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The Effects of Organizational Justice Perceptions Associated with the use of Electronic Monitoring on Employees' Organizational Citizenship and Withdrawal Behaviours: A Social Exchange Perspective

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ABSTRACT

The number of organizations choosing to electronically monitor their employees is increasing. Many of these organizations choose to implement these systems without fully understanding what effect they will have on their employees' attitudes and behaviours. The current study explored how fairness perceptions associated with the use of electronic monitoring impacts the extent to which employees are willing to engage in two types of discretionary behaviours—organizational citizenship and withdrawal behaviours. A social exchange approach was adopted. Data were obtained from 208 employees working for a Municipal government, a Police department and a call centre. Results confirmed that perceptions of justice associated with the use of electronic monitoring affect employees' willingness to engage in both organizational citizenship and withdrawal behaviours. It was also found that the relationship between perceptions of fairness associated with the use of electronic monitoring and citizenship and withdrawal behaviours was mediated by perceived organizational support, organizational trust, and affective commitment. Overall, the findings of the current study contribute to our understanding of the factors influencing employees' willingness to engage in loyal boosterism and withdrawal behaviours when organizations electronically monitor their employees. Practical and theoretical implications are discussed.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

As retail customers we have all probably heard the phrase, “this call may be monitored for quality control purposes.” The use of electronic monitoring in the workplace is a common phenomenon. Electronic monitoring can be defined as the collection, storage, analysis, and reporting of information about group or individual performance (Nebeker & Tatum, 1993). According to a recent survey conducted by the American Management Association (AMA, 2007), 45% of American employers indicated that they track the content, keystrokes, and time their employees spend at the keyboard. In addition, 43% of American employers reported that they store and review their employees’ computer files and 66% of American employers indicated that they closely monitored their employees’ internet usage (AMA, 2007). Altogether, this research suggests that an increasing number of employers are now choosing to electronically monitor their employees’ email and internet usage, track their employees' keystrokes and record their employees’ telephone calls.

Employers use these types of electronic monitoring for a variety of different reasons. First, electronic monitoring allows an organization to protect their intellectual property and company secrets and defend against the risk of litigation (Allen, Coopman, Hart & Walker, 2007; American Management Association, 2007; Ariss, 2002; Levin, 2007). Employers have a legal obligation to ensure that harassment and discrimination does not occur in their places of business. Employers choosing to electronically monitor their employees’ email communications and internet usage can help to protect themselves from sexual harassment lawsuits (Allen et al., 2007; Ariss, 2002, Levin, 2007). For

instance, if an employee were to send a sexually explicit email using company email, the organization would now have a record of this communication. The organization would be able to use this record to defend themselves against any sexual harassment complaint or grievance.

Second, organizations may use a variety of electronic monitoring techniques to gather information about their employees' performance (Allen et al., 2007; American Management Association, 2007; Ariss, 2002; Levin, 2007). For example, employers may monitor their employees' phone calls to gauge the quality of the customer service provided by these employees or track employees' keystrokes to record how many transactions an employee performs in an hour.

Finally, organizations use electronic monitoring to prevent the misuse of company resources and to manage productivity (Allen et al., 2007; American Management Association, 2007; Ariss, 2002; Levin, 2007). Employers do not want their employees misusing company time and resources by visiting chat rooms, sending personal emails, making personal phone calls or participating in online gaming (Alder, Ambrose & Noel, 2006; American Management Association, 2007; Ariss, 2002). Employers want to control and limit certain employee discretionary behaviours that distract from productivity. Organizations do not want their employees redirecting company resources and their time to non-work related tasks.

Organizations, therefore, rely on the use of electronic monitoring to discourage these discretionary behaviours. However, many of these organizations implement these systems without fully understanding what effect these systems will have on other types of employee discretionary behaviours: discretionary behaviours that may actually serve to

benefit the organization. One such group of behaviours are organizational citizenship behaviours. Organizational citizenship behaviours can be defined as behaviours "that go beyond role requirements and contractually rewarded job achievements" (Organ & Ryan, 1995, p. 775). Examples of such behaviours include: helping others when help is needed, promoting the company's image and going beyond minimal performance expectations. Much of the research on the effects of using electronic monitoring in the workplace has focussed on how electronic monitoring affects a specific type of performance – task performance: activities or behaviours that are formally recognized as part of an employee's job (Alder & Ambrose, 2005; Douhitt & Aiello, 2001; Kolb & Aiello, 1997; Moorman & Wells, 2003). Researchers have not examined how the use and implementation of an electronic monitoring system affects another important component of the job performance domain, organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs).

There are several pitfalls associated with the use of electronic monitoring. Electronic monitoring can have a negative effect on employee morale (Ariss, 2002; Bates & Horton, 1995; Stanton, 2000a). The use of electronic monitoring may also encourage negative management styles. For instance, it may encourage managers to engage in a style of management consistent with Theory X (Ariss, 2002): managers assume that their employees do not like their jobs and that they need to be forced to complete their work activities. Managers using this management approach feel that they need to control their employees. As a result, some employees may feel that they are being constantly spied upon by their organization and that their organization does not fully trust them to do their jobs correctly (Ariss, 2002). Electronic monitoring may also lead employees to express their dissatisfaction with the monitoring by becoming disengaged from their organization

or engaging in withdrawal behaviours (Ariss, 2002; Bates & Horton, 1995; Stanton, 2000a). Examples of withdrawal behaviours include: arriving late, being absent from work, avoiding one's work, engaging in undue socializing as well as indicating a willingness to leave the organization. Few researchers have empirically examined the extent to which the use of electronic monitoring relates to withdrawal behaviours.

The adoption of new forms of electronic monitoring (e.g., internet, email) has led to an emerging conflict in terms of an employee's right and expectation to privacy and the employer's right and need to protect their own interests and property. In Canada, organizations are legally permitted to electronically monitor their employees' work activities (Office of the Privacy Commissioner of Canada, 2004). An employee's right to privacy is, therefore, not necessarily protected by law (The Personal Information Protection and Electronic Documents Act [PIPEDA]; Ministry of Justice, 2000) Nevertheless, the Office of the Privacy Commissioner of Canada (2004) argues that employers should try to respect their employees' right to privacy and should try to collect information about their employees for "appropriate purposes only" (Privacy in the workplace section, para. 5).

Organizations are also not required by law to notify employees of which behaviours will be electronically monitored and who will have access to the information collected (Office of Privacy Commissioner of Canada, 2004; Levin, 2007). However, the Office of the Privacy Commissioner of Canada (2004) does offer employers advice on how they can balance their need to gather information about their employees with their employees' right to privacy. These guidelines suggest that employers share with their employees what type of information will be collected, why the information is being

collected, and when information will be collected. Furthermore, the process surrounding the collection of personal information should be fair. Consistent with the advice offered by the Office of the Privacy Commissioner of Canada, electronic monitoring researchers argue that by incorporating fairness principles into the design and implementation of electronic monitoring systems, organizations can ensure that they respect their employees' dignity and right to privacy (Ambrose & Alder, 2000; Douhitt & Aiello, 2001; Stanton, 2000b).

In light of these concerns, researchers have begun to explore the factors that influence employees' perceptions of electronic monitoring systems, particularly whether they feel that the monitoring systems are fair and just. Further, it important to explore these factors as these fairness perceptions have been linked to other important organizational outcomes, such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter & Ng, 2001).

Fairness perceptions also predict the likelihood that employees will choose to engage in both organizational citizenship and withdrawal behaviours (Colquitt et al., 2001; Moorman & Byrne, 2001). Social exchange theory can explain the underlying psychological processes behind why perceptions of fairness relate to organizational citizenship and withdrawal behaviours. A number of different social exchange mechanisms or mediators have been studied to further explain this social exchange process. Most notably, the extent to which people believe that their organization values and cares about their well-being (perceived organizational support) and the extent to which an employee feels emotionally attached to their organization (affective commitment) have been used to explain how perceptions of fairness relate to

organizational citizenship behaviours (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

Although Blau (1964) has indicated that trust is also an important part of the social exchange relationship, few researchers have examined the role of trust between the two social exchange partners when using social exchange theory to explain the relationship between fairness perceptions and organizational citizenship behaviour. Further, perceptions of fairness, perceived organizational support, affective commitment and trust have not been examined in a single predictive model of organizational citizenship behaviour. This lack of an integrative model limits our understanding of how perceptions of electronic monitoring fairness affect how employees choose to behave in the workplace, particularly whether they choose to engage in organizational citizenship and withdrawal behaviours. The current study used social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) to develop a predictive model, explaining how perceptions of electronic monitoring fairness relate to how people feel and behave in their work environment, specifically whether they choose to engage in altruistic behaviours (organizational citizenship behaviours) and whether they choose to engage in withdrawal behaviours.

What follows is a review of electronic monitoring, organizational justice, and organizational citizenship literatures. Next, social exchange theory and potential mediators of the relationship between organizational justice perceptions and organizational citizenship behaviour (i.e., perceived organizational support, organizational trust and affective commitment) will be reviewed. A summary of electronic monitoring and withdrawal behaviours will then be offered. Finally, a summary of the current study will be provided.

Electronic Monitoring Defined

The most commonly cited definition of electronic monitoring was provided by Nebeker and Tatum (1993). They defined electronic monitoring as the collection, storage, analysis, and reporting of information about group or individual performance. More recently, Ambrose and colleagues (1998) have expanded on this definition and have suggested that there are three different categories of electronic monitoring: computer performance monitoring, surveillance, and eavesdropping.

Computer performance monitoring includes keystroke or computer time accounting, computer file monitoring and screen sharing capabilities on a network. This category focuses on capturing information related to task specific performance and thus the scope of the monitoring is narrow.

Eavesdropping can be defined as the unobtrusive observation of primarily work related activities. This type of monitoring includes techniques such as telephone call observations that primarily capture task related information (i.e., call quality). These types of monitoring may also capture non-work activities (i.e. time spent on personal calls).

Surveillance involves using such devices as cards, beepers and video cameras in order to observe employee behaviour and track their movements. This type of monitoring allows employers to assess employees on the clock behaviours and to determine if employees are using the company's time and resources appropriately. This model was developed before internet and email monitoring became common. Therefore, Coovert and colleagues (2005) have suggested that the unobtrusive observation of video conferences, voicemail and e-mail be added to the eavesdropping category and that the unobtrusive

observation of online activities (internet use and websites visited) be added to the surveillance category.

Review of Past Research on the Effects of Electronic Monitoring on Employee Attitudes and Behaviours

Organizations often choose to implement electronic monitoring systems without fully understanding the broader effect that these systems can have on their employees' attitudes and behaviours. Researchers have examined how the use of electronic monitoring affects a variety of work related outcomes such as employees' job satisfaction (Alder, Noel & Ambrose, 2006; Holeman, 2002), organizational commitment (Alder et al., 2006; Wells, Moorman & Werner, 2007), privacy perceptions (Alge, 2001; McNall & Roch, 2007), and perceptions of organizational justice (Alder et al., 2006; Alder & Ambrose, 2005; Alge, 2001; McNall & Roch, 2007; Stanton, 2000b).

The use of electronic monitoring can also affect employee task performance (Alder & Ambrose, 2005; Douhitt & Aiello, 2001; Moorman & Wells, 2003). Task performance can be defined as those behaviours that are directly involved in creating goods and services or those activities that benefit the organization's core technical methods (Borman & Motowildo, 1993). Although the current study does not examine how the use of electronic monitoring relates to task performance, researchers have previously explored this relationship as monitoring is part of an organization's performance management system (Alder & Ambrose, 2005; Douhitt & Aiello, 2001; Moorman & Wells, 2003). It allows the organization to gather information about their employees' task related performance and use this information during the performance appraisal process. For instance, many organizations routinely monitor telemarketers'

phone calls to ensure that their employees are demonstrating quality customer service skills. Research examining the use of traditional monitoring (i.e., direct supervisor observation) has found that certain characteristics associated with the monitoring can positively affect task performance. For instance, the source of feedback (supervisor or co-worker), the perceived credibility of the source of feedback, the frequency of feedback and whether the feedback is constructive or destructive all influence task performance (Bretz, Milkovich & Read, 1992; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996).

Electronic monitoring is also believed to influence task performance because the act of monitoring provides employees with social cues about which aspects of the task are most important to pay attention to (Moorman & Wells, 2003; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978; Stanton, 2000a). For example, in one study participants were told that either the number of data entries that they made during an hour (quantity of work) or that the number of accurate data entries made during an hour (quality of work) would be electronically monitored (Stanton & Julian, 2002). Participants who were told that the number of data entries per hour were to be monitored were more likely to perform more entries than those participants who were told that their work would be monitored for accuracy. The reverse was also true. Those participants who were told that the accuracy of their work was to be monitored were more likely to attempt fewer entries and to focus on the accuracy of their responses than those participants who were told that the quantity of their work would be monitored.

The way in which an electronic monitoring system is implemented and used has also been shown to have a positive effect on task performance. For example, the constructiveness of the feedback provided to employees based on the data collected from

electronic monitoring was found to be associated with improved task performance (Alder & Ambrose, 2005; Nebeker & Tatum, 1993).

Organizational Citizenship Behaviours

It is important to determine how the use of an electronic monitoring system affects outcomes such as organizational citizenship behaviours because many organizations are choosing to implement electronic monitoring systems without fully understanding the consequences behind their use. Many organizations use these systems in order to manage productivity. They do not want their employees wasting company time by using company resources for personal use such as watching online streaming video (e.g., YouTube™) or visiting online social media networking sites (e.g., Facebook™) (Allen et al., 2007; American Management Association, 2007; Ariss, 2002). However, research has not yet determined if electronic monitoring also discourages employees from engaging in other so-called "extra" behaviours that actually benefit the organization, such as organizational citizenship behaviours.

Organizational citizenship behaviours include altruistic behaviours that go beyond formal role requirements (Organ & Ryan, 1995). Organ (1988) originally defined organizational citizenship behaviours as "individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, 1988, p. 4). Organ (1997) later noted that there were some conceptual problems with his original definition of organizational citizenship behaviour mainly that not all of these behaviours can be described as discretionary and non-contractually rewarded behaviours. He, therefore, modified his definition of organizational citizenship behaviour to be more in line with

Borman and Motowidlo's (1993) definition of contextual performance. Organ (1997) redefined organizational citizenship behaviour as, "behaviours that do not support the technical core itself so much as they support the broader organizational, social, and psychological environment in which the technical core must function" (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, p.73). Organ (1997) further argued that in comparison to task performance, organizational citizenship behaviours are less likely to be required work behaviours and are less likely to be directly linked to the organization's rewards system.

Motowidlo (2000) contends that although contextual performance and organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) share similar definitions and measure similar types of behaviours, they are also different enough to justify treating them as distinct constructs. These two constructs have different definitional roots. Organ became interested in studying OCBs as a way to explain how an employee's job satisfaction may influence them to behave in ways that promote organizational effectiveness through behaviours that managers would want their employees to perform but cannot directly require them to perform (LePine, Erez & Johnson, 2002; Motowidlo, 2000). In comparison, ideas about contextual performance came from the concern that research on employee selection only focused on specific areas of performance related to task performance, while ignoring other parts of performance that may contribute to organizational effectiveness (Motowidlo, 2000).

Although these two constructs measure similar types of behaviours, there are also some important differences (Motowidlo, 2000; LePine et al., 2002; Stone-Romero, Alvarez & Thompson, 2009). Contextual performance consists of two types of performance: interpersonal facilitation and job dedication. Interpersonal facilitation

involves helping and cooperating with others, while job dedication involves demonstrating self-control and self-discipline, complying with organizational policies and going beyond minimal performance requirements (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). In contrast, Moorman and Blakely (1995) proposed that there are four dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviours: loyal boosterism, interpersonal helping, individual initiative, and personal industry. Loyal boosterism involves promoting the organization to others; interpersonal helping involves altruistic behaviours or helping others when help is needed; individual initiative involves employee efforts to improve individual and team performance; and personal industry includes behaviours that go beyond minimal expectations. The dimensions proposed by Moorman and Blakely (1995) contain some of the behaviours encompassed in measures of contextual performance as well as other behaviours not included in many measures of contextual performance that are thought to promote organizational effectiveness.

Further, many different typologies of organizational citizenship behaviour exist. One such typology argues that organizational citizenship behaviours can be classified into two distinct groups, those behaviours directed toward the organization (OCB-O) and those behaviours directed toward individuals (OCB-I) (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Examples of behaviours indicative of OCB-O include following informal rules and providing notification when unable to work, while examples of behaviours indicative of OCB-I include helping other employees when help is needed and offering other employees advice (LePine et al., 2002; Williams & Anderson, 1991). In the current study, behaviours indicative of loyal boosterism and personal industry can be classified as OCB-O, while behaviours indicative of interpersonal helping and individual initiative can be

classified as OCB-I (LePine et al., 2002; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Pain & Bachrach, 2000). These two types of organizational citizenship behaviours can have different antecedents (Williams & Anderson, 1991). For instance, Karriker and Williams (2009) found that perceived organizational support and organizational trust all predicted organizational citizenship behaviours directed towards the organization, while only leader-member exchange predicted organizational citizenship behaviours directed towards individuals. However, Kwantes (2003) found that organizationally referenced variables such as affective commitment differentially predicted each of the four types of commitment. For the purposes of the current study, all four types of citizenship behaviours, those indicative of both OCB-Is (individual initiative and interpersonal helping) and OCB-Os (personal industry and loyal boosterism) were explored.

Organizations want to ensure that their actions (e.g., how they choose to implement electronic monitoring systems) do not discourage employees from choosing to willingly engage in organizational citizenship behaviours as these behaviours are related to organizational effectiveness (Organ, 1988, 1997). Organizational citizenship behaviours contribute to the success of the organization by enhancing co-worker productivity as co-workers scoring high on organizational citizenship behaviours share the most productive strategies with one another (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Organizational citizenship behaviours can also enhance managerial productivity as the manager may receive valuable suggestions for improving productivity from those employees scoring high on interpersonal helping. Organizational citizenship behaviours also free up resources so they can be used for more productive purposes. For example, if employees actively help one another to solve work-related problems, then the manager will not have

to spend their time doing so. Further, these types of behaviours allow the organization to retain and attract the best employees as these helping behaviours may serve to increase morale and teamwork, qualities that make an organization a more attractive place to work (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Both the individual (e.g., employee performance and employee absenteeism) and organizational (e.g., productivity and efficiency) consequences of organizational citizenship behaviours have been reviewed by Podsakoff and colleagues (2009). Further, Hoffman and colleagues (2007) demonstrated the importance of considering organizational citizenship behaviour when exploring attitudinal correlates of performance. They found that organizational citizenship behaviour was a stronger predictor of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational justice than an employee's task performance (Hoffman, Blair, Meriac & Woehr, 2007).

Researchers have not examined how the use of electronic monitoring in the workplace influences the extent to which employees choose to engage in organizational citizenship behaviours. However, Moorman and Wells (2003) found that characteristics of a call monitoring system (amount of monitoring, feedback tone, and opportunity to challenge performance data collected by electronic monitoring) predicted perceptions of monitoring fairness, which in turn predicted the two dimensions of contextual performance: interpersonal facilitation and job dedication. Overall, the findings of Moorman and Well's (2003) study would suggest that unlike task performance, the characteristics of the monitoring system do not directly affect contextual performance. However, perceptions of monitoring fairness were found to directly predict contextual performance. A commonly researched antecedent of organizational citizenship behaviour is organizational justice or fairness (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Moorman, 1991;

Moorman & Blakey, 1995; Moorman, Niehoff & Organ, 1993; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Therefore, the current study explored how perceptions of organizational justice related to organizational citizenship behaviour when electronic monitoring is used within the workplace.

Organizational Justice

Organizational justice refers to employees' perceptions of fairness within their organization (Greenberg, 1987). Two of the most commonly studied types of justice are distributive and procedural justice. Within the electronic monitoring literature, distributive justice refers to the perceived fairness of the outcomes associated with the use of electronic monitoring. Procedural justice refers to the perceived fairness of the procedures or decision-making process governing the monitoring process as a whole. Several theories have been offered to explain how people form perceptions of distributive and procedural justice. For instance, explanations concerning judgements of distributive justice have been based on Adam's Equity theory (1965). According to this theory, employees will determine if something is distributively just by comparing the ratio of their inputs (i.e., pay) and outputs (i.e., performance) to a referent (i.e., co-worker). If employees perceive these two ratios to be uneven then they are motivated to either attempt to modify their inputs or outputs, change their referent or alter their perception.

Six principles are said to govern whether participants believe a process to be procedurally fair (Leventhal, 1980; Leventhal, Karusa & Fry, 1980). First, each organizational rule or procedure should be consistently enacted for every employee. Second, procedures must also be free from bias (i.e., the final decision is not based on the personal interests of the decision-maker; Leventhal, 1980). Third, procedures must be

based on the presentation of accurate information (Leventhal, 1980). Fourth, procedures must be correctable and must allow for the correction of unjust or poor decisions and allow individuals to appeal decisions or procedures that they believe to be unfair (Leventhal, 1980). Fifth, all groups affected by the procedure and decision-making process must be fairly represented. Finally, procedures must be considered both morally and ethically just (Leventhal, 1980).

Researchers also recognize a third type of organizational justice – interactional justice (Colquitt, 2001). Interactional justice refers to the perceived quality of the interpersonal treatment received by employees when procedures are enacted (Colquitt, 2001). Further, interactional justice consists of two distinct types of interpersonal treatment– interpersonal and informational justice. Interpersonal justice refers to the extent to which the individual believes that they have been treated with respect and dignity, while informational justice refers to the perceived fairness of the explanation surrounding the procedures and/or the distributions of the outcomes (Colquitt, 2001). Interactional justice is often measured by asking participants, "to what extent (an authority figure who enacted the procedure) treated you with dignity, refrained from improper remarks, and seemed to tailor their communication to meet the individual needs, etc" (Colquitt, 2001, p. 389). In many organizations, employees are often notified that their email or internet usage will be monitored via a policy they signed when hired or via email (Allen et al., 2007). In organizations such as these, it may be difficult for employees to rate the fairness of the interpersonal treatment they have received with regards to the use of electronic monitoring. Therefore, for the purposes of the current study only employees' perceptions of procedural and distributive justice associated with

the use of electronic monitoring were explored.

Although organizational justice has traditionally focussed on how each of the three types of justice (distributive, procedural, and interactional) relates to a variety of job attitudes and behaviours, more recently justice researchers (cf. Ambrose & Schminke, 2009) have argued that overall justice perceptions should be considered. However, in the current study, the unique effects of distributive and procedural justice will be considered in order to demonstrate the importance of considering both the fairness of procedures and outcomes when utilizing electronic monitoring systems.

Organizational Justice and Electronic Monitoring

Electronic monitoring researchers argue that by incorporating justice principles into the design and implementation of these systems, organizations can ensure that their employees perceive the use of these systems to be fair. An organizational justice framework has been applied to explain how characteristics of the electronic monitoring system relate to employees' perceptions of fairness concerning the monitoring system. Research suggests that a variety of factors may influence how employees respond to the use of electronic monitoring (Ambrose & Alder, 2000).

Ambrose and Alder (2000) provide a detailed framework relating ten characteristics of the electronic monitoring system to perceptions of distributive and procedural justice. These ten characteristics of the monitoring system include: disclosure of monitoring (when and where employees will be monitored), participation in system design, amount of monitoring, task monitored (work related or non-work related), feedback purpose (developmental or punitive), feedback tone (constructive versus destructive), opportunities to challenge information collected via monitoring, links to

organizational incentives (i.e., pay or promotion decisions), production standards (i.e., number of widgets produced per hour) and the object of monitoring (individual or group level performance).

The relationship between some of the electronic monitoring characteristics proposed by Ambrose and Alder (2000) and monitoring fairness has received empirical support. For example, one study found that certain characteristics of the monitoring system (consistency of monitoring, knowledge gained from monitoring performance, control over monitoring and being provided with a justification for monitoring) were found to be positively associated with employees' perceptions of procedural justice (Stanton, 2000b). Similarly, participants had higher perceptions of procedural justice when they were allowed to voice their concerns over how and when they felt they should be electronically monitored (Douhitt & Aiello, 2001). Allowing participants to participate in the design of an electronic monitoring system (Alge, 2001), feedback tone (Alder & Ambrose, 2005; Moorman & Wells, 2003; Wells et al., 2007), providing participants with a justification for the monitoring (Horvorka-Mead et al., 2002), monitoring task related activities (Alge, 2001), and limiting the amount of monitoring (Moorman & Wells, 2003) have all been found to be positively associated with perceptions of monitoring fairness.

The electronic monitoring research suggests that elements of the electronic monitoring system can be manipulated by the organization to ensure that the monitoring system is perceived as fair by their employees. If employees perceive the monitoring system to be fair they may be more likely to engage in organizational citizenship behaviours and this may also enhance employee well-being.

