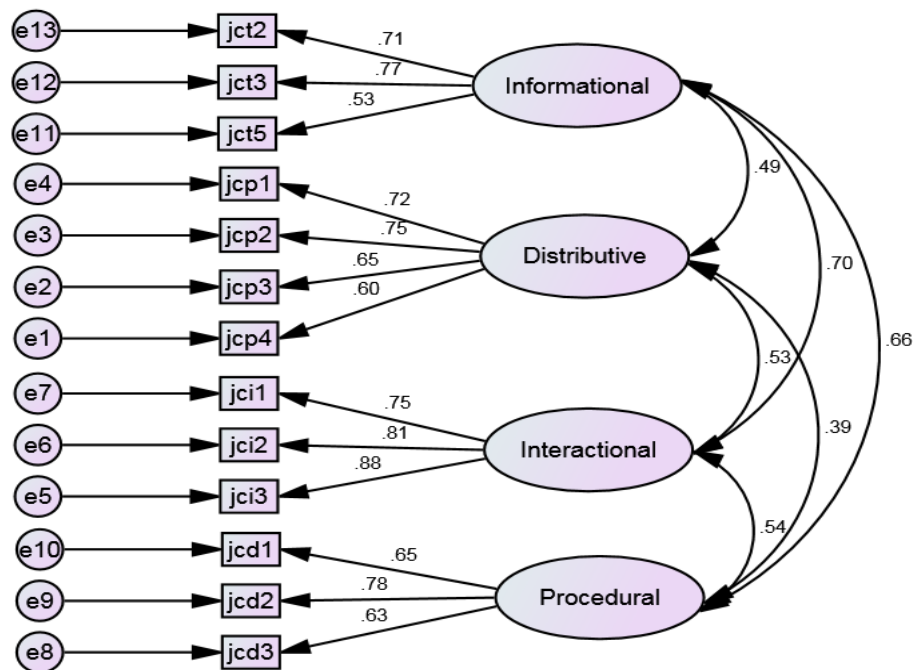
Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was carried out on the 13-item scale of the translated OJS to validate the factors further. Disagreements about using the same data set for both EFA and CFA have been recorded in the literature. However, several empirical studies were in favor (Agarwal, 2016; Aladwan et al., 2016; Bos-Nehles et al., 2020; Ochoa Pacheco & Coello-Montecel, 2020; Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). The following indices were used to assess the data: (chi-square/ degrees of freedom) = 1.49 indicated a good model fit (b) GFI, CFI, and TLI values of 0.95, 0.97, and 0.96 respectively, confirmed the indicators of a model fit, (c) RMSEA value of 0.04 supported a good model fit (d) SRMR value of 0.04 suggested a very good fit.

Accepted threshold levels that favored model fit were used to achieve a conclusion: Value of (chi-square/ degrees of freedom) < 2.0 (Hu & Bentler, 1999), Value of GFI, CFI, and TLI ≥ 0.9 (Bentler & Bonnet, 1980), Value of RMSEA < 0.06 (Hu & Bentler, 1999), SRMR value < 0.05 for a good fit (Byrne, 2010; Hu & Bentler, 1999). The results indicated that a perfect fit was obtained. *Figure 1* presents path coefficients that are all significant at 0.01.

To satisfy academic inquisitiveness, the author completed a further CFA with the original 20-item OJS (Colquitt's scale). The comparison was carried out to compare the 13-item scale with the original 20-item OJS. The results and interpretation are listed as follows: (a) $\chi^2/df = 2.41$, refuted the model fit (b) GFI, CFI, and TLI

values of 0.87, 0.88, and 0.86 respectively, lacked conformity in indicating the model fit, (c) RMSEA value of 0.07 did not provide evidence for a perfect model fit (d) SRMS value = 0.06 indicated acceptable fit as against the good fit indicated in the 13-item scale. These values further validated the translated four-structure, 13-item scale.

Figure 1
Confirmatory Factor Analysis Result



Note: All standardized coefficients are significant ($p < 0.001$).

$\chi^2/df = 1.49$, GFI = 0.95, CFI = 0.97, and TLI = 0.96, RMSEA = 0.04, SRMR = 0.04

V. Discussion

Colquitt's OJS is one of the most widely used scales in the world, and its cross-cultural validity has been studied in countries such as Argentina (Omar et al., 2018), China (Guo & Miller, 2015), Germany (Streicher et al., 2008), Italy (Spagnoli et al., 2017), Japan (Shibaoka et al., 2010), Norway (Olsen et al., 2012), and Spain (Castaño & Garcia Izquierdo, 2018; Díaz-Gracia et al., 2014). The study contributes significantly in three ways. First, there is still an absence of credible empirical evidence on an Indian adaptation of the OJS, as far as the author is aware. The current study aims at checking the cross-cultural validity of the OJS scale for Indian respondents and thereby majorly contributing to the theoretical and practical insights into the understanding of OJ construct. Like the other previous studies done in non-Western context, this paper also confirms the existence of four-dimensions of OJ in Indian context, i.e., Distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational. This adds to the evidence that the four OJ dimensions are distinct but interconnected. While using the adapted scale, researchers can use a composite scale as well as any of the sub-scales. Second, no studies had been undertaken in the context of security service organizations, and the present study validated the translated OJS for Indian security service employees. Third, the translated version of the scale is prepared and available from the author on request. For these reasons, the present study delivers a valuable methodological contribution.