Social Exchange Theory

Organ (1988) proposed a social exchange explanation to describe the underlying process through which perceptions of fairness and organizational citizenship behaviours are related. Social exchange theory describes how many social relationships are based on the exchange of benefits between parties, in this case, the exchange of perceived benefits between the employer and the employee. Fair treatment received from an employer can be considered a perceived benefit. Social exchange theory states that employees will be motivated to reciprocate fair treatment that they receive from the organization. An important component of social exchange theory is the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). The norm of reciprocity suggests that individuals will feel obligated to return any fair treatment that they may have received from their organization or manager. Organ (1990) suggests that this reciprocation would include organizational citizenship behaviours.

There are two commonly recognized types of exchange relationships: economic and social exchange relationships (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Economic exchanges are similar to contractual obligations in which the exchange parties agree on what benefits will be exchanged. Social exchange refers to relationship exchanges in which the specific benefits to be exchanged are not specifically articulated. Similar to economic exchange, social exchange leads the exchange partners to assume that their contributions will be rewarded or returned in the future; however, the details of what will be exchanged are not contractually specified. Social exchange "is not based on a quid pro quo or calculative basis" (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994, p.2). Further, economic exchanges involve specified transactions, while social exchanges are based on one individual believing that the other will return the favour and fulfil their exchange obligations in the

future. This belief is necessary for maintaining the social exchange (Holmes, 1981). If employees view their exchange relationship as social they will feel obligated to reciprocate received benefits (i.e., favourable treatment from the organization). One way to reciprocate this favourable treatment would be to engage in those extra altruistic behaviours that benefit the organization: organizational citizenship behaviours. If only economic exchanges were in place, employees would only choose to engage in organizational citizenship behaviours if they felt that these behaviours were formally stipulated by their performance contracts with their organization (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Moorman & Byrne, 2001).

Perceived fair treatment from the organization may also suggest to employees that it will be beneficial and appropriate for them to maintain and develop a social exchange relationship with the organization. Within social exchange relationships, employees must believe that they can participate and exchange benefits with the other party without a formal agreement; thus employees must appraise the quality and nature of their exchange relationship with their employer (Blau, 1964). Perceptions of fair treatment may provide employees with information regarding the quality of this exchange relationship. Employees may believe that if they are treated fairly, even without a formal agreement or contract that they will be supported by their organization. When employees believe that the procedures are fair, they are more likely to believe that organizational citizenship behaviours will be reciprocated further in the future by the organization. Moorman (1991) has argued that if a workplace is perceived to be fair, then employees are more likely to sacrifice immediate self-interest and such sacrifice can lead to organizational citizenship behaviour. If employees believe that they have been unfairly treated then they

are more likely to seek a formal written agreement and fall back on economic exchanges, where organizational citizenship behaviour is less likely to occur.

Research also supports a robust positive relationship between perceptions of organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour (Karricker & Williams, 2009; Moorman, 1991; Moorman et al., 1993; Moorman & Blakely, 1995; Organ & Moorman, 1993; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Two meta-analyses support a positive relationship between perceptions of fairness and organizational citizenship behaviour (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001). People who believe that they have been treated fairly by their organization are more likely to behave altruistically towards their organization, while people who believe that they have not been treated fairly by their organization may feel hesitant to perform extra behaviours that benefit the organization (Greenberg, 1993). Employees may not be able to demonstrate their dissatisfaction with their organization or its policies by reducing their task performance because they could be fired or they may receive a poor performance review which could affect their standing within the organization (Greenberg, 1993). However, a displeased employee can choose to demonstrate this dissatisfaction by reducing their organizational citizenship behaviours and choose not to promote the image of the organization to outsiders or voluntarily help their fellow employees (Greenberg, 1993). Greenberg (1993) contends that organizational citizenship behaviours represent a "safe and effective way to either express displeasure with the organization or reciprocate fair treatment" (p. 251). Therefore, if employees perceive the electronic monitoring system to be fair, they are more likely to maintain a social exchange relationship with their organization and reciprocate this fair treatment by engaging in organizational citizenship behaviours.

Social Exchange Mediators

A number of potential mediators of the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour have been offered as a way to conceptualize this social exchange process. Researchers have operationalized the social exchange relationship that takes place between the employer and employee by measuring their perceived organizational support and their affective commitment. Further, researchers have examined the extent to which perceived organizational support and affective commitment mediate the relationship between justice perceptions and organizational citizenship behaviours (Lavelle, McMahan & Harris, 2009a; Peelle, 2007). According to Blau (1964) trust is an important part of the social exchange process as well. However, few researchers have examined the role that trust plays in the social exchange process. Each of these potential mediators will now be discussed.

Perceived organizational support. Employees determine the readiness of the organization to engage in an exchange relationship with them by forming perceptions of perceived organizational support (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson & Sowa, 1986). Perceived organizational support is one way researchers have chosen to characterize the social exchange relationship that takes place between an employer and employee. Perceived organizational support refers to the extent to which employees believe that the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Perceived organizational support represents the employee's assessment of the quality of the exchange relationship between the organization and the employee (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

Employees interpret organization actions to be indicative of appreciation or

recognition (Eisenberger et al., 1986). These actions may include praise, rewards, allowing them to participate in the decision making, and, of course, being treated fairly (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger, Fasolo & Davis-LaMastro, 1990). Being treated fairly by the organization—or what employees perceive as fair treatment—indicates that the organization values them and that the organization is committed to maintaining this social exchange relationship. Perceived organizational support is part of a reciprocal exchange relationship in which perceived fair treatment by the organization leads to an obligation that the employee will treat the organization well in return. Based on the norm of reciprocity, these employees feel obligated to repay the organization through work behaviours that support the organization and its goals such as organizational citizenship behaviours.

Research has also demonstrated that one of the antecedents of perceived organizational support is perceptions of organizational justice (Allen, Shore & Griffeth, 2003; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman & Taylor, 2000; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) and that one of the outcomes associated with perceived organizational support is organizational citizenship behaviours (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Kaufman, Stamper, & Tesluk, 2001; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002: Shore & Wayne, 1993). For example, one study found that procedural justice facilitated the formation of social exchange relationships and were positively associated with perceived organizational support (Ambrose & Schminke, 2003). Chen and colleagues (2009) have also demonstrated that perceived organizational support predicts organizational citizenship behaviour and not the reverse. They used a cross-lagged panel design and found that perceived organizational support was positively related to temporal changes in organizational

citizenship behaviour. However, organizational citizenship behaviour was not related to temporal changes in perceived organizational support. These results provide support for the idea that perceived organizational support leads to organizational citizenship behaviour.

Perceived organizational support has also been found to mediate the relationship between perceptions of organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour (Lavelle et al., 2009a; Moorman, Blakely & Niehoff, 1998; Pelle, 2007; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002). For example, one study found that perceived organizational support mediated the relationship between both distributive and procedural justice and organizational citizenship behaviours directed at the organization and peers (Pelle, 2007).

Employees who believe that their organization's electronic monitoring system is fair are likely to believe that the organization values and cares about them (high perceived organizational support). Perceived organizational support then leads employees to believe that it is worthwhile for them to continue to develop and maintain a social exchange relationship with their employer (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Choosing to engage in organizational citizenship is one way for these employees to reciprocate this perceived organizational support (Kaufman et al., 2001) (see Figure 1).

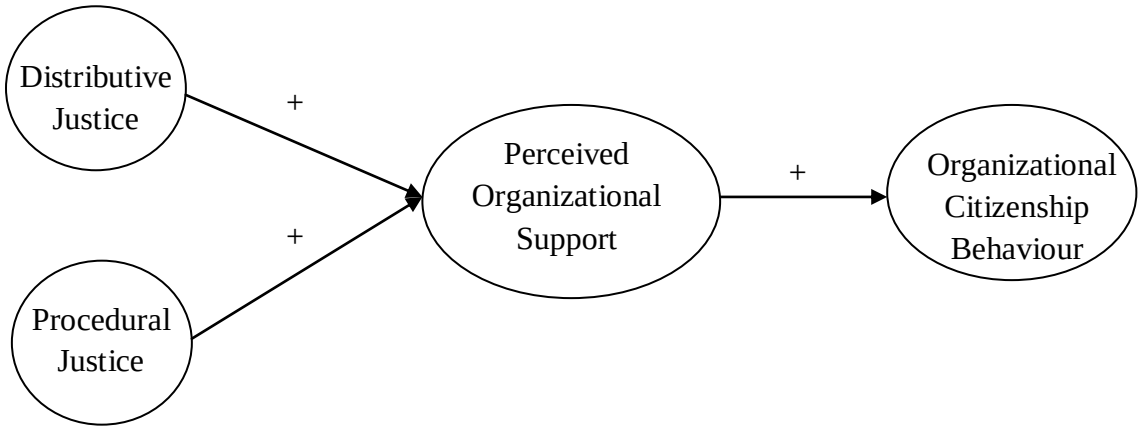

Figure 1: Summary model of proposed relationship between organizational justice, perceived organizational support and organizational citizenship behaviour.

Affective commitment. Another proposed indicator of the social exchange relationship that exists between the employee and employer is affective commitment (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment or identification with their organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997). In exchange for fair treatment received from their organization, an employee may show their commitment to the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rhoades, Eisenberger & Armeli, 2001). A high quality exchange relationship as indicated by high affective commitment is likely to lead employees to engage in organizational citizenship behaviours because the employee feels that they have an emotional obligation to reciprocate fair treatment by engaging in behaviours that benefit their exchange partner, the organization (Colquitt & Greenberg, 2003; Cropanzano & Mitchell; Lavelle et al., 2009b).

In the current study, only one of the three types of organizational commitment proposed by Allen and Meyer (1990) will be considered—affective commitment. Affective commitment will be included in the final predictive model in this study because social exchange researchers have identified it as being an important indicator of the social exchange relationship that exists between an employee and his/her employer. Perceived fair treatment from the organization serves to enhance an employee's level of affective commitment because it creates an obligation to reciprocate this fair treatment. It has also been argued that this obligation to reciprocate fair treatment would serve to enhance employees' normative commitment to the organization (perceived obligation to remain with the organization) (Allen & Meyer, 1990). However, researchers have found that of the three types of commitment (continuance, normative, and affective), affective

commitment has the strongest relationship with organizational justice perceptions and especially organizational citizenship behaviours (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnytsky, 2002). Further, studies using regression analyses to explore the unique contributions of affective and normative commitment to the prediction of organizational behaviours such organizational citizenship behaviour and turnover found no significant increment in terms of prediction for normative commitment (Jaros, 1997; Ko, Price, & Mueller, 1997). Therefore, for the purposes of this study, only employees' affective commitment to their organization will be discussed.

Research has demonstrated that perceptions of organizational justice predict affective commitment (Harvey & Haines, 2005; Schappe, 1998). Two recent meta-analyses examining the outcomes associated with organizational justice found that both types of organizational justice (procedural and distributive) were positively associated with affective commitment (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001). In both Meyer and colleagues' (2002) and Riketta's (2002) meta-analytic review of the outcomes associated with organizational commitment, they reported evidence for a relationship between affective commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. Further, when three of the most frequently researched antecedents of organizational citizenship behaviour (affective commitment, job satisfaction and procedural justice) were studied, only affective commitment explained unique variance in organizational citizenship behaviour (Schappe, 1998). Research has also demonstrated that affective commitment mediates the relationship between perceptions of organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour (Wayne, Shore, Bommer & Tetrick, 2002).

Research has not examined the extent to which the use of electronic monitoring

affects affective commitment or how perceptions of monitoring fairness may affect affective commitment when electronic monitoring is used (Stanton, 2000a). If an organization ensures that they implement their electronic monitoring system in a way that will lead employees to perceive the system to be fair then employees may be more likely to continue to maintain a social exchange relationship with their employer and develop a high emotional attachment to their organization (high affective commitment). High affective commitment is said to characterize a high quality social exchange relationship which may then lead employees to feel obligated to reciprocate this fair treatment by engaging in organizational citizenship behaviours (see Figure 2).

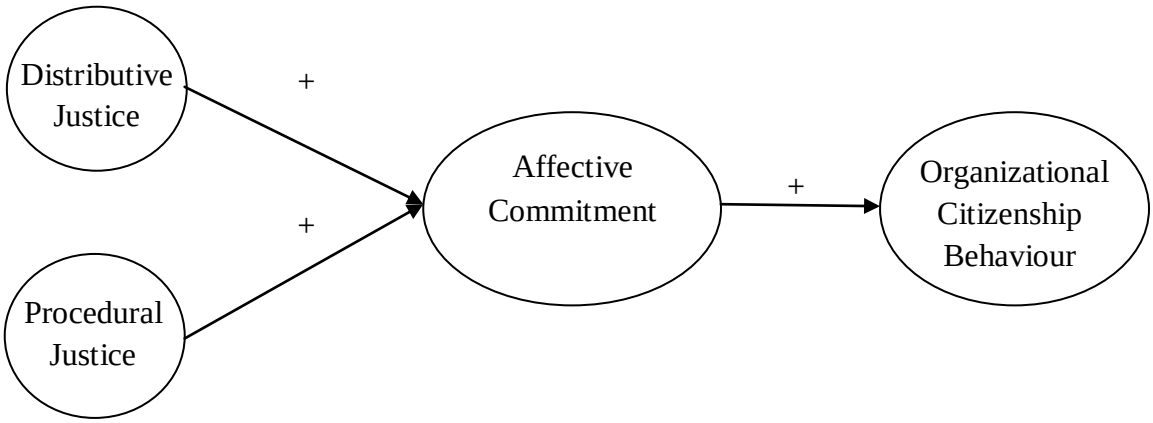

Figure 2: Summary model of proposed relationship between organizational justice, affective commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour.

Organizational trust. Blau's (1964) original conceptualization of the emergence and maintenance of social exchange relationships required the development of trust between the two social exchange partners. However, few researchers have examined the role of trust in determining these exchange relationships (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Instead, researchers have examined the social exchange mechanisms by focusing on perceived organizational support and its relationship with work related outcomes.

However, Blau (1964) argued that the social exchange process depends on the two exchange partners being able to trust one another to reciprocate. Forming and maintaining a social exchange relationship requires trust that the exchange partner will fulfil their exchange obligations (Blau, 1964). Thus, high levels of trust lead to the development of a more effective social exchange relationship (Blau, 1964).

Trust has been researched in a variety of different subject areas including: business, sociology, management and psychology (Colquitt, Scott & LePine, 2007). Trust has been defined as a behavioural intention (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman, 1995; Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt & Camerer, 1998) as a part of an individual's personality (Rotter, 1967); and as the willingness to take risks (Zand, 1972). Given this definitional inconsistency, Mayer and colleagues (1995) attempted to integrate and clarify the definition of trust. They defined trust as "the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party" (Mayer et al., 1995, p. 712). Their definition is now one of the most commonly used conceptualization of trust. Shockley-Zalabak and colleagues (2000) contend that organizational trust is based on expectations that employees have concerning the variety of organizational behaviours, arrangements and especially relationships that they develop within the workplace. Trust is an evaluation that the other party (e.g., the organization) will fulfil its obligations which an organization may demonstrate by choosing to act in a dependable and reliable fashion (Aryee, Budhwar & Chen, 2002).

Perceptions of fairness may serve as an antecedent of trust because fairness perceptions signify that an organization respects the rights of their employees (Konovsky

& Pugh, 1994). Distributive and procedural justice have been found to be antecedents of trust (Ambrose & Schminke, 2003; Aryee et al., 2002; Folger & Konovsky 1989; Korsgaard, Brodt & Whitener, 2002; Mayer, et al., 1995). For example, one study found that employees who found their past performance review to be more procedurally and distributively just were more likely to indicate that they trusted their organization (Hubell & Chorey-Assad, 2005). Similarly, another study found that considering employees' input and involving them in the decision making process significantly predicted procedural justice which in turn predicted trust (Korsgaard, Schweiger & Sapienza, 1995). Therefore, perceptions of fairness influence perceptions of trust in one's exchange partner.

Organizational citizenship behaviour has been found to be an outcome of organizational trust (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). For example, Colquitt and colleagues (2007) conducted a meta-analysis of the antecedents and outcomes associated with trust. They found that organizational trust was positively associated with organizational citizenship behaviour. Similarly, another study found that ten supervisor behaviours (e.g., treating subordinates with respect, level of openness, promise fulfilment, etc.) facilitated interpersonal trust among 64 supervisor and subordinate dyads and trust was found in turn to predict organizational citizenship behaviour (Deluga, 1995).

Research also supports a model in which trust mediates the relationship between perceptions of justice and organizational citizenship behaviour. For example, trust in one's supervisor was found to fully mediate the relationship between perceptions of distributive and procedural justice, and organizational citizenship behaviour (Erturk, 2007). Aryee and colleagues (2002) explored the relationship between both types of

organizational justice, trust in supervisor, trust in organization and a variety of work related outcomes and attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction, turnover intentions and organizational citizenship behaviour). They found that only trust in supervisor mediated the relationship between perceptions of organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour. Similarly, Wong and colleagues (2006) found trust in organization mediated the relationship between perceptions of procedural and distributive justice and organizational citizenship behaviour. These studies indicate the importance of including trust in a model of social exchange when trying to explain the relationship between perceptions of organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour.

Few studies within the electronic monitoring literature have explored the role of trust when exploring employees' reactions to the use of electronic monitoring. However, Stanton (2000a) notes that the way in which an electronic monitoring system is implemented and used should influence employees' perceptions of monitoring fairness and especially their trust in the organization. Stanton (2000a) also proposes that organizational trust should be related to an employee's performance. Further, Whitener (1997, 2001) argues that trust stems from the content and process of human resource practices such as performance appraisal and management. Implementing a more acceptable appraisal system can lead to heightened levels of trust in management (Mayer & Davis, 1999). When employees perceive the electronic monitoring system to be fair, they may be more likely to trust that their social exchange relationship with their organization will continue to be based on fair treatment. Because these employees trust their organization and the social exchange relationship they have with their organization,

they are more likely to reciprocate this fair treatment by engaging in organizational citizenship behaviours (see Figure 3).

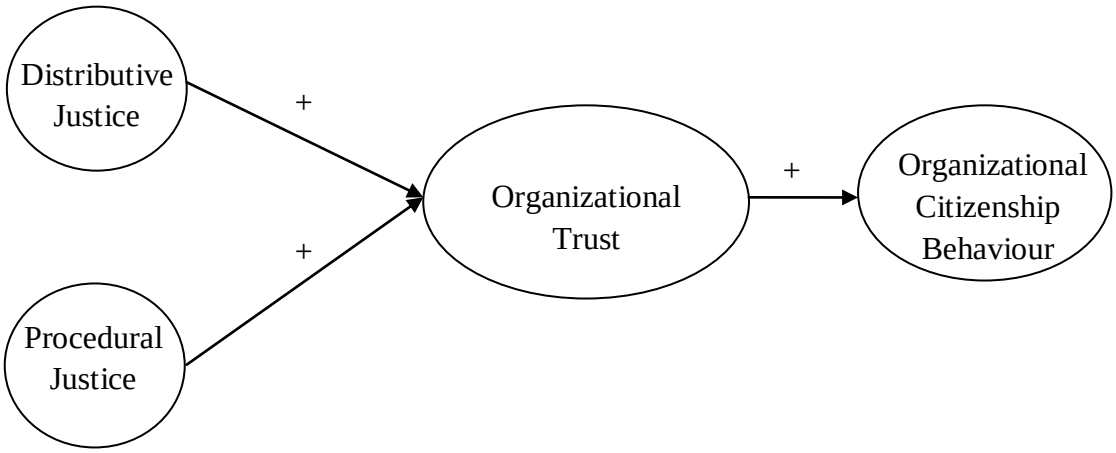

Figure 3: Summary model of proposed relationship between organizational justice, organizational trust and organizational citizenship behaviour.

Exchange ideology. An employee's exchange ideology may also influence the social exchange relationship that exists between an employee and employer. Social exchange theory argues that employees are motivated to reciprocate perceived benefits that they have received from their exchange partner, their employer. However, Eisenberger and colleagues (1986) argued that individuals may differ with regards to how much they adhere to this norm of reciprocity. Eisenberger and colleagues (1986) defined exchange ideology as an employee's expectation of and likely response to their social exchange partner. Further, exchange ideology can be considered a dispositional belief that represents the extent to which individuals feel that their behaviours and attitudes should be dependent on how the organization treats them (Witt, 1991; Witt & Wilson, 1990; Sinclair & Tetrick, 1995; Witt, Kacmar & Andrews, 2001).

Research indicates that exchange ideology influences many of the variables thought to be a crucial part of the social exchange process. For example, exchange ideology was found to be positively related to supervisors' willingness to engage in organizational citizenship behaviours (Chiaburu & Byrne 2009). Similarly, a person's exchange ideology has been found to be positively related to their commitment (Pazy & Ganzack, 2010; Witt et al., 2001) and their perceived organizational support (Eisenberger et al., 1986; 2001). Further, Scott and Colquitt (2007) argue that the extent to which people's behaviour is based on the fair treatment that they receive may depend on their exchange ideology. Altogether, this research would suggest that it important to consider an employee's unique exchange ideology when adopting a social exchange perspective in order to explain an employee's attitudes and behaviours (Eisenberger et al., 2001). Further, an employee's exchange ideology represents the extent to which they believe that beneficial treatment should be reciprocated, the guiding principal behind the social exchange perspective and the entire proposed research model. Therefore, the current study controlled for an employee's exchange ideology.

On-the-Job Withdrawal Behaviours/ Cognitions and Electronic Monitoring

By making their employees aware that their activities will be electronically monitored, organizations hope to prevent their employees from misusing company time and resources and discourage them from engaging in discretionary behaviours such as surfing the web or making personal phone calls. However, one of the pitfalls associated with the use of electronic monitoring is that it can negatively impact employee morale and can lead employees to become disengaged from their jobs (Ariss, 2002; Bates & Horton, 1995; Stanton, 2000a). One way employees can express this dissatisfaction is by

engaging in discretionary behaviours called withdrawal behaviours/cognitions, behaviours that can actually harm the organization. Withdrawal behaviours/cognitions can be defined as a group of neglect behaviours and cognitions such as daydreaming, thinking about being absent, engaging in non-work related conversations and thinking about leaving the organization (Lehman & Simpson, 1992). Engaging in these behaviours and cognitions can prove beneficial for the individual employee. For instance, withdrawing from work (e.g., spending time on personal matters or being absent) can allow employees to deal with both work and non-work related stress (Chmeyer & Cohen, 1999). However, these behaviours and cognitions are often associated with decreased productivity and are negatively related to performance (Hanisch & Hulin, 1991; Lehman & Simpson, 1992).Therefore, for the purposes of the current study, only the negative implications of withdrawal behaviours and cognitions will be discussed.

Some of the research examining the use of electronic monitoring and employee withdrawal behaviours /cognitions has found that the way in which the system is used and implemented affects one type of withdrawal behaviour, employee turnover intentions. For instance, Alder and colleagues (2006) found that perceptions of monitoring fairness and trust were negatively related to employee turnover and absenteeism. Further, researchers have argued that human resource practices that indicate to their employees that they are valued should decrease employee withdrawal (Allen et al., 2003). For example, HR activities that are designed to facilitate commitment (i.e., procedural justice, participation) decreased employee withdrawal behaviours/ cognitions including turnover intentions (Shaw, Delery, Jenkins, & Gupta, 1998).

Research examining the relationship between the use of electronic monitoring and employee withdrawal behaviours/cognitions has been largely atheoretical. Research has not attempted to explain the underlying causal mechanisms for why variables such as fairness perceptions relate to withdrawal behaviours and cognitions. In the current study, a social exchange framework was applied. According to social exchange theory, positive social exchange relationships should not only encourage employees to engage in organizational citizenship behaviour but they should also reduce an employee's willingness to engage in withdrawal behaviours and cognitions (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002). Research has also demonstrated that withdrawal behaviours and cognitions are negatively related to the variables indicative of the social exchange process: perceptions of organizational justice (Aryee & Chay, 2001; Dailey & Kirk, 1992; Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991), affective commitment (Allen et al., 2003; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 2002; Wasti, 2003), perceived organizational support (Allen et al., 2003; Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 1997) and trust (Hopkins & Weathington, 2006; Tan & Tan, 2000). Employees who believe that they have been fairly treated by their organization are more likely to feel supported and trust their organization. Because they trust their organization and feel that the organization is committed to them, they are more likely to feel committed to the organization. Employees who feel committed to their organization and maintaining the social exchange relationship with their employer should be less likely to engage in withdrawal behaviours/cognitions (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Therefore, the current study examined the relationship between perceptions of monitoring fairness and employee withdrawal behaviours/cognitions.

Limitations of Past Research

Much of the previous research on reactions to electronic monitoring manipulated the presence of electronic monitoring in a laboratory setting. For instance, university undergraduate students would be asked to complete data entry tasks and would be told that their work was being monitored by another computer linked to their own. Although this allowed researchers to determine the effects of electronic monitoring on task performance, these scenarios lacked realism as it is difficult to generalize these findings to tasks that employees routinely perform in the workplace. Also, participants in these lab experiments may not have been as invested in their tasks when compared to real employees whose financial livelihood is dependent upon their performance. More recently, researchers have begun to examine factors affecting call centre employees' perceptions of electronic monitoring fairness (i.e., Alder et al., 2006; Moorman & Wells, 2003). Thus, one of the goals of the current study was to examine how actual employees respond to the electronic monitoring of not just their phone calls and keystrokes but also, the electronic monitoring of their email and internet usage.

Much of the previous research on how electronic monitoring affects employees' attitudes and behaviours has largely been atheoretical. Further, social exchange theory has not been applied to the electronic monitoring literature. The social exchange perspective can be used to explain the relationship between perceptions of organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour. Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) contend that the social exchange relationship can be operationalized in terms of perceived organizational support, affective commitment, and organizational trust and that these constructs mediate the relationship between organizational justice and organizational

citizenship behaviour. However, research on the role of trust in social exchange relationships have been limited (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Researchers have yet to incorporate all three social exchange mechanisms (perceived organizational support, affective commitment and trust) into a single model. The current study explored the relationship between perceptions of electronic monitoring fairness and organizational citizenship and the following three mediators: perceived organizational support, affective commitment, and trust. The relationship between perceptions of monitoring fairness and employee withdrawal behaviours was also explored.

The Current Study – Practical and Theoretical Contributions

As mentioned previously, one of the reasons organizations choose to electronically monitor their employees is that they do not want them engaging in discretionary behaviours that misuse company time, such as surfing the web or sending personal emails (Ariss, 2002). However, how an electronic monitoring system is implemented and used may also affect other types of discretionary behaviours—organizational citizenship and withdrawal behaviours. Researchers have not examined how fairness perceptions associated with the use of electronic monitoring relate to organizational citizenship and withdrawal behaviours. Therefore, this study contributes to the existing electronic monitoring literature by exploring the relationship between perceptions of fairness concerning the use of electronic monitoring and organizational citizenship and withdrawal behaviours.

In addition, this study adopted a social exchange perspective and is the first study to apply this theoretical orientation to the electronic monitoring literature. A number of different social exchange mechanisms or mediators have been offered to further explain

this social exchange process, most notably perceived organizational support, affective commitment and trust. Researchers have yet to incorporate all three social exchange mechanisms (perceived organizational support, affective commitment and trust) into a single predictive model of organizational citizenship and withdrawal behaviours. Thus, this study contributes to the existing social exchange literature by clarifying the role of these three proposed social exchange mediators—perceived organizational support, affective commitment and organizational trust.

Research Hypotheses

Social exchange theories suggest that fair treatment initiated by the organization indicates to the employee that the organization cares about them and values their unique work contributions (perceived organizational support; Blau, 1964; Eisenberger et al., 1986). One of the antecedents of perceived organizational support is perceptions of organizational justice (Allen et al., 2003; Masterson et al., 2000; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Therefore, it was predicted that:

> *Hypothesis 1a-b:* Perceptions of distributive (1a) and procedural justice (1b) associated with the use of electronic monitoring (EM) will be positively associated with perceived organizational support (see Figure 4).

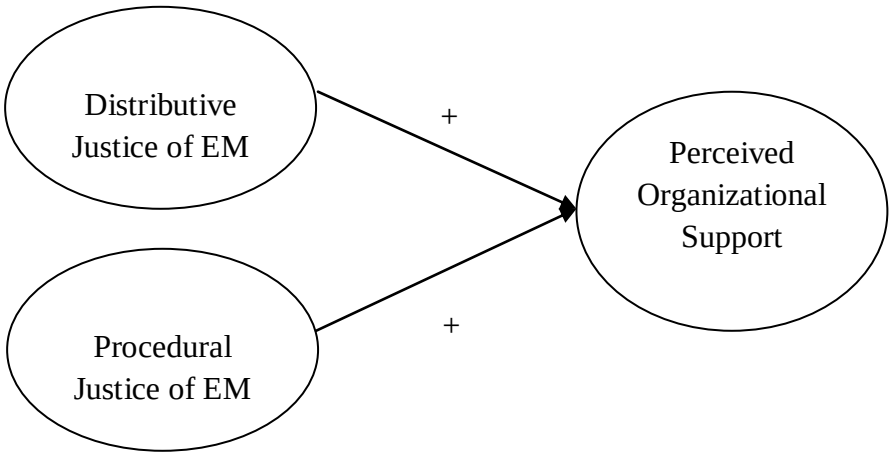

Figure 4: Hypothesized relationship between perceptions of distributive and procedural justice and perceived organizational support.

Past research (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch & Rhoades, 2001; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Settoon, Bennett & Liden, 1996) as well as the results of two meta-analyses (Meyer et al., 2002; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) provide support for a positive association between perceived organizational support and affective commitment.

The relationship between perceived organizational support and affective commitment can be explained by using the social identity theory (Tyler, 1999). This theory argues that when an individual feels that they are valued by the organization, they feel recognized and this recognition helps meet their needs for approval and esteem. Meeting these socio-emotional needs likely affects the employee's social identity within the organization and can in turn foster a sense of belonging within that organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Social exchange theory can also be used to explain why perceived organizational support affects affective commitment (Blau, 1964). This theory

suggests that behaviours that influence perceived organizational support (i.e., fairness perceptions, training, promotions, etc.) indicate to the employee that they are respected by their employer and that it is beneficial to maintain this social exchange relationship with their employer (high perceived organizational support). Because these employees feel that the organization is committed to them and values them, they are more likely to become committed to their organization as well as maintain these social exchange relationships (Eisenberger et al., 1991, 2001). Essentially, these employees develop positive attitudes towards their organizations (enhanced levels of affective commitment) in order to reciprocate the perceived organizational support they have received. Based on the research and theory discussed above, it was predicted that:

Hypothesis 2: Perceived organizational support will be positively associated with affective commitment (see Figure 5).

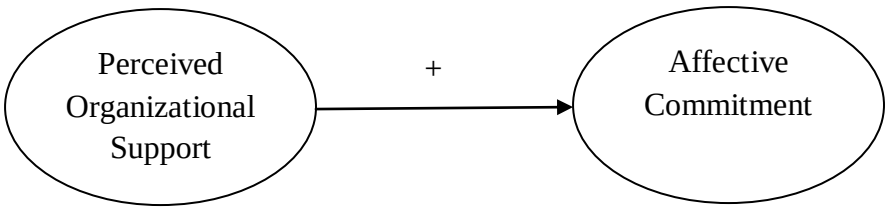

Figure 5: Hypothesized relationship between perceived organizational support and affective commitment.

Fair treatment from the organization indicates to the employee that the organization values them and is committed to them (high perceived organizational support). In exchange for receiving the support of their employer, employees will exchange their commitment. Perceived organizational support has been shown to be an antecedent of affective commitment (Eisenberger et al., 2001; Masterson et al., 2000;

Wayne, Shore & Linden, 1997) and is considered an outcome of organizational justice (Ambrose et al., 2003; Allen et al., 2003; Masterson et al., 2000; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Perceived organizational support mediates the relationship between perceptions of organizational justice and affective commitment (Masterson et al., 2000; Meyer & Smith, 2000; Rhoades et al., 2001; Wayne et al., 2002). For instance, in their investigation of employee reactions to a new performance appraisal system, Masterson and colleagues (2000) found that perceptions of procedural justice predicted perceived organizational support which in turn predicted affective commitment. Therefore, the following hypothesis was made:

> *Hypothesis 3a-b*: Perceived organizational support will mediate the relationship between perceptions of distributive justice (3a) and procedural justice (3b) associated with the use of electronic monitoring (EM) and affective commitment (see Figure 6).

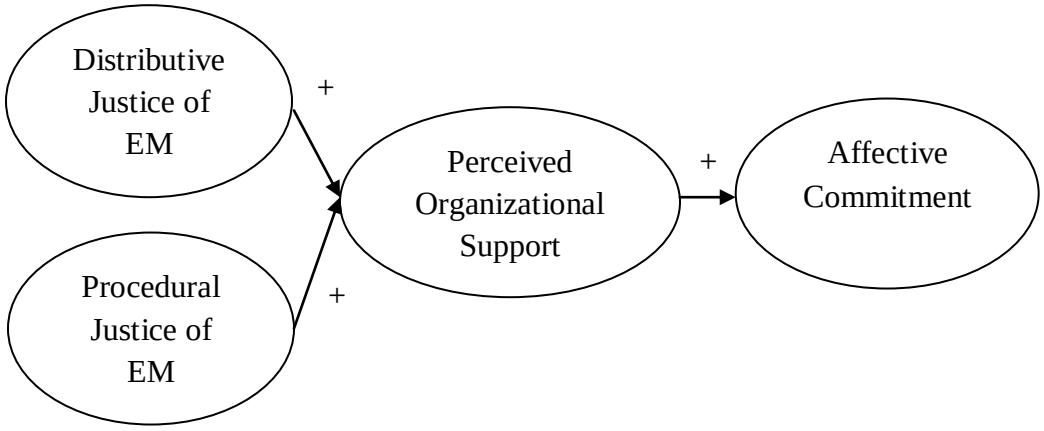

Figure 6: Hypothesized relationship between perceptions of distributive and procedural justice, perceived organizational support and affective commitment.

Fair treatment from the organization enhances organizational trust because this treatment signifies to the employee that the organization values their dignity and respects

them. Organizational justice has been found to be an antecedent of trust (Ambrose & Schminke, 2003; Aryee et al., 2002; Folger & Konovsky 1989; Korsgaard et al., 2002; Mayer et al., 1995). Based on past research it was hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 4a-b: Perceptions of distributive justice (4a) and procedural justice (4b) associated with the use of electronic monitoring (EM) will be positively associated with organizational trust (see Figure 7).

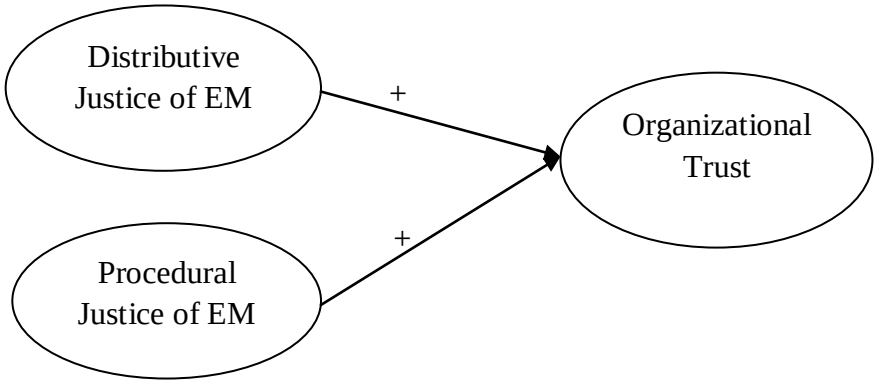

Figure 7: Hypothesized relationship between distributive, procedural, justice and organizational trust.

Perceived organizational support indicates to the employee that they are valued and that the organization is benevolent and ultimately this enhances perceptions of trust (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Chen et al., 2005). Perceived organizational support has been shown to be positively related to organizational trust (Lilly & Virick, 2006; Paille & Bourdeau & Galois, 2010; Ristig, 2009). Therefore it was hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 5: Perceived organizational support will be positively associated with organizational trust (see Figure 8).

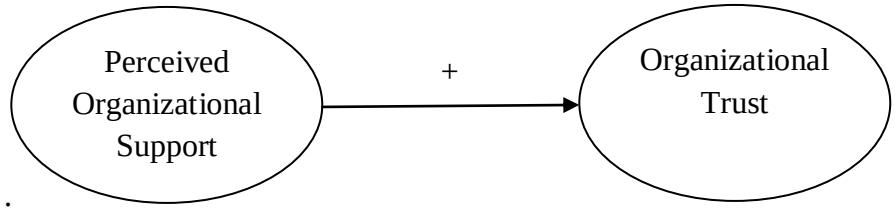

Figure 8: Hypothesized relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational trust.

According to social exchange theory, perceived fair treatment from the organization indicates to the employee that they are respected which engenders a sense of trust. This prediction is consistent with Mayer and colleagues' (1995) conceptualization of trust. They argue that when making judgments about whether to trust their organization, employees consider their organizations' integrity. Fair treatment from the organization may indicate to the employee that their employer has behaved with integrity. Consistent with organizational support theory, fair treatment from the organization also indicates to the employee that the organization cares about them and values them (perceived organizational support). Two meta-analyses on the outcomes associated with organizational justice have shown that organizational justice is positively related to both perceived organizational support and organizational trust (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001). Mayer and colleagues (1995) also contend that when an employer treats their employees benevolently that this should also inspire trust. When employees feel that their organization values and cares about them they may feel that their organization is willing to treat them benevolently and this may encourage the employee to trust their organization. Further, perceived organizational support is also positively related to organizational trust (Chen et al., 2005; Moideenkutty, Blau, Kumar

& Nalakath, 2001; Tan & Tan, 2000). More recently, researchers have demonstrated that perceived organizational support partially mediated the relationship between procedural justice and trust (Stinglhamber, De Cremer, & Mercken, 2006). Based on theory and research discussed above, it was hypothesized that:

> *Hypothesis 6a-b*: Perceived organizational support will partially mediate the relationship between perceptions of distributive (6a) and procedural (6b) justice associated with the use of electronic monitoring (EM) and organizational trust (see Figure 9 and 10).

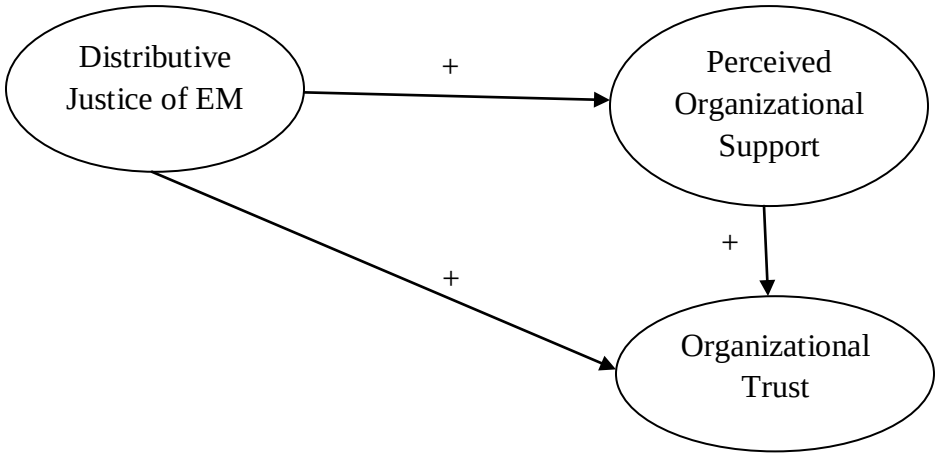

Figure 9: Hypothesized relationship between perceptions of distributive justice, perceived organizational support and organizational trust.

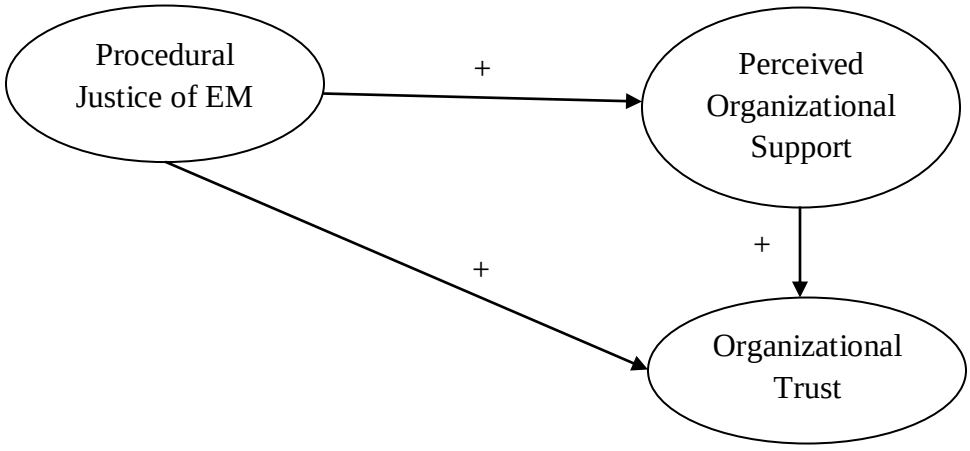

Figure 10: Hypothesized relationship between perceptions of procedural justice, perceived organizational support and organizational trust.

Employees who trust their organization to fulfil their social exchange obligations are more likely to feel an emotional attachment to that organization (high affective commitment). Trust has been shown to be positively related to affective commitment (Nyhan, 2000; Ruppel & Harrington, 2000; Tam & Lim, 2009; Whitener, 2001). For example, trust in co-workers and trust in organization has been recently shown to predict affective commitment (Tam & Lim, 2009). Therefore, it was hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 7: Organizational trust will be positively associated with affective commitment (see Figure 11).

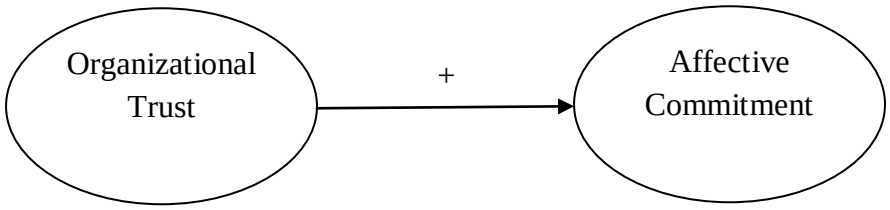

Figure 11: Hypothesized relationship between organizational trust and affective commitment.

Fair treatment from the organization indicates to the employee that the organization is willing to treat them with respect which fosters a sense of trust. Social exchange relationships require the employee to be able to trust that their exchange partner, the organization, will continue to fulfil their social exchange obligations. Employees who trust their organization are more likely to form an emotional attachment with their employer (high affective commitment) (Hopkins & Weathington, 2006). In accordance with this view, Klendauer and Deller (2009) in their investigation of corporate mergers found that trust mediated the relationship between perceptions of organizational justice and affective commitment. Therefore, it was hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 8a-b: Organizational trust will mediate the relationship between perceptions of distributive (8a) and procedural justice (8b) associated with the use of electronic monitoring (EM) and affective commitment (see Figure 12).

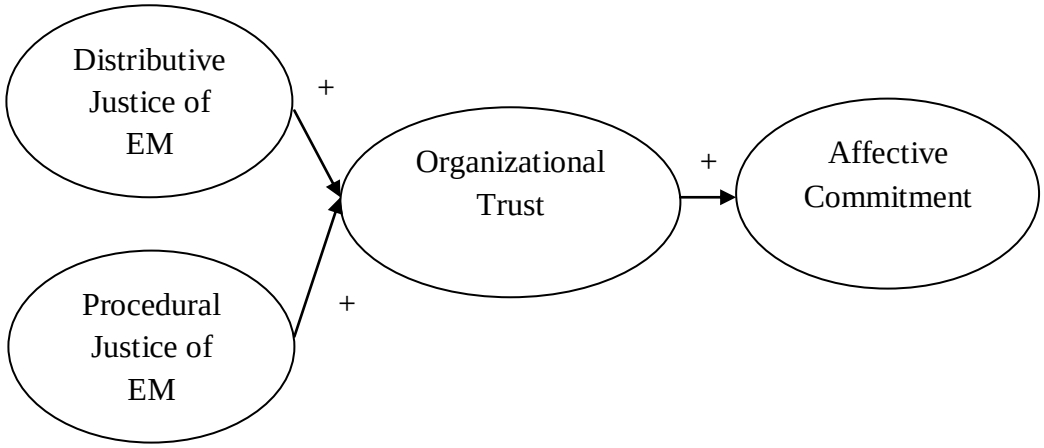

Figure 12: Hypothesized relationship between perceptions of distributive and procedural justice, organizational trust and affective commitment.

Employees' commitment to the organization stems from their perceptions that the organization is committed to them (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Shore & Tetrick, 1991; Shore & Wayne, 1993; Wayne et al., 1997). Perceived organizational support is also said to foster organizational trust (Blau, 1964). Individuals who trust their organization to fulfil their social exchange obligations are also likely to develop a greater emotional attachment with the organization (Chen et al., 2009). For example, in their investigation of employee reactions to the use of internet monitoring, Alder and colleagues (2006) found that providing employees with advanced notification and heightened levels of perceived organizational support predicted trust which in turn predicted affective commitment. Further, Whitener (2001) surveyed 1689 credit union employees regarding their reactions to human resource activities (i.e., appraisal and training) and found that

trust in management partially mediated the relationship between perceived organizational support and affective commitment. Therefore, it was hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 9: Organizational trust will partially mediate the relationship between perceived organizational support and affective commitment (see Figure 13).

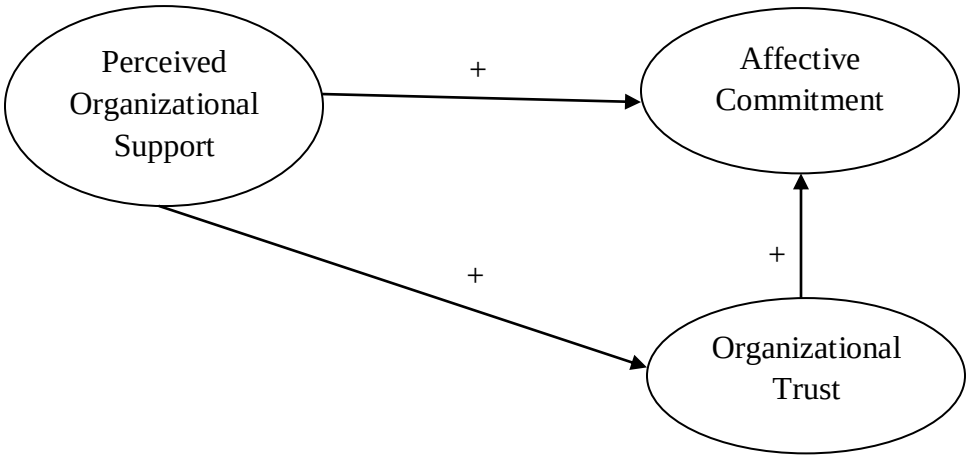

Figure 13: Hypothesized relationship between perceived organizational support, affective commitment and organizational trust.

Employees with higher affective commitment are more likely to engage in organizational citizenship behaviours (Cohen & Keren, 2008; Meyer et al., 2002; Schappe, 1998) and are less likely to engage in withdrawal behaviours (Allen et al., 2003; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Masterson et al., 2000; Meyer et al., 2002; Wasti, 2003). Affective commitment can be considered an indicator of the extent to which employees feel that they are in a high-quality social exchange relationship with their employer (Lavelle et al., 2009b). Employees that feel an emotional attachment to their organization are more likely to engage in behaviours that will benefit the organization such as organizational citizenship behaviours. Further, affective commitment should lead employees to feel obligated to continue to engage in the social exchange relationship and should be related

to lower rates of withdrawal. Kwantes (2003) found that affective commitment differentially predicted the four different dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviour (personal industry, individual initiative, interpersonal helping, and loyal boosterism). Therefore, given the research discussed above, it was hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 10a-d: Affective commitment will be positively associated with each of the four dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviour: personal industry (10a), individual initiative (10b), interpersonal helping (10c), and loyal boosterism (10d) (see Figure 14).

Hypothesis 11: Affective commitment will be negatively associated with withdrawal behaviours (see Figure 15).

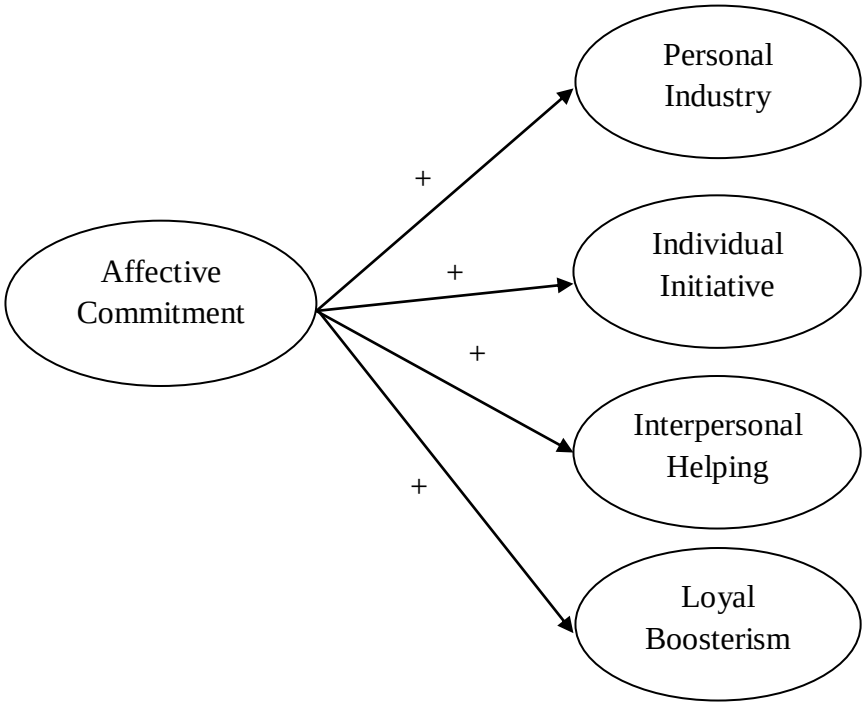

Figure 14: Hypothesized relationship between affective commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour.