The OJS was translated to the local Indian language, Hindi, and data collected from the police personnel. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis methods (EFA and CFA) were used to analyze the data. The study's results aligned with the model proposed by Colquitt, and four subscales were identified: Distributive, Procedural, Informational, and Interpersonal. Seven items from the original OJS version could not be retained. The adapted scale had satisfactory internal consistency, with its reliability value ranging from 0.71–0.85 across the four dimensions. The inter-correlation between the subscales ranged from 0.30–0.52, suggesting that the adapted scale was a reliable measure. The reliability coefficients were similar to those reported in the original OJS (Colquitt, 2001). Results indicated that the 13-item scale is reliable. In addition, the study also provided evidence for the existence of four dimensions in an Indian context. The four individual sub-scales reported high reliability and can be used as a separate construct. Together, these constructs form a composite scale with high reliability. In addition,

the findings corroborate the factor structure of the original OJS. Values for GFI, CFI, TLI, RMSEA and SRMS were in range suggesting that the Indian version of the scale had factor-based validity and can be used in future studies. The findings fill the gap in literature by providing the culturally relevant adaptation of the original OJS. The scale's concurrent validity was found to be moderately high. Similar findings, using Job Satisfaction as the variable, have been reported by Colquitt et al. (2001) and others (Díaz-Gracia et al., 2014; Shibaoka et al., 2010; Spagnoli, 2017). The inverse relationship with Political Interference is consistent with the theoretical expectation that interference from political setups reduces the perception of justice (Andrews & Kacmar, 2001; Kaya et al., 2016; Sharafi & Seyedameri, 2019). This negative relationship between OJ and political Interference strengthens the argument that the findings are in sync with the previous studies and hence the adapted scale is suitable for Indian respondents.

A close examination revealed that seven deleted items were not suitable in cross-cultural settings, particularly in the selected sample, as Asian cultures feature high collectivism and power distance. This conclusion was consistent with prior cross-cultural research, revealing that Korea, Japan, and China displayed significantly distinct attitudinal and behavioral trends (Park et al., 2018; Pillai et al., 2001). Four procedural justice items were deleted, and this can be seen as a constant with a theoretical framework of hierarchical levels to determine the perception of justice (Schminke et al., 2002; Schminke et al., 2015). Individuals in hierarchical cultures pay little attention to aspects of procedural justice information, according to Lind et al. (1997). Their relative status within the group is determined by the cultural setting. Therefore, the necessity to analyze justice information to assess their position within the group is overridden by the context (Fischer et al., 2011). None of the items from the distributive justice dimension were removed. As the data were collected from respondents working at relatively lower hierarchical levels in the organization, they may have had distributive justice concerns. Moreover, in India a culture of high-power distance prevails, and employees are expected to follow their boss's instructions without questioning them and they may not be particular about procedural fairness or any say in decision making process (Summereder et al., 2014). On the contrary, employees in the western world where a culture of low power distance prevails have a greater tendency to appreciate the fairness in process and thereby and reciprocate in various ways (Pimental et al., 2020).

The CFA indicators reflected those obtained by Colquitt (2001) in the original OJS. Studies from other Asian countries like Japan (Shibaoka et al., 2010) supported the findings. It was deduced that the OJS was measured by four inter-related dimensions. Satisfactory results were not achieved by CFA completed with the original 20-item OJS, further strengthening the validity of the 13-item scale in an Indian context.

VI. Conclusion and Implications

The findings indicated in the study have important implications for researchers and practitioners. First, the study provides a better understanding of the OJ construct in Indian context. A total of 7 items have been removed from the original scale, indicating their limited application in Indian context. Thus, it will help the researchers to parsimoniously use the scale without compromising on the quality of data. Second, the study also supports the argument that cross-cultural differences should not be negated when using a scale in a non-Western culture. Aspect of reliability and validity must be assessed before using a foreign scale. Third, the paper provides detailed in-depth process of checking the dimensionality. This could be immensely useful for those who are beginning to start their research journey. Fourth, given the negative relationship between OJ and Political Interference, it is pertinent for managers to understand that perception of OJ could be enhanced by removing the aspects of organizational from workplace. (Aggarwal et al., 2018; Gambhir & Kkan, 2022; Zhang & Geng, 2018).

To conclude, the widely used four-dimensional model of OJS, developed by Colquitt (2001), was successfully tested in the study. Overall, the adapted Indian version of the OJS found support for four distinct dimensions emerging in Indian context. As a result, a shorter version of the OJS emerged, consisting of 13 items and four factors. The Indian version also supported the same item distribution as suggested in original OJS. The translated scale showed high internal consistency and allows for using the adapted scale on Indian sample. Future researchers, when using the OJS for Indian respondents may use the short version of the scale instead of the original 20-items scale. Finally, the instrument can provide meaningful insights to researchers and academicians regarding usage of OJS scale in a non-Western context.

Limitations and suggestions for future research

The study had few limitations. First, reliance on self-reported measures often leads to problems with social desirability. Second, without female participation, the sample did not adequately represent the population, potentially resulting in problems with generalizability. Third, the study was conducted on a single sample. Further scale validity generalization is proposed using the component structure obtained in this study to assess a broader sample with various characteristics.

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