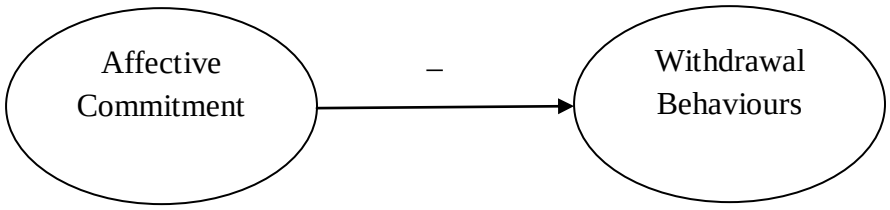

Figure 15: Hypothesized relationship between affective commitment and withdrawal behaviours

Providing employees with support enhances their affective commitment (Aube, Rousseau & Morin, 2007). Employees may perceive this support as an indication that their organization is committed to them, which in response, makes them more committed to their organization (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore & Shore, 1995). A high quality exchange relationship as indicated by high affective commitment leads employees to engage in organizational citizenship behaviours because employees with strong affective commitment are more likely to identify with the goals of the organization and are more likely to want to further these goals by engaging in behaviours that benefit their exchange partner, the organization (Colquitt & Greenberg, 2003; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Lavelle et al., 2009b). Further, individuals who identify with their organization and its goals should be less likely to become disenchanted with their organization and engage in withdrawal behaviours (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Research has demonstrated that affective commitment mediates the relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational citizenship behaviour (Cropanzano & Bryne, 2000; Liu, 2009). Affective commitment has also been shown to mediate the relationship between perceived organizational support and withdrawal behaviours (Loi, Hang-Yue & Foley, 2006; Masterson et al., 2000; Rhoades et al., 2001; Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003). Therefore, it was hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 12a-d: Affective commitment will mediate the relationship between perceived organizational support and each of the four dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviour: personal industry (12a), individual initiative (12b), interpersonal helping (12c), and loyal boosterism (12d) (see Figure 16).

Hypothesis 13: Affective commitment will mediate the relationship between perceived organizational support and withdrawal behaviours (see Figure 17).

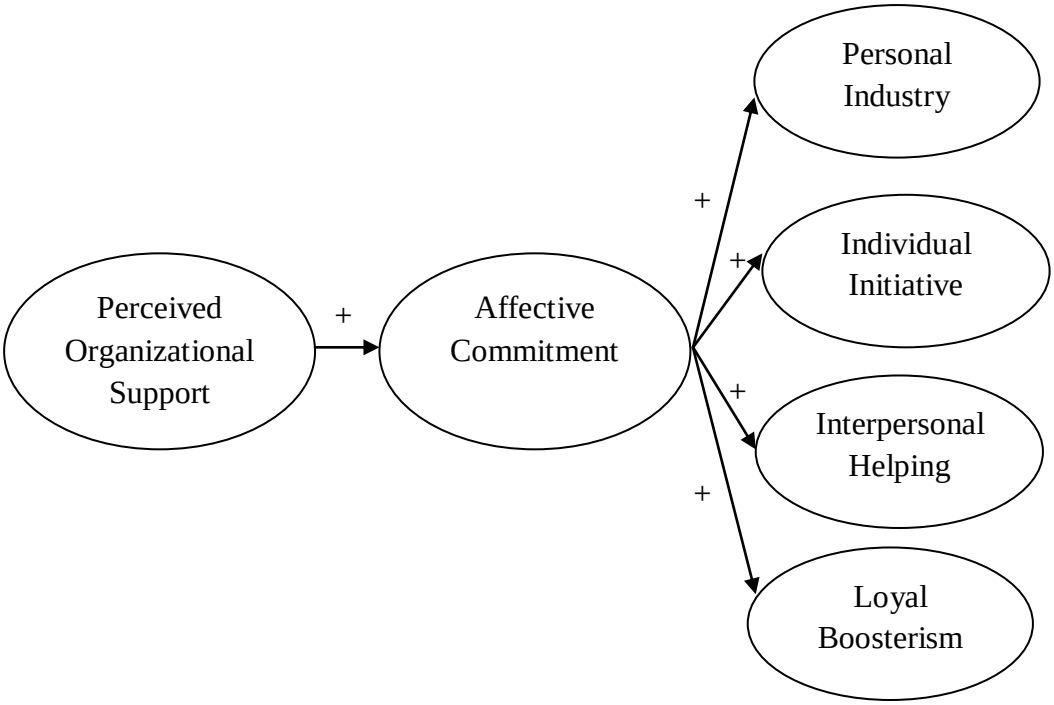

Figure 16: Hypothesized relationship between, perceived organizational support, affective commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour.

Figure 17: Hypothesized relationship between perceived organizational support, affective commitment and withdrawal behaviours.

Employees who trust their social exchange partner are likely to feel more emotionally attached to their organization and are thus likely to identify more closely with that organization (high affective commitment; Nyhan, 2000; Ruppel & Harrington, 2000; Whitener, 2001). Employees who identify with their organization are more likely to engage in behaviours that benefit their organization, such as organizational citizenship behaviours (Cohen & Keren, 2008; Meyer et al., 1997; Schappe, 1998) and are less likely to engage in withdrawal behaviours (Tan & Tan, 2000). Therefore, it was hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 14a-d: Affective commitment will mediate the relationship between organizational trust and each of the four dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviour: personal industry (14a), individual initiative (14b), interpersonal helping (14c), and loyal boosterism (14d) (see Figure 18).

Hypothesis 15: Affective commitment will mediate the relationship between organizational trust and withdrawal behaviours (see Figure 19).

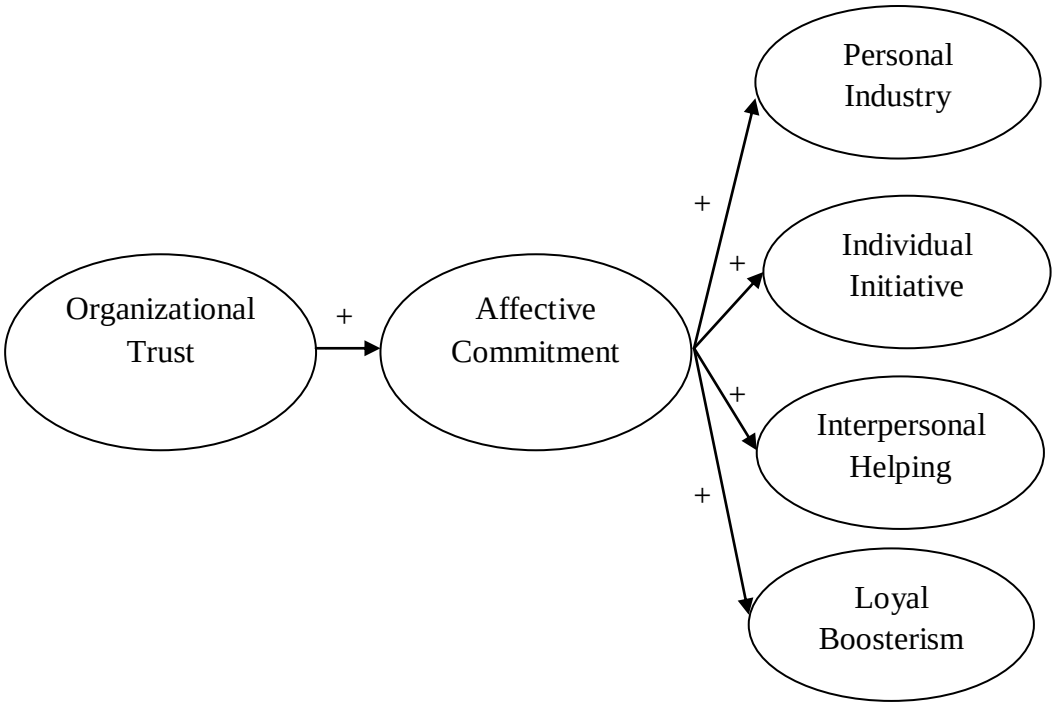

Figure 18: Hypothesized relationship between organizational trust, affective commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour.

Figure 19: Hypothesized relationship between organizational trust, affective commitment and withdrawal behaviours.

Hypothesized Model

A summary of the hypothesized model will now be provided (see Figure 20). Research indicates that organizations can ensure that their employees perceive an electronic monitoring system to be fair by carefully considering the opinions of their employees when designing and implementing electronic monitoring systems (Ambrose & Alder, 2000; Douhitt & Aiello, 2001; Moorman & Wells, 2003). If employees believe

their organization to be procedurally and distributively fair, they will believe that the organization values and cares about them (heightened perceived organizational support). Employees who believe that the organization cares about them and that their organization is fair are likely to trust that their organization will continue to maintain a quality social exchange relationship with them. Employees who feel that the organization is committed to them (high perceived organizational support) are also likely to reciprocate this commitment by becoming more emotionally attached to the organization. Trusting the organization will also lead employees to feel an emotional attachment with, and identify with their organization. Employees who identify with their organizations are likely to reciprocate this fair treatment and support by engaging in behaviours that benefit the organization, such as organizational citizenship behaviours.

Conversely, employees who do not perceive the organization's monitoring system to be fair, may not feel that the organization values them or that they can trust the organization. Because employees do not feel that their organization is committed to them (low perceived organizational support), they may not form an emotional attachment to their organization. Employees who do not feel emotionally connected to their organization may be more willing to engage in withdrawal behaviours.

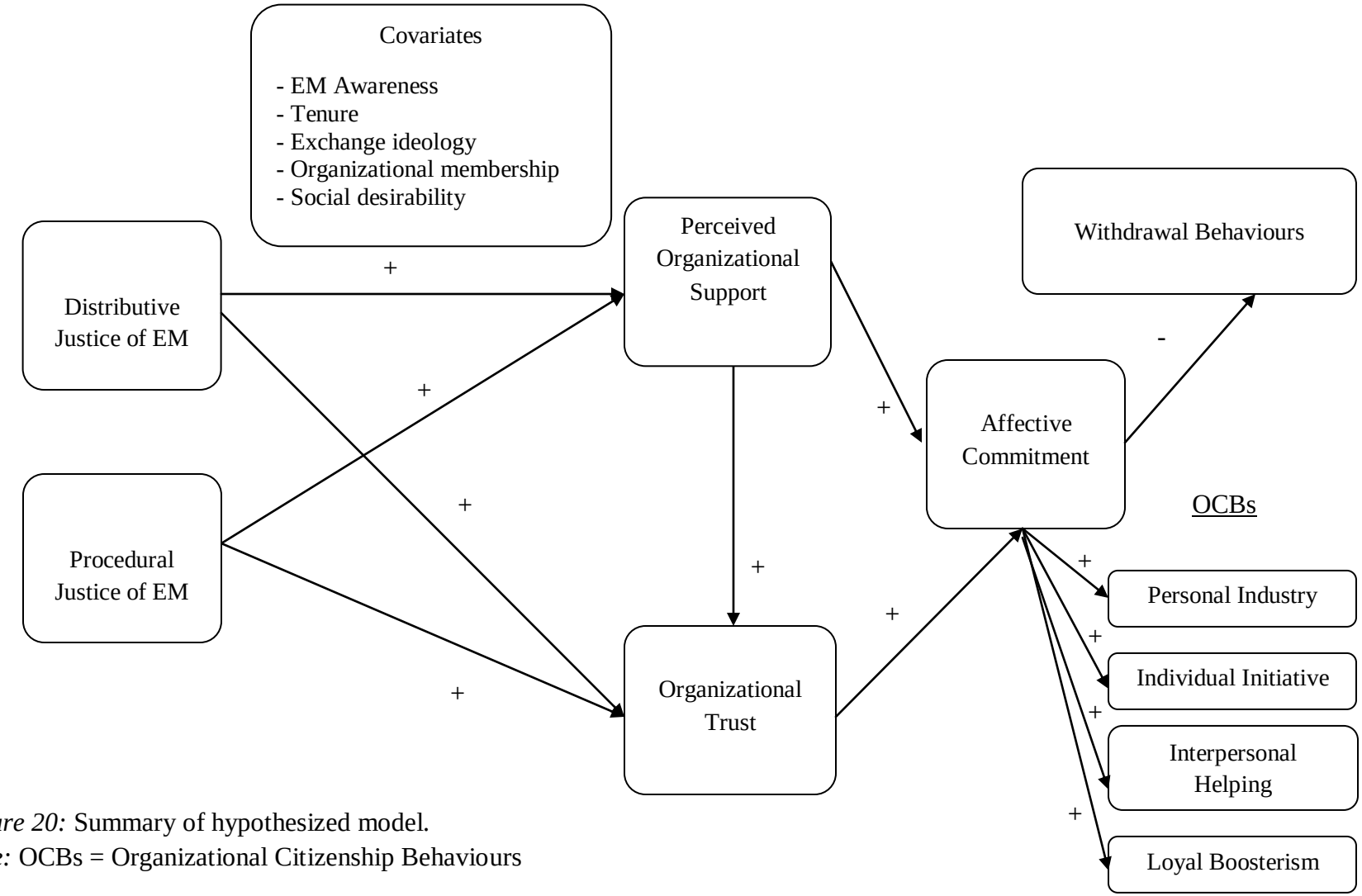

Figure 20: Summary of hypothesized model.
Note: OCBs = Organizational Citizenship Behaviours

Alternative Models

The relationships in the hypothesized model are consistent with social exchange theory. However, much of the past research on the social exchange process has been overly simplistic. These models did not include perceived organizational support, affective commitment, and organizational trust into a single model. Nevertheless, these models demonstrated that perceived organizational support mediates the relationship between organizational justice perceptions and organizational citizenship behaviours (Lavelle et al., 2009a; Moorman et al., 1998). They also found that both affective commitment and trust mediate the relationship between fairness perceptions and organizational citizenship behaviours (Aryee et al., 2002; Lavelle et al., 2009a). Therefore, there are also possible alternative models that include more direct paths from these mediator variables to the outcome variables. These alternative models will now be discussed.

Model 2. Perceived organizational support may be directly related to organizational citizenship and withdrawal behaviours. This proposition would be consistent with both past research and social exchange theory (Lavelle et al., 2009a; Peelle, 2007). Fair treatment from the organization indicates to the employee that the organization values and cares about them (perceived organizational support). Employees may then feel obligated to reciprocate this fair treatment and care and concern by engaging in behaviours that benefit the organization such as organizational citizenship behaviours, while refraining from engaging in behaviours that do not benefit the organization such as withdrawal behaviours. Therefore, an alternative model in which direct paths were added from perceived organizational to both organizational citizenship

and withdrawal behaviours was tested and compared to the hypothesized model (see Figure 21).

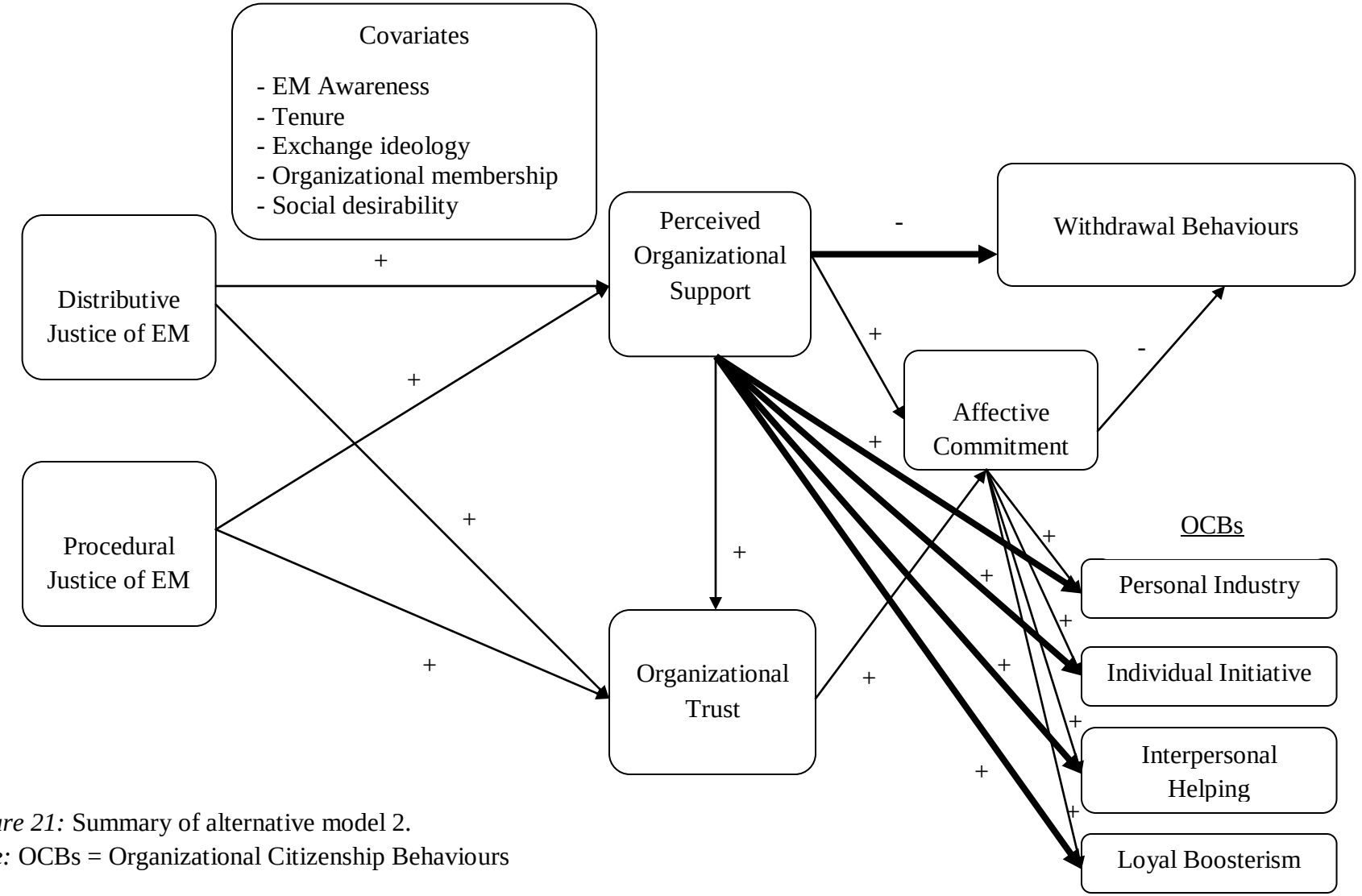

Figure 21: Summary of alternative model 2.
Note: OCBs = Organizational Citizenship Behaviours

Model 3. It is also possible that organizational trust directly influences organizational citizenship and withdrawal behaviours. Social exchange theory posits that forming and maintaining a social exchange relationship depends on the exchange partners being able to trust one another (Blau, 1964). However, few researchers have explored how trust affects these social exchange relationships (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). When employees perceive the electronic monitoring system to be fair, they may be more likely to trust their social exchange relationship with their organization. Because these employees trust their organization and the social exchange relationship they have with their organization, they may be more likely to reciprocate this fair treatment by engaging in organizational citizenship behaviours and refraining from engaging in withdrawal behaviours. Research also demonstrates that organizational trust is an antecedent of organizational citizenship and withdrawal behaviours (Aryee et al., 2002; Colquitt et al., 2007; Wong, Ngo & Wong, 2006). Therefore, based on theory and past research, an alternative model in which direct paths were added from trust to organizational citizenship and withdrawal behaviours was compared to the hypothesized model (see Figure 22).

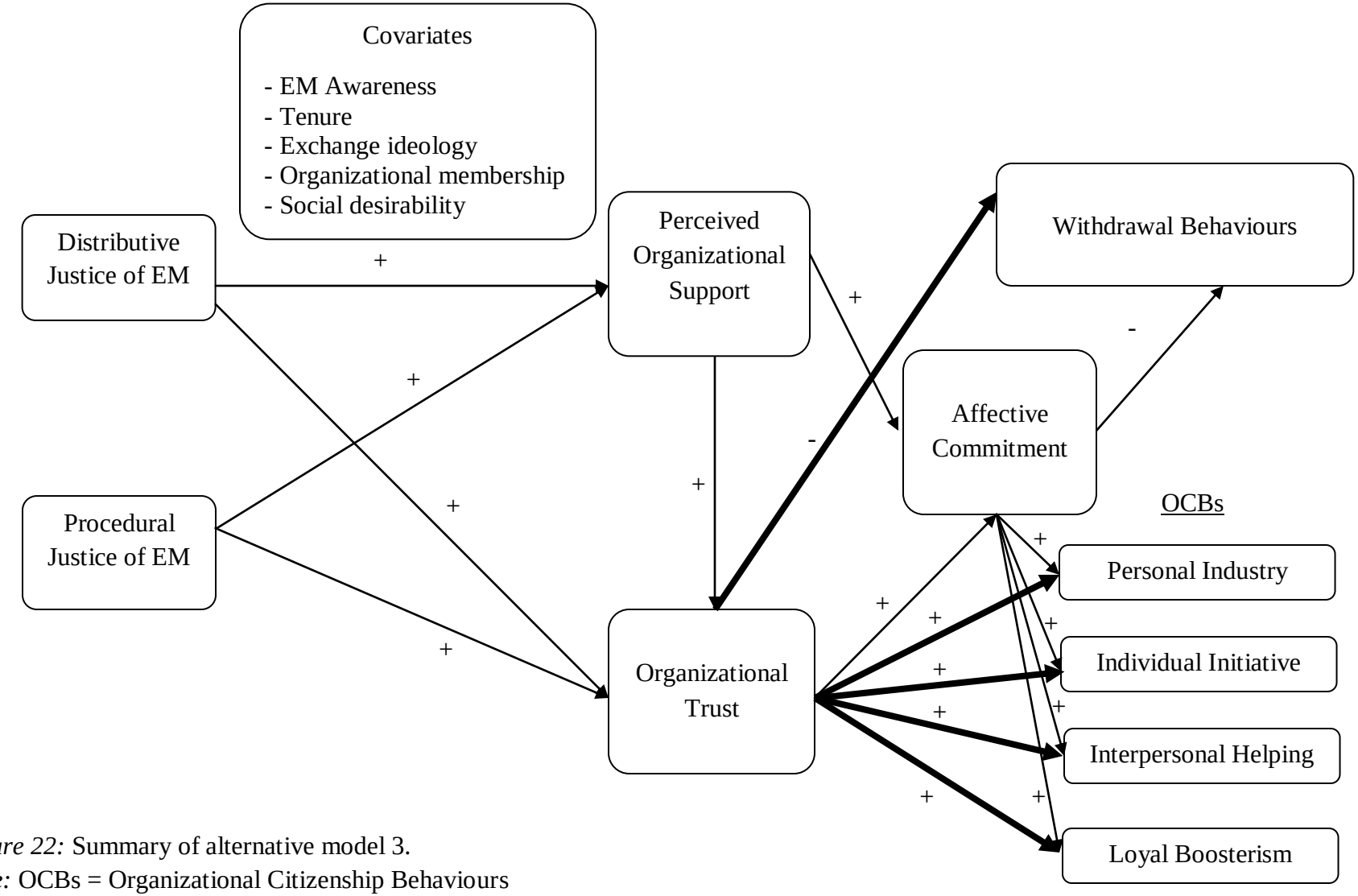

Figure 22: Summary of alternative model 3.
Note: OCBs = Organizational Citizenship Behaviours

Model 4. It was predicted that both perceived organizational support and organizational trust would mediate the relationship between perceptions of justice associated with the use of electronic monitoring and affective commitment. However, perceptions of distributive and procedural justice associated with the use of electronic monitoring may be directly related to affective commitment. In exchange for fair treatment received from their organization, an employee may show their commitment to the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rhoades et al., 2001). Recent meta-analyses have also found that perceptions of distributive and procedural justice are positively associated with affective commitment (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001: Colquitt et al., 2001). Therefore, in model 4, direct paths were added from both perceptions of distributive and procedural justice associated with the use of electronic monitoring to affective commitment. Model 4 was then compared to the hypothesized model (see Figure 23).

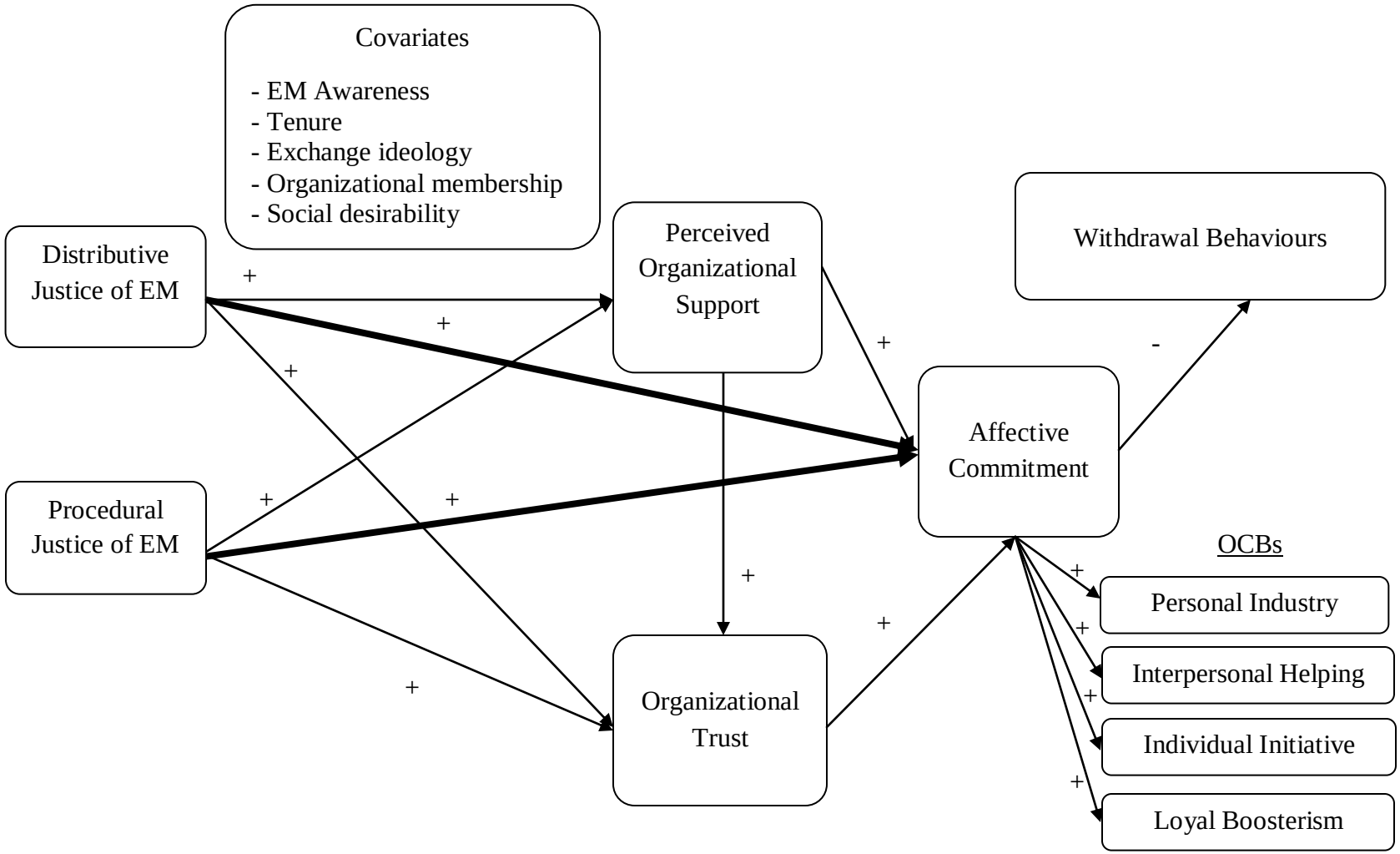

Figure 23: Summary of alternative model 4.
Note: OCBs = Organizational Citizenship Behaviours

Model 5. As previously mentioned, one typology of organizational citizenship behaviours argues that organizational citizenship behaviours can be classified into two distinct groups, those behaviours directed towards the organization (OCB-O) and those behaviours directed towards individuals (OCB-I) (Williams & Anderson, 1991). In the current study, behaviours indicative of loyal boosterism and personal industry can be classified as OCB-O, while behaviours indicative of interpersonal helping and individual initiative can be classified as OCB-I (LePine et al., 2002; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Further, these two types of organizational citizenship behaviours can have different antecedents (Karricker & Williams, 2009).

A recent trend in the organizational justice and social exchange literature posits that it is important to ensure that the level of specificity among variables matches (Lavelle et al. 2007; Lavelle et al., 2009b; LePine et al., 2002). For example, organizational justice perceptions directed towards a specific target such as the organization should be expected to relate to attitudes and behaviours directed towards the same target, the organization. In the current study, perceptions of distributive and procedural justice are directed towards how the organization uses electronic monitoring. Perceived organizational support, organizational trust, and affective commitment also measure employee attitudes directed towards the organization. These attitudes directed towards the organization should be expected to relate to those organizational citizenship behaviours directed towards the organization− in this case, personal industry and loyal boosterism. Therefore, in model 5 only two types of citizenship behaviours, behaviours indicative of OCB-Os were included in the model. All other paths in the model remained the same (see Figure 24).

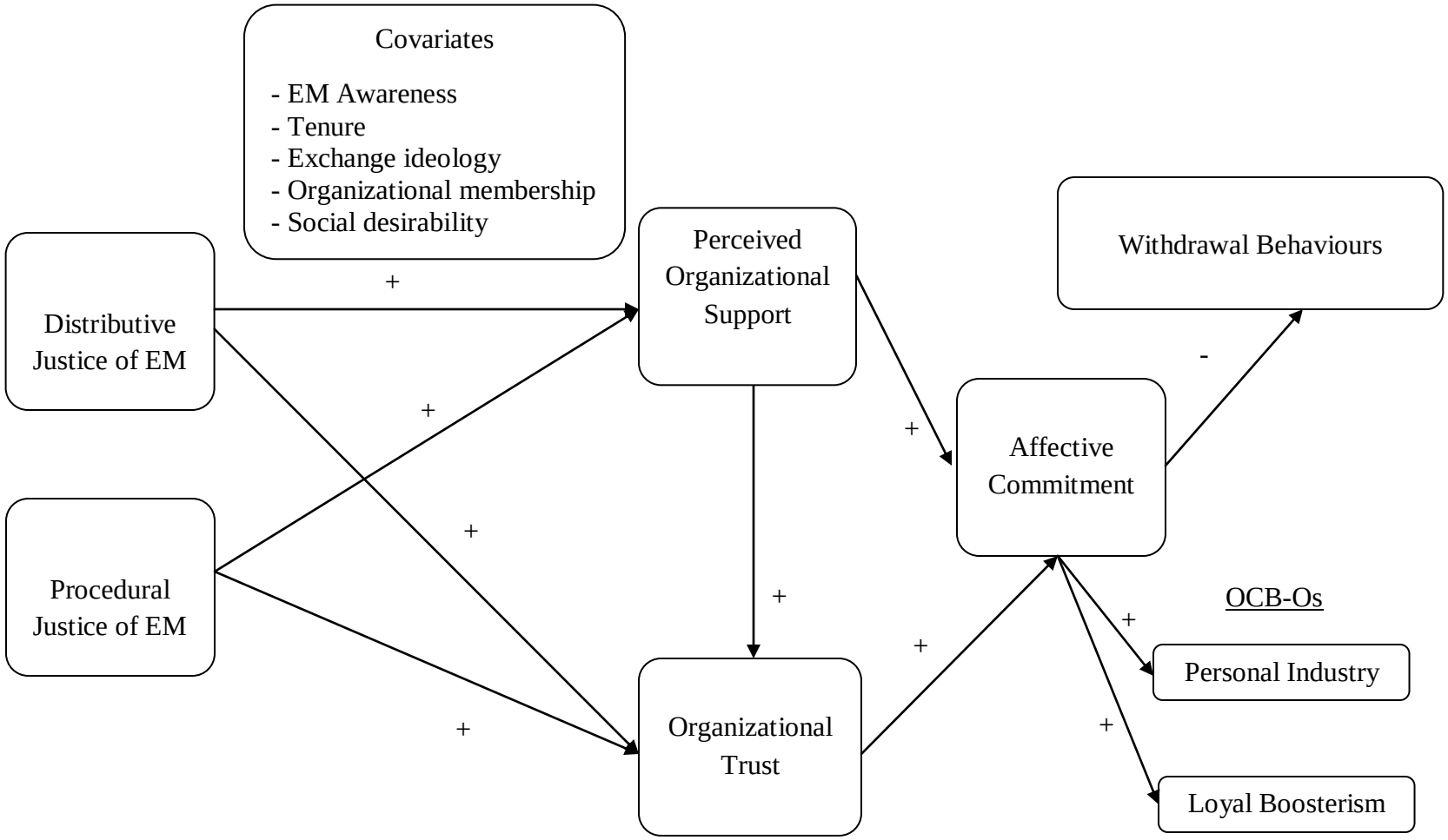

Figure 24: Summary of alternative model 5.
Note: OCB-Os = Organizational Citizenship Behaviours directed at the Organization

CHAPTER II

Methods

Participants

Employees from a municipal government located in the Greater Toronto Area, a call centre in the hospitality industry located in Fredericton, New Brunswick, and a municipal police department located in Eastern Ontario were invited to participate in an online survey. Employees working for the municipality worked full-time in a variety of different departments including: engineering, finance, human resources, information systems and technology, parks and recreation, planning, and recreation and culture. Employees from the call centre were customer service agents who were responsible for making and changing hotel reservations. Employees working for the police department also worked in a variety of different departments including: administration, community response, criminal investigations, court liaisons, dispatch, and records. Employees from different organizations were surveyed in order to obtain a sample of employees that are electronically monitored in a variety of different contexts (e.g., phone calls, email, and internet usage). Further, much of the previous research on employees' reactions to the use of electronic monitoring in the workplace has relied on the survey responses of call centre employees. Therefore, in the current study employees working in different industries, both the public and the private sector, and employees that engaged in different types of work were invited to participate. Further, employees working for these three organizations were invited to participate because their employees were likely to be aware that they were being electronically monitored.

Organizations were recruited through a combination of cold calls and

advertisements placed in online newsletters for the Ontario Human Resource Association and the Canada Contact Centre Association. These individuals were invited to participate because their organizations electronically monitor their work. For instance, the municipality electronically monitors their employees' internet usage as well as their email usage. The municipality monitors their employees on an adhoc basis in order to ensure that their employees are not misusing company time using the internet or sending personal emails. They also want to verify that their employees are not visiting inappropriate websites. Employees working at the call centre have their phone calls electronically monitored. The call centre uses these recordings when conducting performance appraisals of their employees. Employees working at the police department have their phone calls, email and internet usage electronically monitored. The police department electronically monitors their employees for legal purposes (e.g., the recording of calls for help from the public) and to ensure that their employees are using organizational resources appropriately. All organizations require new employees to read a document outlining the organization's electronic monitoring practices (i.e. what types of monitoring will be used and what behaviours will be electronically monitored).

A total of 436 full-time employees from the municipality who worked in an office setting were invited to participate. The sample was limited to full-time employees, working in an office setting in order to ensure that employees were electronically monitored. A total of 90 call centre employees and a total of 260 employees from the police department were invited to take part in the online survey. The final sample consisted of 211 employees, including: 129 municipal employees, 54 police department employees, and 28 call centre employees. Response rates were 30% (Municipality),

20.8% (Police), and 31.1 % (Call centre). These response rates are consistent with other research using online surveys to measure employee attitudes (Shih & Fan, 2009).

Participants indicated that they had worked for their current organization for an average of 10.5 years (*SD* = 8.86) and all participants indicated that they were full-time employees. The respondents ranged in age from 19 to 66 (*M* = 43.74, *SD* = 10.82). The sample consisted of 53.6% females, 42.7% males and 3.8% did not specify their gender. The majority of respondents (89.7%) identified themselves as being White/European, while 4.5% identified themselves as being East Asian/Chinese/Japanese and 1.5% identified themselves as being Black/African/Caribbean. Approximately 31.2% of participants indicated that they had obtained a Bachelor's degree, 30.2% indicated that they had obtained a college degree, and 15.6% of participants indicated that they had completed some college. Demographics for each of the three samples are presented in Tables 1 and 2 in Appendix A.

Questionnaire

Demographics. For descriptive purposes, participants were asked to provide their age and job tenure to the nearest year. They were also asked to indicate whether they worked full-time or part-time, to indicate the organization that they worked for, and their level of education. An employee's tenure has been shown to be related to variables such as perceived organizational support, affective commitment, organizational trust and both organizational citizenship and withdrawal behaviours (Van Breukelen, Van Der Vlist & Steensma, 2004). Therefore, tenure was treated as a covariate in all analyses. Finally, all participants were asked to indicate their gender and ethnicity (see Appendix B).

Filter Question. Employees were first asked to answer yes or no to the following

question: “My organization electronically monitors my work.” This was a verification check that employees are conscious of the fact that their own work activities are electronically monitored by their organization (see Appendix C). Employees answering yes to this question were then directed to the questions related to their level of awareness concerning how and when they are monitored as well as their understanding of how their organization uses any information collected through the use of electronic monitoring. Participants answering no to this question were removed from the sample. These participants were removed from the sample because they indicated that their organization does not electronically monitor their work (even though the organization does). Given that these employees indicated that they were not even aware that their organization electronically monitors their current work activities, these employees would not be able to comment on whether they felt that their organization’s current methods for electronically monitoring their unique work activities were fair and supportive. Three employees for this reason were removed from all subsequent analyses, resulting in a total sample size of 208 employees.

Electronic Monitoring Awareness. The relationship between perceptions of justice associated with the use of electronic monitoring and employees’ perceived organizational support, organizational trust, and affective commitment may be affected by their level of awareness concerning how and when they are electronically monitored by their employer as well as their understanding of how their organization uses any information collected through the use of electronic monitoring (Alder & Ambrose, 2000; Stanton, 2000a). Therefore, employees’ level of awareness concerning how their organization uses electronic monitoring was controlled for and treated as a covariate in all analyses.

Employees' knowledge and understanding of the extent to which their organizations electronically monitors them was measured using Papini's (2007) 5-item measure of Employee Electronic Monitoring Awareness and Understanding scale. Sample items include: "I am aware that my organization has an electronic monitoring policy" and "I have a clear understanding of what my organization is electronically monitoring (email, website connections, keystrokes, phone calls, etc)." Items were rated using a seven point likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) for this scale was found to be within acceptable limits: $\alpha = .80$ (see Appendix C).

Distributive Justice. Distributive justice was measured using the 3-item Distributive Justice Scale developed by Hovorka-Mead and colleagues (2002). Many of the more commonly used measures of distributive justice (e.g., Colquitt, 2001; Moorman, 1991) were designed to be consistent with conventional definitions of distributive justice that refer to the fairness of the distribution or allocation of outcomes or resources. However, the scale used in the current study was designed to be consistent with a definition of distributive justice that defines it as the fairness of the outcomes associated with the use of electronic monitoring. Further, the scale developed by Horvorka-Mead and colleagues was also specifically designed to measure participants' distributive justice perceptions with regards to electronic monitoring. Each item was rated using a seven point likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The item scores were averaged to create an index of distributive justice for each participant. Internal consistency of this scale was found to be high ($\alpha = .96$) (see Appendix D).

Procedural Justice. Procedural justice was measured using Colquitt's (2001) 7-

item measure of the perceived fairness of the procedures or decision-making process governing the electronic monitoring process as a whole. The stem was adapted from Colquitt's (2001) original scale and stated that "The following questions refer to the procedures used to electronically monitor you while you are at work. Electronic monitoring involves recording your internet and email usage, keystrokes and your telephone calls. To what extent..." Sample items include: "Have you been able to express your views and feelings during these procedures?" and "Have those procedures been free from bias?" Each item was rated using a five point likert scale, ranging from 1 (to a very small extent) to 5 (to a very large extent). The item scores were averaged to create an index of procedural justice (ranging from 1 to 5) for each participant. Internal consistency of this scale was found to be high ($\alpha = .90$) (see Appendix E).

Organizational Trust. Organizational trust was measured using Gabarro and Athos' (1976) 7-item measure of trust. This measure of trust is consistent with social exchange researchers' common conceptualization of trust. As employees' perceptions of electronic monitoring fairness were to be measured using two separate scales (distributive and procedural justice), a single item examining perceptions of fairness was excluded from this scale: "I don't think my employer treats me fairly." Each item was rated using a five point likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Items 3 and 6 were reverse scored. Higher scores indicated greater trust in the organization. Internal consistency of this scale with the excluded item was found to be high ($\alpha = .91$) (see Appendix F).

Perceived Organizational Support. Perceived organizational support was assessed using the 8-item shortened version of the Survey for Perceived Organizational Support

(SPOS) (Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli & Lynch, 1997). The shortened version of the SPOS contains the eight items with the highest factor loadings from the original 36-item version of the SPOS developed by Eisenberger and colleagues (1986). Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) found that the original long version of the SPOS was uni-dimensional and they argue that the shortened version is not problematic to use. A sample item is: "The organization really cares about my well-being." Participants indicated their responses using a seven point likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Items 2, 3, 5 and 7 were reverse scored. Higher scores indicated greater perceived organizational support. Internal consistency for the shortened version of this scale was found to be high ($\alpha = .92$) (see Appendix G).

Affective Commitment. Affective commitment was measured using Allen and Meyer's (1990) 8-item measure of affective commitment. Example items include: "I would be happy to spend the rest of my career working for this organization" and "This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me." Each item was rated using a seven point likert scale ranging from 1(strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Items, 4, 5, 6 and 8 were reverse scored. The item scores were averaged to create an index of affective commitment (ranging from 1 to 7) for each participant. Internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) for this scale was found to be within acceptable limits: $\alpha = .86$ (see Appendix H).

Exchange Ideology. An employee's exchange ideology was measured using a 5-item scale developed by Eisenberger and colleagues (1986). Example items include: "An employee's work effort should depend partly on how well the organization deals with his or her desires and concerns" and "An employee who is treated badly by the organization

should lower his or her work effort." Items were rated using a seven point likert scale ranging from 1(strongly disagree) to 7(strongly agree). Items 3-5 were reverse scored. Item scores were averaged to create an index of a person's exchange ideology, with higher scores indicating a stronger exchange ideology. Internal consistency for this scale was found to be within acceptable limits; $\alpha = .72$. An employee's exchange ideology represents the extent to which they believe that beneficial treatment should be reciprocated, the guiding principal behind the social exchange perspective and the entire proposed research model. Therefore, exchange ideology was controlled for and treated as a covariate in all analyses (see Appendix I)

Withdrawal Behaviours/Cognitions. Employee withdrawal behaviours/cognitions were measured using the 8-item scale developed by Lehman and Simpson (1992). Items were rated using a seven point likert scale from 1(never) to 7(very often). Participants were asked to indicate how often in the past 12 months they have experienced each item. Example items include: "thought of being absent" and "thought of leaving current job." Internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) for this scale was found to be acceptable; $\alpha = .80$ (see Appendix J).

Organizational Citizenship Behaviour. Organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) were measured using the 19-item scale developed by Moorman and Blakely (1995). This measure describes four dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviour: interpersonal helping, individual initiative, personal industry, and loyal boosterism. This scale was used to assess employee's self ratings of OCBs. Moorman (1991) argues that OCBs may be assessed using self-reports as many OCBs may not be performed in front of a supervisor, peer or subordinate. Thus, employees may be the only ones in a position

to accurately judge whether they have engaged in OCBs (Carmeli & Freund, 2002; Moorman, 1991; Moorman & Blakely, 1995). Each item was rated using a seven point likert scale from 1(strongly disagree) to 7(strongly agree). Sample items include: "I always go out of my way to make new employees feel welcome in the work group" (interpersonal helping), "I often motivate others to express their ideas" (individual initiative), "I always meet or beat deadlines for completing work" (personal industry), and "I defend the organization when outsiders criticize it" (loyal boosterism). The item scores were averaged to create an index for each of the four dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviour for each participant. Higher scores indicated greater engagement in organizational citizenship behaviours. This scale is among the most widely used scales used to measure organizational citizenship behaviours. Internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) for this scale was found to be .72 for interpersonal helping, .83 for the individual initiative scale, .72 for personal industry scale, and .83 for the loyal boosterism scale (see Appendix K).

Social Desirability. The 33-item true-false Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (MCSDS; Crowne & Marlowe, 1960) was included to control for participants who may have a tendency to respond in a socially desirable manner when answering self-report questionnaires. A sample item includes: "I have almost never felt the urge to tell someone off." Higher scores indicate greater social desirability bias. In the current study, participants may be more likely to indicate that they have engaged in organizational citizenship behaviours or that they trust their organization because they wish to appear socially desirable to their employer. This variable was treated as a covariate in all analyses. The internal consistency for this scale was found to be acceptable: KR-20 = .81

(see Appendix L).

Procedures

The human resources representative at the municipality and municipal police department and the supervisor at the call centre were first contacted through a combination of emails and phone calls in order to gain permission to survey this particular group of employees. All organizations were promised a summary of all main study findings.

Employees received a recruitment email inviting them to participate. This letter briefly outlined the goals of the research, introduced the researchers and informed employees that should they choose to participate, their responses would remain anonymous. This letter also contained a link to the online survey. The online survey was considered an appropriate method for collecting data on potentially sensitive subject matter such as perceptions of electronic monitoring and can be used to survey a large number of individuals (Gosling, Vazire, Srivastava & John, 2004; Kraut et al., 2004). Studies have shown that there are no differences in terms of the quality of the data collected using online surveys as opposed to collecting data by more traditional methods such as paper and pencil surveys (Gosling et al., 2004; Kraut et al., 2004).

Employees were first presented with the letter of information. At the end of the letter of information, participants indicated their consent by clicking the "I agree to participate" button. Participants were then randomly presented with one of four different versions of the survey. Each version of the survey presented the scales in a different order in order to control for any order effects. The Social Desirability Scale followed by the demographic questions were always presented at the end of each survey. In version one

of the survey scales were presented in the following order: Electronic monitoring awareness (EMaware), distributive justice (DJ), procedural justice (PJ), exchange ideology (ExchangeID), perceived organizational support (POS), affective commitment (AC), organizational trust (trust), organizational citizenship behaviours (OCB), and withdrawal behaviours (WB). In this version of the survey, measures were presented in the same order as they appear in the hypothesized model. In version two scales were presented in the reverse order of version one.

In version three of the survey, scales were presented in the following order: POS, OCB, ExchangeID, WB, EMaware, PJ, DJ, AC, and trust. Answering questions about how often they engage in OCBs may influence how often participants indicate they engage in withdrawal behaviours. Also, asking participants questions about whether they feel that their organization cares and values them may affect whether they feel the organization treats them fairly. Therefore, in version three of the survey, measures of OCBs and WBs were not presented one after the other and the measure of POS was presented at the beginning of the survey and measures of PJ and DJ were presented towards the end of the survey. Finally, in version four of the survey, scales were presented in the following order: ExchangeID, POS, WB, EMaware, DJ, PJ, trust, AC, and OCB. The order of the measures in the fourth version of the survey was randomly generated. At the end of each survey participants were asked to indicate if they had any questions or concerns regarding any of the questions or their responses (see Appendix M). Next, employees were presented with the research summary outlining the purpose and goals of the study and details concerning where participants could obtain a copy of

the study results. In order to encourage maximum participation, all participants had the opportunity to enter a draw for one of two $50 Amazon gift certificates.

CHAPTER III

Results

Data Cleaning and Diagnostics

In order to control for possible order effects, all participants were randomly presented with scales presented in one of four possible orders. A one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted to determine if survey order may have affected how participants responded to any of the variables that were to be included in the final analyses. The independent variable (survey order) had four levels (four different survey orders) and group differences were examined across the following dependent variables: procedural justice, distributive justice, exchange ideology, organizational trust, perceived organizational support, affective commitment, withdrawal behaviours, personal industry, interpersonal helping, individual initiative, and loyal boosterism. Results indicated that no significant differences for survey order existed for any of the variables of interest, Wilks' $\lambda = .847$, F (33, 386.65) = .68, $p > .05$. Therefore, because no significant differences were observed, data from the four survey orders were pooled into a single data set.

A one-way MANOVA was also conducted to compare the results based on organizational membership. The independent variable had three levels (Municipality, Police, and Call Centre) and organizational differences were explored across the following variables: procedural justice, distributive justice, electronic monitoring awareness, exchange ideology, organizational trust, perceived organizational support, affective commitment, social desirability, withdrawal behaviours, personal industry, interpersonal helping, individual initiative, and loyal boosterism. Results indicated

significant differences based on organizational membership, Wilks' $\lambda = .57$, F (26, 238.0) = .2.98, $p < .01$. Significant univariate main effects for organizational membership were found for distributive justice, F (2, 131) = 10.20, $p < .05$, procedural justice, F (2, 131) = 22.13, $p < .05$, electronic monitoring awareness, F (2, 131) = 10.87, $p < .05$, organizational trust, F (2,131) = 12.00, $p < .05$, and perceived organizational support, F (2, 131) = 3.48, $p < .05$. Pairwise comparisons indicated that participants who worked for the call center were more aware of the extent to which they were electronically monitored in their workplace and that they also rated the monitoring as being more procedurally and distributively just than participants who worked for both the Municipality and the Police. Call centre employees also had higher ratings of organizational trust and perceived organizational support than participants working for the Police department. Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations) for all variables based on organizational membership can be found in Table 3.

Past research has demonstrated that fairness perceptions are important for predicting employees' attitudes related to the use of electronic monitoring in a variety of different industries (e.g., telecommunication, manufacturing, government, education and financial) (Allen et al., 2007; Alder, Schminke, Noel & Kuenzi, 2008; Moorman & Wells, 2003; Stanton, 2000b). Further, McNall and Roch (2007) found that participants attitudes towards one type of monitoring eavesdropping (i.e., telephone calls, email) were not significantly different than their attitudes towards another type of monitoring– surveillance (i.e., video cameras, GPS, internet). Although significant mean differences between the three samples were found for both types of justice, perceived organizational support and organizational trust (see results of MANOVA described

above) these mean differences should not impact the variance and the relationships among the variables in the study. Thus, employee responses across the three organizations were combined for all subsequent analyses.

Prior to all analyses a missing value analysis (MVA) was conducted in order to determine the pattern of missing data. Results of the MVA indicated that the data were missing at random (Little's MCAR test; $\chi.^2 = 5238.84$, $p = 27$). Parameters with missing data were estimated using maximum likelihood imputations. This data imputations method is reported to show the least amount of bias (Stevens, 2002). The data were also screened for univariate outliers. Four univariate outliers were found using a cut-off of z = +/-3.29 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2006). Two univariate outliers were found for scores on loyal boosterism and two univariate outliers were found for scores on personal industry. The data were screened for multivariate outliers using a cut-off of the absolute value of 2.5 standardized deviations for standardized residuals and by using the criterion $p < .001$ for Mahalanobis Distance (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2006). One multivariate outlier was identified with the use of $p < .001$ criterion for Mahalanobis Distance. The data were also screened for influential observations using Cook's Distance with a cut-off of 1 and DFFITS with a cut-off of 2. No influential observations were found. Analyses were conducted with and without these outliers and no significant differences in the results were observed. Therefore, all cases identified as outliers were included in the final analyses.

The final sample consisted of 208 employees. Kline (2005) argues that more complex path models require at least 200 participants. Further, there should be at least 10 cases per observed variable (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). The current study meets both

of these criteria. Evaluation of scatter plots, reported skewness and kurtosis scores for all variables indicated that all variables were normally distributed. The assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity of errors were evaluated by examining residual scatter plots and were found to be acceptable. Inspection of Variance Inflation Ratios (VIF) and Tolerance values for each variable suggested an absence of multicollinearity. Also, none of the correlations between any of the variables was greater than .90.

Table 3

Means and Standard Deviations by Organization for all Variables

Variable	Organization	Possible Range	*N*	*M*	*SD*
Organizational Justice					
1. Procedural Justice	Municipality	1 – 5	98	2.30	.90
	Police		40	2.50	.94
	Call Centre		27	3.80	.72
2. Distributive Justice	Municipality	1 – 7	125	4.63	1.59
	Police		52	5.03	1.01
	Call Centre		27	6.02	1.00
Electronic Monitoring Awareness	Municipality	1 – 7	127	5.10	1.38
	Police		52	5.61	1.17
	Call Centre		27	6.23	.85
Exchange Ideology	Municipality	1 – 7	124	3.79	1.32
	Police		50	3.48	1.15
	Call Centre		28	3.78	1.40
Perceived Organizational Support	Municipality	1 – 7	125	4.99	1.30
	Police		52	4.81	1.15
	Call Centre		25	5.86	1.23
Organizational Trust	Municipality	1 – 5	124	3.64	.82
	Police		53	3.38	.72
	Call Centre		27	4.34	.83
Affective Commitment	Municipality	1 – 7	123	5.00	1.27
	Police		53	4.69	1.20
	Call Centre		27	5.18	1.05

Variable	Organization	Possible Range	*N*	*M*	*SD*
Organizational Citizenship Behaviours					
1. Personal Industry	Municipality	1 – 7	124	6.17	.70
	Police		53	6.06	.67
	Call Centre		27	6.13	.80
2. Interpersonal Helping	Municipality	1 – 7	125	5.98	.74
	Police		53	5.91	.66
	Call Centre		27	6.02	.80
3. Individual Initiative	Municipality	1 – 7	12	5.52	.87
	Police		53	5.62	.80
	Call Centre		28	5.65	1.00
4. Loyal Boosterism	Municipality	1 – 7	124	5.63	1.02
	Police		53	5.69	.76
	Call Centre		27	6.05	.90
Withdrawal Behaviours	Municipality	1 – 7	125	2.91	.87
	Police		52	3.10	.78
	Call Centre		28	2.92	.83
Social Desirability	Municipality	1 – 33	110	20.92	5.57
	Police		49	20.14	4.37
	Call Centre		28	21.40	6.30

Data Analysis

Hypothesized and Alternative Models. All hypotheses, the hypothesized model, and alternative models were tested using path analysis. Path analyses were conducted using AMOS version 19. To test overall model fit, Chi-Square (χ^2) was considered and the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), the Comparative Fit index (CFI), and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) fit indices were also considered. For the TLI and CFI, values greater than .95 indicate superior model fit (Kline, 2005). For RMSEA, values less than .05 indicate close model fit, values less than .08 indicate reasonable fit and values greater than .10 indicate poor model fit (Kline, 2005).

Control Variables. Self-ratings of variables such as perceived organizational support, organizational trust, affective commitment, and organizational citizenship and withdrawal behaviours may be influenced by the rater's need to appear socially desirable. Ratings of social desirability were therefore treated as a covariate and added to the model as an exogenous variable predicting all other endogenous variables in the model (Kline, 2005). An employee's exchange ideology represents the extent to which they believe that beneficial treatment should be reciprocated, the guiding principal behind the proposed research model (Eisenberger et al., 2001). Therefore, exchange ideology was controlled for and treated as a covariate by adding it to the model as exogenous variable with direct paths to all endogenous variables in the model. Past research has also demonstrated that tenure predicts ratings of perceived organizational support, organizational trust, affective commitment, and organizational citizenship and withdrawal behaviours. Therefore, tenure was included as an exogenous variable predicting perceived organizational support, organizational trust, affective commitment, organizational citizenship behaviours

and withdrawal behaviours. The extent to which employees are aware of how and when electronic monitoring is used in their workplaces may also influence the relationships between perceptions of justice and perceived organizational support, organizational trust and affective commitment. Thus, the extent to which employees were aware of the use of electronic monitoring in their workplace was included as an exogenous variable predicting perceived organizational support, organizational trust, and affective commitment. In order to represent unmeasured common causes, all covariates were allowed to covary with one another as well as with the exogenous variables, distributive and procedural justice (Kline, 2005). The disturbance terms for the four types of citizenship behaviours were also allowed to covary in order to control for unmeasured common causes.

A multiple-group analysis can be used to determine if model parameters or paths vary depending on group membership (Byrne, 2001; Kline, 2005). This technique requires the sample size of each comparison group to be relatively large as multiple-group analysis estimates more parameters than a single group analysis alone does (Kline, 2005; Stevens, 2002). In the current study, data were collected from three different organizations of varying sample sizes (Municipality, n = 127; Police, n = 53; Call Centre, n = 28). Therefore, given that the sample sizes of the last two organizations were small, a multiple-group analysis could not be used. Instead, a categorical variable representing organizational membership was dummy coded and included in the model as two exogenous variables predicting all endogenous variables in the model (Kline, 2005). For code 1, labelled Police in the model, participants working for the Police department were coded as 1 and participants working for the Town and the Call Centre were coded as 0.

For code 2, labelled Call Centre in the model, participants working for the Town and the Police department were coded as 0 and Call Centre employees were coded as 1. The effects of organizational membership could thus be controlled for in the model. The full path model can be seen in Figure 25 in Appendix N. The placement of all covariates did not change in any of the subsequent analyses or models.

Preliminary Analyses

The reliability coefficients for all variables are presented in Table 4. With the exception of the personal industry subscale, the internal consistencies for each of the scales were found to be greater than .72. Item 1 of the personal industry subscale ("I rarely miss work even when I have a legitimate reason for doing so") was removed to improve reliability from .60 to .72. This item may not have been pertinent to the Call centre and Police employees.

Confirmatory factor analyses were conducted using AMOS version 19 to verify the factor structure of the variables in the hypothesized model. Given that both types of justice– distributive and procedural– tend to be highly correlated, a 2-factor model was compared to a 1-factor model. The 2-factor model fit the data significantly better than the 1-factor model (see Table 5 in Appendix O).

A model in which perceived organizational support, organizational trust, and affective commitment were treated as a single factor was compared to three 2-factor models and a 3-factor model. In the first 2-factor model, perceived organizational support and organizational trust were treated as one factor and affective commitment was treated as another. In the second 2-factor model, perceived organizational support and affective commitment were treated as one factor and organizational trust was treated as a separate

factor. In the third 2-factor model, organizational trust and affective commitment were treated as one factor and perceived organizational support was treated as another. The 3-factor model fit the data significantly better than the three 2-factor models or the 1-factor model (see Table 6 in Appendix P).

The factor structure of organizational citizenship behaviours and withdrawal behaviour was compared by examining the fit indices of several models. A 1-factor model was compared to a 2-factor model (OCBs and withdrawal behaviours), a 3-factor model (OCB-Os, OCB-Is and withdrawal behaviours), and a 5-factor model (all four types of OCBs and withdrawal behaviours). The 5-factor model fit the data significantly better than any of the other models (see Table 7 in Appendix Q).

Correlations among all exogenous and endogenous variables are presented in Table 4. As expected, perceptions of procedural justice were positively correlated with perceived organizational support ($r = .44$, $p < .01$), organizational trust ($r = .48$, $p < .01$), affective commitment ($r = .41$, $p < .01$), and loyal boosterism ($r = .30$, $p < .01$). Also consistent with the hypothesized model, perceptions of distributive justice were also found to positively correlate with perceived organizational support ($r = .40$, $p < .01$), organizational trust ($r = .46$, $p < .01$), affective commitment ($r = .34$, $p < .01$) and was found to be negatively correlated with withdrawal behaviours ($r = -.19$, $p < .01$). However, contrary to the hypothesized model, affective commitment positively correlated with only one of the four types of organizational citizenship behaviours—loyal boosterism—($r = .55$, $p < .01$) and was found to negatively correlate with withdrawal behaviours ($r = -.44$, $p < .01$).

Table 4

Correlations Between Variables in the Hypothesized Model

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. PJ	*.90*	.61*	.57**	-.07	.44**	.48**	.41**	.18*	.11	.30**	.09	-.12	-.07	-.03
2. DJ		*.96*	.65**	-.14	.40**	.46**	.34**	.07	.10	.27**	-.05	-19**	.09	.11
3. EMaware			*.80*	-.18	.32**	.35**	.28**	.15*	.12	.22**	.04	-.07	.05	.07
4. ExchangeId				*.72*	-.15*	-.16*	-.07	-.02	-.14	-.13	-.05	.17*	.01	-.08
5. POS					*.92*	.75**	.67**	.12	.00	.41*	.03	-.38**	-.23**	.11
6. Trust						*.91*	.64**	.11	.06	.55**	.07	-.43**	-.28**	.22**
7. AC							*.86*	.03	.00	.55**	.13	-.44**	-.04	.12
8. IndInti								*.83*	.30**	.40**	.38**	-.09	.07	.07
9. PIndust									*.72*	.27**	.36**	-.22**	.05	.29**
10. LBoost										*.83*	.30**	-.43**	-.04	.27**
11. Interhelp											*.72*	-.14	.09	.23**
12. WB												*.80*	.17*	-.55**
13. Tenure													-	-.09

14. SD	*.81*

Note: Coefficient alpha reliability estimates are on the diagonal. *Note:* PJ = Procedural Justice; DJ = Distributive Justice; EMaware = Electronic Monitoring Awareness; ExchangeId = Exchange Ideology; POS = Perceived Organizational Support; Trust = Organizational Trust; AC = Affective Commitment; IndInti = Individual Initiative; PIndust = Personal Industry; LBoost = Loyal Boosterism; Interhelp = Interpersonal Helping; WB = Withdrawal Behaviours; SD = Social Desirability Bias. $^{*}p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$.

Evaluation of the Hypothesized Model and Alternative Models

The hypothesized model fit the data reasonably well, χ^2 (31) = 59.63, p <.01, TLI = .90, CFI = .97, RMSEA =.08. The standardized path coefficients for the hypothesized model are presented in Figure 26 and Table 8 in Appendix R. For presentation clarity, residual covariances and covariates are not included in Figure 26. Table 9 in Appendix R, provides the relationships among covariates for the hypothesized model. The hypothesized model was compared to four previously proposed alternative models (see Table 10). In Model 2, direct paths were added from both perceived organizational support to the four types of organizational citizenship behaviours as well as withdrawal behaviours (see Figure 27 and Tables 11 and 12, in Appendix S). In Model 3, direct paths were added from organizational trust to the four types of organizational citizenship behaviours as well as withdrawal behaviours (see Figure 28 and Tables 13 and 14, in Appendix T). In Model 4, paths were added from perceptions of procedural and distributive justice associated with the use of electronic monitoring to affective commitment (see Figure 29 and Tables 15 and 16, in Appendix U). Finally, in Model 5, only two of the four types of organizational citizenship behaviour were included in the model—personal industry and loyal boosterism (OCB-Os) (see Figure 30 and Tables 17 and 18, in Appendix V).

The Chi-Square Difference test indicated that Model 3 significantly fit the data better than the hypothesized model. In Model 3 direct paths were added from organizational trust to all four types of organizational citizenship behaviours (individual initiative, personal industry, interpersonal helping, and loyal boosterism) as well as withdrawal behaviours. Model 3 fit the data reasonably well, χ^2 (26) = 39.52, p <.01, TLI

= .91, CFI = .97, RMSEA =.07. In Model 5, only two types of organizational citizenship behaviours were included in the model—loyal boosterism and personal industry (OCB-Os). Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) fit indices can be used to compare non-hierarchical models, in which the model with the lower AIC can be considered the better fitting model (Garson, 2012). Examination of the fit indices for Model 5 and comparison of AIC for the hypothesized model, Model 3 and Model 5 suggested that Model 5 fit the data well and fit the data better than the hypothesized model and any of the other proposed alternative models, $\chi 2\,(19) = 37.99$, $p > .01$, TLI = .95 CFI = .98, RMSEA =.05 (see Table 10).

Table 10

Hypothesized Model Fit and Model Comparisons

Model	χ^2 (df)	$\Delta \chi^2$ (df)	TLI	CFI	RMSEA (90% CI)
Model 1: Hypothesized Model	59.63 (31)		.90	.97	.08 (.04 to .10)
Model 2: added paths from perceived organizational support to all four types of organizational citizenship behaviours and withdrawal behaviours	49.55 (26)	10.07 (5)	.90	.97	.08 (.04 to .10)
Model 3: added paths from organizational trust to all four types of organizational citizenship behaviours and withdrawal behaviours	39.52 (26)	20.11 (5)**	.91	.98	.07 (.04 to .10)
Model 4: added paths from procedural and distributive justice to affective commitment	58.88 (29)	.75 (2)	.89	.97	.08 (.04 to. 10)
Model 5: removed interpersonal helping and individual initiative and all paths leading to them from the hypothesized model	37.99 (19)		.95	.98	.05 (.03 to .08)

Note. All χ^2 are significant at p < .001; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation.

Note. $\Delta \chi^2$ (df) can only be used to compare nested models.

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Post Hoc Model Assessment

Of the five proposed models, Model 5 fit the data the best. Modification indices and residual covariances were further explored for Model 5 in order to develop a better fitting model. None of the standardized residual values was greater than 2.58, suggesting correct model specification (Byrne, 2001). Based on inspection of the modification indices a path was added from organizational trust to loyal boosterism. The addition of this path was also based upon theoretical consideration as the addition of this path would be consistent with social exchange theory as well as past research (Chen et al., 2005). Employees that trust their organization may be more likely to promote the organization's image to outsiders (Aryee et al., 2002; Colquitt et al., 2007; Wong et al., 2006).

The modified Model 5 fit the data well, χ^2 (18) = 22.59, p >.01, TLI = .98, CFI = .99, RMSEA =.04 (.00 to .08). A Chi-square difference test indicated that the modified Model 5 fit the data better than the originally proposed Model 5, $\chi^2_{Diff}(1) = 15.39$, $p <$ .001. The standardized path coefficients for the modified Model 5, the best fitting model are presented in Figure 31. For presentation clarity, residual covariances and covariates are not included in Figure 31. Table 19 provides a summary of the path coefficients for the modified Model 5.

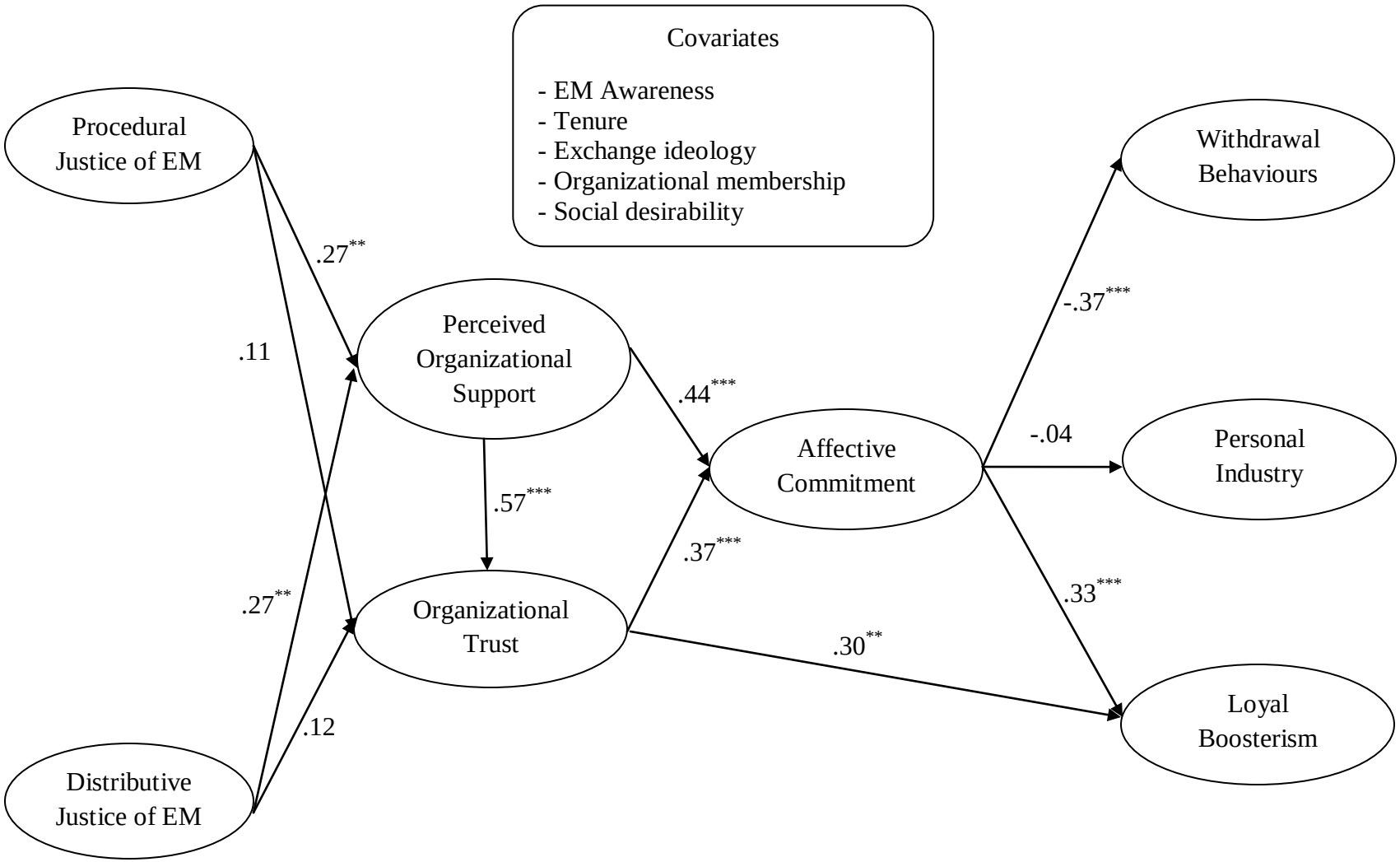

Figure 31: Modified model 5 path analysis results

Note. Entries are Standardized Path Coefficient. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$.

Table 19

Summary of Standardized Path Coefficients for Modified Model 5

Path	*B*	β	*SE*
Procedural Justice →Perceived Organizational Support	.37**	.27	.12
Distributive Justice →Perceived Organizational Support	.24**	.27	.08
Procedural Justice →Organizational Trust	.10	.11	.05
Distributive Justice →Organizational Trust	.07	.12	.04
Perceived Organizational Support → Organizational Trust	.37***	.57	.04
Perceived Organizational Support → Affective Commitment	.41***	.44	.07
Organizational Trust → Affective Commitment	.54***	.37	.12
Organizational Trust → Loyal Boosterism	.33***	.30	.09
Affective Commitment → Personal Industry	-.02	-.04	.05
Affective Commitment → Loyal Boosterism	.26***	.33	.06
Affective Commitment → Withdrawal Behaviours	-.26***	-.37	.04

Note. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$.

Control Variables

The relationships among covariates for the modified version of Model 5 are presented in Table 20. Examination of the standardized path coefficients for the control variables included in the modified Model 5 revealed that the control variable, social desirability was positively associated with organizational trust (β = .15, *SE* = .01, *p* < .001), and personal industry (β = .24, *SE* = .01, *p* < .01), and negatively associated with withdrawal behaviours (β = -.49, *SE* = .01, *p* < .001). Further, the control variable tenure was found to be negatively associated with perceived organizational support (β = -.23, *SE* = .01, *p* < .01) and positively associated with affective commitment (β = .13, *SE* = .01, *p* < .05). None of the paths leading from the control variables exchange ideology and awareness of electronic monitoring to any of the other endogenous variables included in the model were found to be significant. None of the paths leading from the dummy codes representing organizational membership were significant. This suggests that the relationships among variables did not differ based on group/organizational membership.

Table 20

Relationships Between Covariates and Endogenous Variables for Modified Model 5

Endogenous Variable	Social Desirability	Exchange Ideology	Aware of Electronic Monitoring	Tenure	Police	Call Centre
Perceived Organizational Support	.07	-.08	-.09	-.23**	-.06	-.11
Organizational Trust	.15***	-.04	.03	-.09	-.09	.05
Affective Commitment	.02	.07	.01	.13*	.08	.02
Personal Industry	.24**	-.12	–	.07	-.06	-.02
Loyal Boosterism	.13*	-.04	–	.11	.07	.03
Withdrawal Behaviours	-.49***	.09	–	.11	.04	.09

Note. Entries represent standardized path coefficients.

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Hypotheses Evaluation

Although the hypothesized model was not the best fitting model, examination of the standardized path coefficients for the modified Model 5 indicated that many of the research hypotheses were supported. A summary of all hypotheses and whether they were supported are provided in Table 21. Many of the proposed relationships in the model involved mediation. Mediation was tested by estimating and testing the total indirect, direct and total effects using the bootstrapping with replacement procedures described by Shrout and Bolger (2002). The bootstrapping technique is appropriate to use when samples are moderate to small (MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West & Sheets, 2002; Shrout & Bolger, 2002). The total indirect effects, direct effects, and total effects for each proposed relationship in the model are presented in Tables 22 to 25 in Appendix W. These effects were estimated using the boostrapping procedures in AMOS version 19. Estimates for the specific indirect effects were obtained in SPSS version 19 by using the bootstrapping macro designed by Preacher and Hayes (2008). These procedures were designed to test mediation models involving multiple mediators and independent variables and to estimate the 95% confidence intervals for each effect. Confidence intervals that exclude zero are considered to be statistically significant (Preacher & Hayes, 2008; Shrout & Bolger, 2002). A summary of the specific indirect effects can be found in Table 26 in Appendix X.

Review of the standardized path coefficients in the modified Model 5 indicated that perceptions of distributive justice and procedural justice associated with the use of electronic monitoring were both positively associated with perceived organizational support ($\beta = .27$, $SE = .08$, $p < .01$; $\beta = .27$, $SE = .12$, $p < .01$, respectively) (see Table

19). These results support hypothesis 1a-b. Consistent with hypothesis 2, perceived organizational support was found to be positively related to affective commitment (β = .44, *SE* = .07, *p* < .001). Examination of the 95 % confidence intervals for the specific indirect effects indicated that hypotheses 3a-b were supported as perceived organizational support fully mediated the relationship between perceptions of distributive justice (3a) and procedural justice (3b) associated with the use of electronic monitoring (EM) and affective commitment, *B* = .10, *SE* = .05, 95% CI (.04 to .19) and *B* = .15, *SE* = .06, 95% CI (.07 to .30) (respectively).

Hypotheses 4a-b were not supported as perceptions of distributive justice (4a) and procedural justice (4b) associated with the use of electronic monitoring (EM) were not positively associated with organizational trust. Even after controlling for the relationship between social desirability and organizational trust, perceived organizational support was found to positively predict organizational trust (β = .57, *SE* = .04, *p* < .001). This finding provided support for hypothesis 5. Hypotheses 6a-b argued that perceived organizational support would partially mediate the relationship between perceptions of distributive (6a) and procedural (6b) justice associated with the use of electronic monitoring (EM) and organizational trust. These hypotheses were not supported as the direct effects of both types of justice on trust were not found to be significant. However, both types of justice were found to have significant indirect effects on organizational trust through perceived organizational support. Thus, perceived organizational support was found to fully mediate the relationship between perceptions of distributive and procedural justice and organizational trust.

Hypothesis 7 was supported as the path leading from organizational trust to

affective commitment was positive and significant (β = .37, *SE* = .12, *p* < .001). The indirect effects of distributive and procedural justice on affective commitment through organizational trust were not found to be significant. Therefore, hypotheses 8a-b were not supported as organizational trust did not mediate the relationship between perceptions of distributive (8a) and procedural justice (8b) associated with the use of electronic monitoring (EM) and affective commitment. Both the direct effect of perceived organizational support on affective commitment, β = .44, *SE* = .07, *p* < .001 and the indirect effect of perceived organizational support on affective commitment through organizational trust were found to be significant, *B* = .22, *SE* = .05, 95% CI (.12 to .35). This provided support for hypothesis 9, that organizational trust partially mediated the relationship between perceived organizational support and affective commitment.

Hypotheses 10a-d were only partially supported as affective commitment was positively associated with only one of the four types of organizational citizenship behaviours—loyal boosterism (β = .33, *SE* = .06, *p* < .001). Even after controlling for the relationship between social desirability and withdrawal behaviours, affective commitment was found to be negatively related to withdrawal behaviours (β = -.37, *SE* = .04, *p* < .001). This finding provided support for hypothesis 11.

Examination of the specific indirect effects provided support for hypothesis 12d, affective commitment fully mediated the relationship between perceived organizational support and loyal boosterism, *B* = .12, *SE* = .04, 95% CI (.06 to .20). However, hypotheses 12a-c were not supported as affective commitment failed to mediate the relationships between affective commitment and personal industry (12a), individual initiative (12b), and interpersonal helping (12c). In support of hypothesis 13, examination

of the confidence intervals for the specific indirect effect indicated that affective commitment was found to fully mediate the relationship between perceived organizational support and withdrawal behaviours, *B* = -.09, *SE* = .03, 95% CI (-.15 to -.04).

Hypotheses 14a-d were not supported as affective commitment failed to mediate the relationship between organizational trust and each of the four dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviour: personal industry (14a), individual initiative (14b), interpersonal helping (14c), and loyal boosterism (14d). Both the direct effect of organizational trust on loyal boosterism, β = .30, *SE* = .09, $p < .001$ and the indirect effect of organizational trust on loyal boosterism through affect commitment were found to be significant, *B* = .26, *SE* = .07, 95% CI (.14 to .41). Thus, affective commitment was found to partially mediate the relationship between organizational trust and loyal boosterism. Inspection of the 95% confidence interval for the indirect effect of organizational trust on withdrawal behaviours through affective commitment provided support for hypothesis 15, *B* = -.22, *SE* = .06, 95% CI (-.34 to -.11). Affective commitment was found to fully mediate the relationship between organizational trust and withdrawal behaviours.

Table 21

Summary of Support for Research Hypotheses

Hypothesis Number	Hypothesis	Results
1a-b	Perceptions of distributive (1a) and procedural (1b) justice associated with the use of electronic monitoring (EM) will be positively associated with perceived organizational support.	1 a-b supported
2	Perceived organizational support will be positively associated with affective commitment.	2 supported
3a-b	Perceived organizational support will mediate the relationship between perceptions of distributive justice (3a) and procedural justice (3b) associated with the use of electronic monitoring (EM) and affective commitment.	3a-b supported
4a-b	Perceptions of distributive justice (4a) and procedural justice (4b) associated with the use of electronic monitoring (EM) will be positively associated with organizational trust.	4a-b not supported
5	Perceived organizational support will be positively associated with organizational trust.	5 supported
6a-b	Perceived organizational support will partially mediate the relationship between perceptions of distributive (6a) and procedural (6b) justice associated with the use of electronic monitoring (EM) and organizational trust.	6a-b not supported
7	Organizational trust will be positively associated with affective commitment.	7 supported
8a-b	Organizational trust will mediate the relationship between perceptions of distributive (8a) and procedural justice (8b) associated with the use of electronic monitoring (EM) and affective commitment.	8a-b not supported

Hypothesis Number	Hypothesis	Results
9	Organizational trust will partially mediate the relationship between perceived organizational support and affective commitment.	9 supported
10a-d	Affective commitment will be positively associated with each of the four dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviour: personal industry (10a), individual initiative (10b), interpersonal helping (10c), and loyal boosterism (10d).	10a-c not supported 10d supported
11	Affective commitment will be negatively associated with withdrawal behaviours.	11 supported
12a-d	Affective commitment will mediate the relationship between perceived organizational support and each of the four dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviour: personal industry (12a), individual initiative (12b), interpersonal helping (12c), and loyal boosterism (12d).	12a-c not supported 12d supported
13	Affective commitment will mediate the relationship between perceived organizational support and withdrawal behaviours.	13 supported
14a-d	Affective commitment will mediate the relationship between organizational trust and each of the four dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviour: personal industry (14a), individual initiative (14b), interpersonal helping (14c), and loyal boosterism (14d).	14a-d not supported
15	Affective commitment will mediate the relationship between organizational trust and withdrawal behaviours.	15 supported

CHAPTER IV

Discussion

One of the reasons organizations are choosing to electronically monitor their employees is that they want to protect company resources and at the same time manage productivity (Ariss, 2002; AMA, 2007; Ambrose et al., 1998; Bates & Horton, 1995). For instance, organizations do not want their employees spending their time surfing the web for non-work related purposes. Instead, organizations would prefer that their employees concentrate their work efforts on organizationally assigned tasks or that they ask for more work when they have completed their organizationally assigned tasks. Further, many organizations implement electronic monitoring systems without fully understanding how their employees will react to the use of such systems (Allen et al., 2007; Stanton & Weiss, 2000). Thus, the purpose of the current study was to explore how the use of these electronic monitoring systems can influence a variety of employee attitudes and behaviours. Specifically, this study aimed to explore how fairness perceptions associated with the use of electronic monitoring impacts the extent to which employees are willing to engage in two types of discretionary behaviours: organizational citizenship and withdrawal behaviours. Secondly, this study sought to explore the underlying psychological mechanisms behind why fairness perceptions associated with the use of electronic monitoring relate to organizational citizenship and withdrawal behaviours. A social exchange approach was adopted.

Overall, many of the proposed relationships in the hypothesized model were supported. Fairness perceptions associated with the use of electronic monitoring were found to be related to an employee's willingness to engage in withdrawal behaviours and

their willingness to engage in only one of the four types of organizational citizenship behaviours—loyal boosterism. Perceptions of fairness associated with the use of electronic monitoring were found to be positively associated with perceived organizational support and perceived organizational support was found to be positively associated with both organizational trust and affective commitment. Affective commitment was found to be negatively associated with withdrawal behaviours and positively associated with loyal boosterism.

EM Justice Perceptions and Social Exchange Mediators

The current study was one of the first to explore how perceptions of fairness associated with the use of electronic monitoring relates to perceived organizational support. Consistent with predictions, perceptions of procedural and distributive justice associated with the use of electronic monitoring were positively associated with perceived organizational support. Employees who feel that their organizations' electronic monitoring policies and practices are fair and supportive are more likely to feel valued by their organization. These findings are consistent with past research suggesting that fairness perceptions associated with an organizations' HR practices (i.e., pay, promotion decisions, etc.) lead to the development of perceived organizational support. For example, Allen and colleagues (2003) found that perceptions of supportive HR practices such as participation in the decision-making, fairness of rewards and providing employees with opportunities for growth were positively associated with the development of perceived organizational support. Further, the results of the current study are consistent with organizational support theory (Eisenberger et al., 1986). This theory posits that employees are prone to personify and assign their organization human like characteristics

(Eisenberger et al., 1986). As a result of this personification, fair treatment from the organization or its agents signifies to the employee that they are favoured or valued. If an employee feels that the implementation and use of electronic monitoring is fair in their organization, then they are more likely to feel that their organization values their inputs and their individual well-being. This perceived fair treatment also indicates that the organization not only values them but is committed to maintaining a social exchange relationship with them (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Organ, 1988).

Research has demonstrated that both perceptions of procedural and distributive justice are antecedents of organizational trust (Ambrose & Schminke, 2003; Aryee et al., 2002; Folger & Konovsky 1989; Korsgaard et al., 2002; Mayer et al., 1995). However, in the current study, perceptions of distributive and procedural justice associated with the use of electronic monitoring did not directly relate to organizational trust[1]. Instead, perceptions of both types of organizational justice affected trust through their relationship with perceived organizational support.

Both types of justice were expected to directly relate to trust because one of the criteria people use to determine whether they should trust someone is integrity (Mayer et al., 1995). Researchers have argued that fair treatment from the employer is indicative of the employer's integrity (Aryee et al., 2002; Chen et al., 2005). However, one reason perceptions of procedural and distributive justice may not have been directly related to

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[1] For the interested researcher, Brockner and Wiesenfeld (1996) suggest that perceptions of distributive and procedural justice interact to predict outcome variables such as trust. In the current study, no significant interactions were found.

trust, in the current study, is that when considering an organization's integrity and making judgements of trust, employees may only consider the fairness associated with job decisions that they feel directly influence their working lives such as pay or promotion decisions. Although electronic monitoring does affect how people do their work, it may not be something people consider when determining whether their organization has behaved with integrity. They may instead base these decisions on fairness perceptions associated with organizational decisions that affect more general areas of their working lives such as pay or promotion decisions.

Contrary to hypotheses, perceived organizational support fully mediated the relationship between perceptions of both types of justice and organizational trust. These results do not support past research. Only two studies in the justice literature were located that tested whether perceived organizational support mediates the relationship between perceptions of procedural and distributive justice and organizational trust. Contrary to the findings of the current study, both of these studies found that perceived organizational support partially mediated the relationship between perceptions of justice and organizational trust (Stinglehamer et al., 2006; Tremblay, Cloutier, Simard, Chenevert & Vandenberghe, 2010). Unlike the current study however, these researchers measured perceptions of justice by asking participants to indicate how fair they felt more general job decisions (e.g., promotions, scheduling, pay) were (Stinglehamer et al., 2006; Tremblay et al., 2010). The current study asked participants about their fairness perceptions associated with a specific human resource practice, the organization's use of electronic monitoring. Overall, the findings of the current study contribute to our understanding of the factors influencing trust when organizations electronically monitor

their employees. Employees who feel that the electronic monitoring practices in their organization are fair are more likely to feel that their organization values and cares about them (high perceived organizational support), which in turn makes them more likely to trust their organization.

Results indicated that perceived organizational support mediated the relationship between perceptions of distributive and procedural justice associated with the use of electronic monitoring and affective commitment. These findings are consistent with past research (Masterson et al., 2000; Wayne et al., 2002). For instance, perceived organizational support was found to mediate the relationship between employees' evaluations of several HR practices (i.e., performance appraisal, benefits, training and career development) and affective commitment (Meyer & Smith, 2000). These findings suggest that by ensuring that employees feel that the electronic monitoring practices are fair, organizations can demonstrate that they care for their employees, which then facilitates the development of affective commitment. It is important for organizations to encourage the development of affective commitment because research has demonstrated that affective commitment is related to other variables such as stress, work-family conflict and job performance (Meyer et al., 2002). Further, these findings support social exchange theory. Fair treatment from the organization indicates to the employee that the organization is committed to maintaining a social exchange relationship with the employee. In return for the fair treatment that they have received from their employer, the employee exchanges their own commitment to the organization. These findings extend previous research by demonstrating that perceptions surrounding specific HR practices such as the use of electronic monitoring can affect both perceived organizational support

and indirectly affect affective commitment.

Social Exchange Mediators

This study supports previous research indicating that perceived organizational support is positively related to organizational trust. In their review of the trust literature, Mayer and colleagues (1995) identified benevolence as being one of three antecedents in terms of the development of organizational trust. They defined benevolence as the extent to which an employee feels that the organization is willing to do good things for them as well as demonstrates a positive orientation towards their employees (Mayer et al., 1995). By demonstrating that the organization values and cares about their employees' unique contribution to the organization, the organization may be demonstrating that they are benevolent and are providing their employees with evidence that they can be trusted (Rhoades et al., 2001). Further, Eisenberger and colleagues (1990) contend that "perceived organizational support creates trust that the organization will fulfil its exchange obligations of noticing and rewarding employee efforts made on its behalf" (p. 57). These findings suggest that employees who feel valued by their organization are more likely to trust that their organization, their exchange partner will fulfil their exchange obligations of behaving in reliable and dependable ways (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Lavelle, Rupp & Brockner, 2007; Masterson et al., 2000).

Also, consistent with past research and hypothesis, a positive relationship between perceived organizational support and affective commitment was found (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Eisenberger et al., 2001; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Settoon et al., 1996). These findings are consistent with Rhoades and colleagues' (2001) two year investigation of retail employees. They found that perceived organizational support was found to be

positively associated with temporal changes in affective commitment, indicating that perceived organizational support leads to affective commitment, and not the reverse.

Consistent with social exchange theory, these findings suggest that employees are willing to exchange their commitment to the organization for the organizations' commitment to them (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Rhoades et al., 2001). According to the organizational support theory, perceived organizational support can fulfil an employee's need for approval and affiliation which may lead them to incorporate organizational membership and role status into their social identity (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). These employees then identify the organizations' well-being with their own leading them to feel a strong emotional attachment to their organization (Eisenberger et al., 2001; Rhoades et al., 2001).

As predicted, trust was positively related to affective commitment. Employees who trust their social exchange partner—their organization—are more likely to feel an emotional attachment with their organization. These results are consistent with previous research (Nyhan, 2000; Ruppel & Harrington, 2000; Whitener, 2001) as well as McAllister's (1995) conceptualization of affect-based trust. Affect-based trust involves an emotional connection between two exchange partners that is based on the care and concern they share for one another. Therefore, trusting one's employer and sharing this inherent mutual concern leads employees to feel emotionally attached to, as well as identify with their organization.

This study extends previous research by exploring the role of trust in the social exchange process. Blau (1964) contends that "social exchange requires trusting others to discharge their obligations" (p. 94). However, few researchers have examined how

perceived organizational support, trust and affective commitment operate in the social exchange process (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Tremblay et al., 2010). Consistent with hypothesis, the results indicate that trust partially mediates the influence of perceived organizational support on affective commitment. Organizational practices that demonstrate that the organization values their employees may lead employees to feel an emotional attachment with their organization as well as inspire trust. These same supportive practices that inspire trust should also encourage employees to feel an emotional attachment with their organization. In contrast, if employees feel that the organizational practices are not supportive, then the norm of reciprocity would dictate that these employees will not be willing to exchange their own commitment and develop an emotional attachment with the organization and its goals. These findings demonstrate the importance of considering trust when exploring the underlying psychological mechanisms involved in the social exchange process.

Social Exchange Mediators and Outcome Behaviours

The best fitting model, Model 5, only included those dimensions of organizational citizenship indicative of OCB-O—loyal boosterism and personal industry. These results favour past research indicating that citizenship behaviours classified as either OCB-I (citizenship behaviours directed towards an individual: individual initiative and interpersonal helping) or OCB-O (citizenship behaviours directed towards the organization: personal industry and loyal boosterism) can have different antecedents (Colquitt, 2001; Williams & Anderson, 1991; Karriker & Williams, 2009). Further, these findings demonstrate the importance of matching the level of specificity among variables and support a fairly recent trend in the organizational justice and social exchange

literature suggesting that employees develop attitudes towards multifoci targets such as the supervisor, co-workers and the organization (Lavelle et al. 2007; Lavelle et al., 2009b; LePine et al., 2002). For example, Lavelle and colleagues (2009a) found that employees' perceptions of fairness associated with three different targets— the workgroup, the supervisor and the organization—were differentially related to citizenship behaviours directed towards the workgroup, the supervisor, and the organization. They found that employees' perceptions of fairness associated with their workgroup predicted perceived workgroup support which in turn predicted citizenship behaviours directed towards the workgroup. They also found that employees' perceptions of fairness associated with their supervisor predicted perceived supervisory support and citizenship directed towards their supervisor. In the current study, perceptions of justice associated with the use of electronic monitoring, an organizationally referenced variable, were related to organizationally referenced attitudes—perceived organizational support, organizational trust and affective commitment.

Contrary to hypotheses, affective commitment predicted only one of the four types of organizational citizenship behaviour—loyal boosterism. Employees who feel an emotional attachment to their organization and its goals are willing to promote and defend the organization's image to outsiders. However, affective commitment did not affect employees' willingness to help others when help was needed (interpersonal helping), their efforts to improve individual and team performance (individual initiative) or their willingness to engage in behaviours that go beyond minimal expectations (personal industry).

Affective commitment may have predicted employees' decisions to engage in

loyal boosterism because the social exchange relationship between the employee and their organization was guided by the norm of reciprocity. As previously mentioned, the norm of reciprocity rule argues that employees who feel that they have been treated fairly by their organization will feel obligated to reciprocate this fair treatment by engaging in behaviours that will benefit their social exchange partner, the organization (Chen et al., 2005; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Eisenberger et al., 2001; Gouldner, 1960). Therefore, employees who believe that their organization's electronic monitoring system is fair are more likely to reciprocate this fair treatment by forming an emotional attachment to their organization and by choosing to promote the organization's image to outsiders.

Affective commitment may not have predicted employees' decisions to engage in behaviours indicative of individual initiative, interpersonal helping, and personal helping because employees' decisions to engage in these behaviours may instead be based upon another social exchange rule: the rationality rule. The rationality rule refers to the use of logic to determine the likely consequences of engaging in the exchange process as well the best methods for achieving desired outcomes (Meeker, 1971). Employees may believe that if they help their fellow employees (interpersonal helping) or if they work towards improving team and individual performance (individual initiative) or go beyond minimal performance requirements (personal industry) then they are more likely to be noticed by their co-workers and their employer and are therefore more likely to receive positive performance appraisals. In contrast, loyal boosterism (the extent to which an employee champions their organization) is not something the organization can directly monitor through the use of electronic monitoring or through supervisor observation.

Therefore, employees may feel that engaging in loyal boosterism behaviours may not necessarily lead them to be recognized by their organization. Thus, employees' social exchange relationship with their employer and their decision to engage in behaviours indicative of individual initiative, interpersonal helping, and personal industry may not be guided by the norm of reciprocity rule, but instead be guided by a more logical consideration of what behaviours may lead them to be noticed or recognized by their employer. Future research needs to explore the exchange rules governing the exchange process that determines an employee's willingness to engage in organizational citizenship behaviours.

Consistent with prediction, affective commitment mediated the relationship between perceived organizational support and both withdrawal behaviours and loyal boosterism. Results parallel past research (Cropanzano & Bryne, 2000; Loi et al., 2006; Masterson et al., 2000; Rhoades et al., 2001) and also favour both social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and social identity theory (Tyler, 1999). When employees feel that they are valued by the organization, they feel recognized and this recognition helps meet their needs for approval and esteem. Meeting these socio-emotional needs likely affects the employee's social identity within the organization and can in turn foster a sense of pride and belonging within their organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Employees that feel an emotional attachment with their organization and its goals are more likely to exert extra effort to advance the image of the organization to outsiders. Further, employees with a deep sense of belongingness associated with their organizational membership are less likely to reduce their active participation in the organization and engage in behaviours that can negatively affect the organization to which they belong and their membership in

that organization (Eisenberger et al., 1990).

Researchers have neglected the role of trust in the social exchange process (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Therefore, this study was one of the first to explore the mediating influence of affective commitment on the relationship between organizational trust and withdrawal behaviours. As expected, affective commitment fully mediated the influence of organizational trust on withdrawal behaviours. Employees that trust their social exchange partner to fulfil their exchange obligations are also likely to feel an emotional attachment with their organization and feel a sense of pride and belonging with their organization. Employees who are emotionally committed to helping the organization to achieve its goals are less likely to want to seek a job elsewhere, to be tardy or absent or to misuse company time (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991).

It is noteworthy that affective commitment only partially mediated the relationship between organizational trust and loyal boosterism. Organizational trust was found to be positively related to loyal boosterism. This finding is consistent with a study conducted by Chen and colleagues (2005) who found that trust directly predicted employee boosterism (e.g., making suggestions for improving the operation of the company and promoting the company to outsiders). Employees that trust their organization are more likely to help them (McAllister, 1995). Employees choosing to promote the image of their organization to outsiders are also risking their integrity by doing so. Thus, employees may only be willing to risk their own integrity if they trust in the integrity of their organization. Further, Organ (1988) argues that in order for a social exchange relationship to develop and be maintained, exchange partners must be able to

trust one another. This theory would posit that organizational trust can be considered a benefit that may be reciprocated in the form of loyal boosterism. Therefore, trust leads to cooperation between the exchange partners (Tyler, 2003). Further, employees may feel that they should respond favourably to people they trust and to those that show trust in them (Moorman & Byrne, 2005). This finding further demonstrates the importance of including trust in the social exchange process when explaining the underlying psychological mechanisms that encourage employees to engage in citizenship behaviours.

Methodological/Theoretical Implications

Much of the research on the use of electronic monitoring and employee attitudes and behaviours has not been fully grounded in theory. Researchers have not fully explored the underlying psychological processes behind employees' reactions to the use of electronic monitoring in the workplace. The results of the current study demonstrate that social exchange theory can be applied to the electronic monitoring literature. Employees form social exchange relationships with their employers. Employees may perceive fair treatment associated with the use of electronic monitoring as a benefit. These employees might feel obligated to reciprocate this fair treatment by engaging in behaviours that benefit their exchange partner—organizational citizenship behaviours.

Also, this study is one of few studies to include the social exchange mediators, perceived organizational support, affective commitment, and organizational trust into a single predictive model of organizational citizenship and withdrawal behaviours. Further, Blau (1964) has indicated that trust is an important part of the social exchange process; however, few studies have explored the influence of trust in this process. Results indicate that trust is a critical social exchange mediator. Employees who trust their organization

are willing to reciprocate fair treatment that they have received from their employer by promoting the organization's image to outsiders and refraining from engaging in withdrawal behaviours.

Much of the previous research on reactions to the use of electronic monitoring in the workplace has relied on data collected using University undergraduate students or surveyed employees who only have their telephone calls electronically monitored. In the current study, employees from three different organizations were surveyed—a Municipal government, a Police Department, and a Call Centre in the hospitality industry. Further, the Municipality and Police department electronically monitor their employees' email and internet usage. Although the relationship among the variables in the proposed model did not differ based on organizational membership, employees working in the call centre indicated that they were more aware of how they were being electronically monitored and they indicated that they found the monitoring to be more procedurally and distributively just than employees working for the Municipality and the Police department. Employees working in the call centre may be more aware of the monitoring and be more likely to feel that it is fair because the monitoring is directly linked to their job performance. Their phone calls are monitored so that these recordings may be used during the performance appraisal process to gauge their ability to provide quality customer service. In contrast, the Municipality and to some extent, the Police department use email and internet monitoring as a deterrent to future behaviour (i.e., misused time browsing the internet).

The reasons why organizations choose to electronically monitor their employees may affect how fair employees perceive the monitoring to be. For example, a study by Wells and colleagues (2007) found that when the monitoring was viewed by employees

as being used to gather performance data that would aid their development, they were more likely to perceive the monitoring to be fair than if they believed the monitoring was being used as deterrent for non-productive work behaviours. Further, they found that when the monitoring was viewed as being used for developmental purposes, it was related to higher levels of job satisfaction. Therefore, organizations may wish to carefully consider why they are using electronic monitoring.

Practical Implications

The number of organizations choosing to use some type of electronic monitoring is on the rise (American Management Association, 2007; Ariss, 2002). As the results of this study indicate, it is critical for these organizations to understand how the use of these systems will impact their employees' attitudes and behaviours. Organizations need to be aware that how they choose to use electronic monitoring can influence whether employees perceive the system to be fair. These fairness perceptions can then in turn influence the extent to which employees engage in beneficial discretionary behaviours—organizational citizenship behaviours. At the same time, how fair employees perceive these systems to be can also encourage employees to engage in other harmful discretionary behaviours—withdrawal behaviours.

It is important for organizations to encourage citizenship behaviours and discourage withdrawal behaviours because these behaviours have been shown to affect important organizational outcomes such as productivity, efficiency, innovation, and customer satisfaction (Allen et al., 2003; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Podsakoff et al., 2009: William & Anderson, 1991). Further, citizenship behaviours can serve to benefit the individual employee. These behaviours are associated with reduced stress, heightened

well-being and morale, and can lead employees to be recognized and rewarded by their organization (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Podsakoff et al., 2009).

Given the significance of organizational citizenship and withdrawal behaviours for both organizations and their employees, it is important for organizations to make every effort to ensure that their electronic monitoring systems are not only fair, but are also perceived as being fair. Organizations can promote heightened perceptions of fairness by applying organizational justice principles when designing and implementing these systems. Research on the antecedents of organizational justice and the use of electronic monitoring would suggest that organizations need to clearly inform employees of when they will be monitored and what behaviours will be monitored (Douhitt & Aiello, 2001). Organizations need to develop clear policies surrounding how they are using electronic monitoring and they need to clearly articulate these policies to their employees. As mentioned previously, organizations want to ensure that their employees are aware of these policies (Alder & Ambrose, 2005; Ambrose & Alder, 2000). They do not want the existence of the electronic monitoring system to be communicated informally, as policies communicated informally may be miscommunicated and this can negatively affect perceptions of procedural justice. Also, providing employees with a justification for why electronic monitoring is needed (e.g., recording phone calls to gauge customer service for performance feedback) and allowing employees to have a say in how the monitoring is used have been shown to increase fairness perceptions (Alder & Ambrose, 2005; Alge, 2001; Moorman & Wells, 2003; Stanton et al., 2000b; Wells et al., 2007).

Further, these recommendations are consistent with the guidelines proposed by

the Office of the Privacy Commissioner of Canada (2004). These guidelines advise organizations to clearly communicate the purpose of the electronic monitoring (e.g., measure quality of customer service performance, or defend against security threats such as viruses) to their employees. It is important for organizations to articulate why they are using the electronic monitoring because as previously mentioned, this can affect how employees perceive the monitoring, especially whether they perceive it to be fair (Wells et al., 2007).

These proposed guidelines and the research on the antecedents of fairness perceptions suggest that it is critical for organizations to take the initiative to clearly communicate with their employees about when and where they will be monitored and ultimately who will have access to this information (Office of the Privacy Commissioner of Canada, 2004). Orientation and training programs for managers as well as employees should clearly outline the organizations' electronic monitoring practices. Also, any organization considering the use of new types of electronic monitoring (e.g., internet) should first seek input from their employees (Ambrose & Alder, 2000). Some researchers have even argued that organizations could adopt monitoring readiness surveys that would allow them to determine their employees' preferences concerning the use of electronic monitoring (Alge, Greenberg & Brinsfield, 2006).

Limitations

This study has some limitations. First, all measures were based on self-report. Correlations measured using the same method can become inflated due to common method variance (CMV) (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Podsakoff & Lee, 2003). However, researchers such as Spector (2006) argue that the effects of CMV when using self-report

measures are exaggerated. Further, he contends that there is insufficient empirical evidence to demonstrate that the method itself is responsible for variance in measurement. Instead, Spector (2006) and others (e.g., Brannick, Chan, Conway, Lance & Spector, 2010) argue that researchers need to consider common causes of variables when designing their studies. For example, in the current study, relationships among such self- report variables as trust and citizenship behaviours may become inflated due to social desirability. Therefore, a measure of social desirability was included in the survey and the effect of this variable was controlled for in all analyses. Also, consistent with Podsakoff and colleagues' (2003) procedural remedies for combating CMV, in the current study, survey measures were presented in four different orders in order to control for any potential priming effects. Established measures were also used to ensure that the questionnaire did not contain any leading or double-barrelled questions (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Podsakoff and colleagues (2003) also advises researchers to obtain data using a variety of sources (e.g., supervisor ratings of performance). However, with the exceptions of organizational citizenship and withdrawal behaviours, (two behaviourally based measures) all other measures reflected employees' attitudes concerning their organization. It would be difficult to obtain data based on these variables from sources other than the individual employees (Chen et al., 2005). Also consistent with the recommendations proposed by Podsakoff and colleagues (2003) the disturbance terms for citizenship behaviours were allowed to covary in order to control for possible unmeasured common causes.

Self-report measures of OCBs were also used. Some researchers argue that self-report measures of OCBs may be positively skewed and that supervisors are in the best

position to judge OCBs (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). However, many organizational citizenship behaviours may not be performed in front of a supervisor and consequently employees may be the best judge of whether they have engaged in these behaviours (Moorman, 1991). Further, as previously mentioned the current study included a measure of social desirability to control for possible response bias.

Another limitation of this study is that the data are cross-sectional and therefore causal inferences cannot be drawn. For example, affective commitment, organizational trust and the outcomes loyal boosterism and withdrawal behaviours could be reciprocally related. It is possible that by defending the organization to outsiders, employees develop a stronger emotional attachment to the organization which makes them even more likely to engage in loyal boosterism. Longitudinal research is needed to provide further support for the nature of the relationships included in the best fitting model.

Further, when testing for mediation using cross-sectional data, the researcher is making assumptions in terms of the causal ordering of the variables. Although, the proposed models were based on strong theoretical and empirical considerations, experimental or cross-lagged data is needed to support the casual nature of the relationships among perceptions of justice associated with the use of electronic monitoring, the mediators (perceived organizational support, trust, and affective commitment), and the outcomes (citizenship and withdrawal behaviours). Given that such data were not available, modified model 5 was compared to alternative models that varied the linkages among the justice variables and mediators. For example, in one model, organizational trust was said to predict perceived organizational support and affective commitment which in turn was said to predict the justice variables. None of these models

fit the data well. This provides support for the ordering of the variables in the best fitting model.

The results of the current study demonstrate that when attempting to explain the relationship between employees' perceptions of organizational justice and their willingness to engage in organizational citizenship and withdrawal behaviours, it is important to consider employees' perceptions of organizational trust. Blau (1964) argued that the social exchange process depends on the two exchange partners being able to trust one another to reciprocate. In the current study, only employees' perceptions of trust directed towards their organization was measured. The extent to which an employee feels that their organization trusts them was not measured. However, when organizations choose to use electronic monitoring to protect company resources and at the same time manage productivity, they may be demonstrating to their exchange partner—the employee that they do not trust them. The extent to which an employee feels that their organization trusts them may impact the extent to which the employee feels that they, in return can trust their organization (Schoorman, Mayer & Davis, 2007: Serva, Fuller & Mayer, 2005). Future research is needed to explore how employees' perceptions of the degree of trust that they feel that their organization has for its employees affects employees' willingness to trust their organization. Future research could also explore the relationship between the extent to which an employee feels that their organization trusts them and the employee's organizational justice perceptions.

A multiple-sample analysis could not be conducted as the number of employees across the three different organizations was not equivalent. The number of employees completing the survey that worked for the call centre was also too small to allow for

model comparison based on organization.

A dummy coded variable representing organizational membership was included in the model and was treated as endogenous variable with paths leading to all other exogenous variables in the model (see Figure 25). None of the paths leading from these variables to any of the variables included in the model were found to be significant. This suggests that the relationships in the model were consistent across three distinct and diverse organizations. However, the inclusion of this dummy coded variable does not rule out the possibility that the overall model may vary across the three different organizations. For example, in organizations such as the call centre, the monitoring may be more salient for employees and these employees may be more likely to see the need for electronic monitoring than employees working for either the municipality or the police department. Call centre employees are reminded every time they pick up the phone that their calls will be monitored. Call centre employees may also feel that the monitoring is justified because the information collected via electronic monitoring will be used to help guide their job performance. Employees working for both the municipality and the police department are not reminded on daily basis that their internet and email usage will be monitored. These employees may also be less likely than the call centre employees to see the need for electronic monitoring in their organizations as being justified. Further, some types of monitoring may also be perceived as being more invasive than others (McNall & Roch, 2007). For instance, employees may perceive call monitoring as less invasive than other types of monitoring such as email or internet monitoring. All of the factors discussed above may influence employees' perceptions of justice associated with their organizations' use of electronic monitoring and consequently how much they trust

their organization and how much they feel valued by their organization. Future research is needed to replicate the findings of the current study by gathering data from an equal number of participants from each organization and then conducting a multiple-sample analysis. Also, the best fitting model should be verified using independent samples in other industries (e.g., manufacturing, financial, etc) while taking the type of electronic monitoring used by these organizations into consideration.

Mean ratings of organizational trust and perceived organizational support were also found to be higher in the call centre than the Police Department. This may have occurred because the call centre employees work for an organization that has a reputation for being one of the best employers to work for in Canada. Employees' mean ratings of organizational citizenship behaviours in all three samples were also found to be high (means greater than 5.5). Employees working for the call centre may be likely to engage in citizenship behaviours because they work for an organization that has a reputation for treating its employees well. Further, employees working for both the Municipality and the Police department may be likely to engage in citizenship behaviours because these organizations are located in cities that focus on preserving small town values in the face of surrounding urbanization. However, despite these differences in means, as previously mentioned, none of the paths leading from the variables representing organizational membership to any of the other variables in the model were found to be significant. This suggests that the relationships in the model were consistent across the three organizations.

Future Research Directions

The observed model in the present study is a starting point for understanding how

perceptions of fairness associated with the use of electronic monitoring relate to a variety of work related attitudes and behaviours. Future research needs to continue to develop and replicate the observed model. Longitudinal studies could be used to further examine how reactions to the use of electronic monitoring change over time. Mayer and colleagues (1995) contend that a restrictive organizational control system (i.e., electronic monitoring) can hinder the formation of trust. Thus, longitudinal research could also explore how organizations can work towards creating and maintaining trust over time as they continue to develop their electronic monitoring systems. For example, a study by Alder and colleagues (2006) investigated employees' level of trust and perceived organizational support both before and after an internet monitoring system was implemented. They found that perceived organizational support prior to the implementation of the monitoring system influenced employees' post monitoring trust, which in turn predicted their job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

In the current study, attitudes directed towards the organization (e.g., perceived organizational support, affective commitment, and organizational trust) were found to relate to only one type of citizenship behaviour directed towards the organization. Future research could also explore the relationship between justice perceptions directed towards an individual such a supervisor and OCB-I. For example, it may be possible that perceptions of fairness concerning how the supervisor uses the information collected via electronic monitoring may influence employees' perceived supervisory support, trust in supervisor, and these in turn may influence the extent to which employees choose to engage in behaviours indicative of interpersonal helping and individual initiative (OCB-Is). It remains for future research to explore how perceptions of organizational justice

associated with the use of electronic monitoring measured with reference to a specific individual such as a supervisor relate to individually referenced behaviours such as OCB-Is.

Social exchange theory posits that fair treatment from an employer can be considered a perceived benefit by the employee and that employees will feel obligated or motivated to reciprocate this fair treatment by engaging in organizational citizenship behaviours. Another possible avenue for future research and possible explanation for why affective commitment failed to predict individual initiative, interpersonal helping and personal industry is that employees did not feel obligated to reciprocate the fair treatment they had received and act upon this felt obligation by engaging in behaviours that benefit the organization. Eisenberger and colleagues (2001) have found that the relationship between perceived organizational support and affective commitment and a measure of organizational spontaneity (a composite of behaviours representing personal industry and individual initiative) was fully mediated by a measure of felt obligation. Further research on how felt obligation relates to other variables considered part of the social exchange process (e.g., organizational trust) would be beneficial to further our understanding of how perceptions of organizational justice relates to organizational citizenship behaviours.

Future research could explore how perceptions of fairness associated with the use of electronic monitoring and the relationships observed in the present study vary depending on the purpose of the monitoring (i.e., developmental, deterrent to future behaviour, or both). As mentioned previously, employees may react differently to the use of monitoring when it is used to gather information for the purpose of evaluating their performance as opposed to when it is used to ‘spy’ on them. For instance, employees may

feel distrustful of organizations that electronically monitor all of their movements, email and internet usage and their phone calls. In organizations such as these, employees may be even more willing to reciprocate this lack of fair treatment and trust by engaging in withdrawal behaviours, behaviours that can often have negative implications for the organization. Also, if an organization uses electronic monitoring for both of the purposes described above, what effect does that have on an employee's perceptions of fairness? In these organizations, will employees even care that some of the monitoring is meant to help guide and improve their performance or will their perceptions surrounding the monitoring only be guided by the fact that they feel the organization is using the monitoring to 'spy' on them?

Another direction for future research would be to examine how perceptions of privacy associated with the use of electronic monitoring relate to perceptions of fairness. Employees may perceive excessive electronic monitoring as an invasion of their privacy and they may have concerns surrounding who has access to the information collected by their organization. Alge (2001) contends that by choosing to monitor employees` every move, work related or not, employers are taking away their employees control and this can be construed as an invasion of privacy. McNall and Roch (2007) support this assertion. They found that the electronic monitoring of task related activities (i.e., number of entries per hour) was rated as being less invasive than video surveillance. Further, Alge (2001) found that the reason for monitoring (gathering performance data versus gathering performance and non-work related data) predicted employees' privacy perceptions which in turn predicted their perceptions of procedural justice.

Future research is needed to explore the relationship between privacy and

organizational justice perceptions as well as explore how privacy perceptions expectations change over time. For instance, researchers contend that privacy expectations concerning the use of electronic monitoring in the workplace are likely influenced by societal changes and the society in which they are formed (Allen et al., 2007; Levin, 2007). For example, future research could explore the extent to which people's perceptions of privacy associated with the use of electronic monitoring in the workplace are influenced by their perceptions of privacy associated with how electronic monitoring is used in other facets of society (e.g., the use of video surveillance in downtown London, England).

Further, privacy expectations concerning the use of electronic monitoring in the workplace may also vary from generation to generation (Allen at al., 2007). Generation Z (the Net Generation, born in or after 1990), for instance, may have different expectations concerning their right to privacy in the workplace when compared to previous generations (Allen et al., 2007). The current generation has grown up using electronic modes of communication such as Facebook™, Twitter™ and other forms of social networking to share personal information with anyone with access to the internet. When this generation fully enters the workforce, will they perceive the electronic monitoring of their personal communications, such as email and telephone calls by their employer to be an invasion of privacy? It remains for future research to explore the process through which privacy expectations with regards to the use of electronic monitoring in the workplace form and develop overtime as well as how societal changes and trends influence these perceptions.

Conclusion

As technology continues to advance, organizations will be presented with new ways to electronically gather information concerning not only their employees work related behaviours but their non-work related behaviours as well. Further, the number of organizations choosing to electronically monitor their employees is on the rise. However, few organizations take the time to consider how they will use these systems, what information they will gather, who will have access to this information, and ultimately how their employees will react. Organizations need to understand how electronic monitoring will affect their employees` attitudes and behaviours. They need to recognize that the use of electronic monitoring may serve to prevent employees from misusing company time and resources (i.e., surfing the web); however, it also encourages or discourages other types of discretionary behaviours that can serve to benefit or harm the organization—citizenship and withdrawal behaviours. The use of these systems can affect employee attitudes and behaviours in ways that run counter to the organization's interests and reasons for using these systems.

Given the increasing interest in the use of electronic monitoring, it is hoped that the results of the current study will serve to encourage organizations to carefully consider how they are using electronic monitoring and to be cognizant of the psychological mechanisms through which these systems can affect important employee attitudes and behaviours—citizenship and withdrawal behaviours. Organizations choosing to electronically monitor their employees need to work towards maintaining and developing a work environment that not only fosters employee development and productivity but one that also leads employees to trust their employer`s intentions and feel supported.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Table 1

Demographics: Tenure and Age by Organization

Variable	Organization	*N*	*M*	*SD*
Tenure	Municipality	117	9.8	8.0
	Police	52	15.9	8.3
	Call Centre	25	2.6	3.0
Age	Municipality	119	45.1	11.1
	Police	52	45.0	7.1
	Call Centre	27	34.0	10.2

Table 2

Demographics: Education, Ethnicity, and Gender by Organization

Variable	Organization		
	Municipality	Police	Call Centre
Education			
Less than high school or equivalent	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (3.6)
High school or equivalent	5 (3.9)	3 (5.7)	7 (25.0)
Vocational/technical school	1 (0.8)	1 (1.9)	1 (3.6)
Some college	15 (11.8)	11 (20.8)	8 (28.6)
College degree	35 (27.6)	21 (39.6)	4 (14.3)
Bachelor's degree	43 (33.9)	15 (28.3)	5 (17.9)
Master's degree	19 (15)	1 (1.9)	1 (3.6)
Doctoral degree	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Professional degree (e.g., MD)	3 (2.4)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Did not specify	6 (4.7)	1 (1.9)	1 (3.6)
Ethnicity			
White/European	101 (79.5)	49 (92.5)	25 (89.3)

Arab/Middle Eastern	1 (0.8)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Black/African/Caribbean	2 (1.6)	1 (1.9)	0 (0)
East Asian/Chinese/Japanese	8 (6.3)	1 (1.9)	0 (0)
Latin/South American	1 (0.8)	0 (0)	0 (0)
South Asian/Indian/Pakistani	2 (1.6)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Aboriginal/First Nations	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Did not specify	8 (6.3)	2 (3.8)	3 (10.7)
Gender			
Female	61 (48.0)	27 (50.9)	24 (85.7)
Male	60 (47.2)	25 (47.2)	3 (10.7)
Did not specify	6 (4.7)	1 (1.9)	1 (3.6)

Note. Entries are total number of responses, percentage of respondents are in parentheses.

Appendix B

Demographics

The following questions ask about your background. Please answer as honestly and as accurately as possible.

1. What is your age?: _____ (nearest year)

2. What is your gender?: _____ (e.g., female)

3. To what racial or ethnic group do you belong?

- Aboriginal/First Nations
- Arab/Middle Eastern
- Black/African/Caribbean
- East Asian/ Chinese/ Japanese
- Latin/South American
- South Asian/Indian/Pakistani
- White/European
- Other (please specify): _____

5. What is the highest level of education that you have obtained (please check only one)?

- Less than high school
- High school or equivalent
- Vocational/technical school
- Some college
- College
- Bachelor's degree
- Master's degree
- Doctoral degree
- Professional degree (e.g., MD)
- Other (please specify): _____

6. How long have you worked for your current organization? _____ (years)

7. What is your current job position or job title? _____

8. Are you currently a part-time or full-time employee? (Please circle)

- □ Part-time
- □ Full-time
- □ Other (please specify): _____

9. Please indicate the name of your current organization _____.

10. What department do you work for? _____.

Appendix C

Electronic Monitoring Awareness

Please indicate the extent to which you AGREE or DISAGREE with each of the following statements. Please choose from the following answers:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

Please circle the appropriate number:

1.	I am aware that my organization has an electronic monitoring policy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	I understand there are potential consequences for employees (getting reprimanded, demoted, and fired) for using company property inappropriately (e.g., using internet and e-mail for personal reasons).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	I do not understand why my organization conducts electronic monitoring (R).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	I have a clear understanding of what my organization is electronically monitoring (email, website connections, keystrokes, phone calls, etc).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	I am aware of how my organization is electronically monitoring its employees (e.g.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

through the use
software, video,
telephone, etc).

Please answer YES or NO to the following question:

Please circle the appropriate choice:

1. My organization electronically monitors my work: YES NO

Appendix D

Distributive Justice

The following questions refer to the consequences or outcomes associated with the use of electronic monitoring used to monitor you while at work. Electronic monitoring involves recording your internet and e-mail usage, keystrokes and your telephone calls. Please indicate the extent to which you AGREE or DISAGREE with each of the following statements. Please choose from the following answers:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

Please circle the appropriate number:

1.	I feel that the outcomes of electronic monitoring are fair.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	I am satisfied with the outcomes of electronic monitoring.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	I feel that the outcomes associated with the use of electronic monitoring are appropriate.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix E

Procedural Justice

The following questions refer to the procedures used to electronically monitor you while you are at work. Electronic monitoring involves recording your internet and email usage, keystrokes and your telephone calls. Read each statement carefully and then circle the appropriate number.

1	2	3	4	5
To a very small extent	To a small extent	To some extent	To a large extent	To a very large extent

To what extent…

1. Have you been able to express your views and feelings concerning the electronic monitoring procedures?	1	2	3	4	5
2. Have you had influence over the outcomes arrived at by the use of electronic monitoring procedures?	1	2	3	4	5
3. Have the electronic monitoring procedures been applied consistently?	1	2	3	4	5
4. Have the electronic monitoring procedures been free from bias?	1	2	3	4	5
5. Have the electronic monitoring procedures been based on accurate information?	1	2	3	4	5
6. Have you been able to appeal any outcomes arrived at by the use of these electronic monitoring procedures?	1	2	3	4	5

7. Have the electronic monitoring procedures upheld ethical and moral standards?	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix F

Organizational Trust

Please indicate the extent to which you AGREE or DISAGREE with each of the following statements. Please choose from the following answers:

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

Please circle the appropriate number:

1. I believe that my organization has high integrity.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I can expect my organization to treat me in a consistent and predictable fashion.	1	2	3	4	5
3. My organization is not always honest and truthful (R).	1	2	3	4	5
4. In general, I believe my organization's motives and intentions are good.	1	2	3	4	5
5. My organization is open and upfront with me.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I'm not sure I fully trust my organization (R).	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix G

Perceived Organizational Support

Listed below are statements that represent possible opinions that YOU may have about working at your current organization. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by filling in the circle that best represents your point of view about your organization. Please choose from the following answers:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

Please circle the appropriate number:

1. This organization values my contribution to its well-being.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me (R).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. The organization would ignore any complaint from me (R).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. The organization really cares about my well-being.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice (R).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

6. The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. The organization shows very little concern for me (R).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix H

Affective Commitment

Please indicate the extent to which you AGREE or DISAGREE with each of the following statements. Please choose from the following answers:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

Please circle the appropriate number:

1.	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside of it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	I think I could become as easily attached to another organization as I am to this one (R).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	I do not feel emotionally attached to this organization (R).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	I do not feel like a part of the family at my organization (R).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	This organization has a great deal of	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	personal meaning for me.							
8.	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization (R).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix I

Exchange Ideology

Please indicate the extent to which you AGREE or DISAGREE with each of the following statements. Please choose from the following answers:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

Please circle the appropriate number:

1.	An employee's work effort should depend partly on how well the organization deals with his or her desires or concerns.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	An employee who is treated badly by the organization should lower his or her work effort.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	How hard an employee works should not be affected by how well the organization treats him or her (R).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	An employee's work effort should have nothing to do with the fairness of his or her pay (R).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	The failure of an organization to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

appreciate an employee's contribution should not affect how hard she or he works (R).	

Appendix J

Withdrawal Behaviours

Please indicate using the scale provided how often you have experienced each of the following during the past 12 months.

Please choose from the following answers:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Very Rarely	Rarely	Occasionally	Somewhat Often	Often	Very Often

In the past 12 months, how often have you……?

Please circle the appropriate number:

1.	Thought of being absent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	Chatted with co-workers about nonwork topics.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	Left work situation for unnecessary reasons.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	Daydreamed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	Spent time on personal matters.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	Put less effort in the job than should have.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	Thought of leaving current job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	Let others do your work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix K

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Please indicate the extent to which you AGREE or DISAGREE with each of the following statements. Please choose from the following answers:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

Please circle the appropriate number:

1.	I go out of my way to help co-workers with work-related problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	I voluntarily help new employees settle into the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	I frequently adjust my work schedule to accommodate other employee's requests for time-off.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	I always go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	I show genuine concern and courtesy toward co-workers, even under the most trying business or personal situations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	For issues that may have serious consequences, I express my	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

opinions honestly even when other may disagree.							
7. I often motivate others to express their ideas and opinions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I encourage others to try new and more effective ways of doing their job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I encourage hesitant or quiet co-workers to voice their opinions when they otherwise might not speak-up.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I frequently communicate to co-workers suggestions on how the group can improve.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I rarely miss work even when I have a legitimate reason for doing so.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I perform my duties with usually few errors.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. I perform my job duties with extra-special care.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. I always meet or beat deadlines for completing work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I defend the organization when other employees criticize it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I encourage friends and family	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

to utilize organizations products.							
17. I defend the organization when outsiders criticize it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I show pride when representing the organization in public.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I actively promote the organization's products and services to potential users.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix L

Social Desirability

Listed below are a number of statements concerning personal attitudes and traits. Read each item and decide whether the statement is *true* or *false* as it pertains to you personally.

Please answer either True or False

	True	False
1. Before voting I thoroughly investigate the qualifications of all the candidates.	□	□
2. I never hesitate to go out of my way to help someone in trouble.	□	□
3. It is sometimes hard for me to go on with my work if I am not encouraged.	□	□
4. I have never intensely disliked anyone.	□	□
5. On occasion I have had doubts about my ability to succeed in life.	□	□
6. I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way.	□	□
7. I am always careful about my manner of dress.	□	□
8. My table manners at home are as good as when I eat out in a restaurant.	□	□
9. If I could get into a movie without paying and be sure I was not seen I would probably do it.	□	□
10. On a few occasions, I have given up doing something because I thought too little of my ability.	□	□
11. I like to gossip at times.	□	□
12. There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority even though I knew they were right.	□	□
13. No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a good listener.	□	□
14. I can remember "playing sick" to get out of something.	□	□

15. There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone.	□	□
16. I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake.	□	□
17. I always try to practice what I preach.	□	□
18. I don't find it particularly difficult to get along with loud mouthed, obnoxious people.	□	□
19. I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget.	□	□
20. When I don't know something I don't at all mind admitting it.	□	□
21. I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable.	□	□
22. At times I have really insisted on having things my own way.	□	□
23. There have been occasions when I felt like smashing things.	□	□
24. I would never think of letting someone else be punished for my wrongdoings.	□	□
25. I never resent being asked to return a favour.	□	□
26. I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own.	□	□
27. I never make a long trip without checking the safety of my car.	□	□
28. There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others.	□	□
29. I have almost never felt the urge to tell someone off.	□	□
30. I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favours of me.	□	□
31. I have never felt that I was punished without cause.	□	□
32. I sometimes think when people have a misfortune they only got what they deserved.	□	□
33. I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.	□	□

Appendix M

Comments

Sometimes participants have concerns regarding their responses to some questions (e.g., they misunderstood a question, no option was available that properly captured their answer, etc.). If you have such concerns or if there is anything else you would like us to know about your experiences with electronic monitoring please feel free to let us know in the space below (Approx. 400 characters). No one will contact you as a result of any comments you make.

_____

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Appendix N

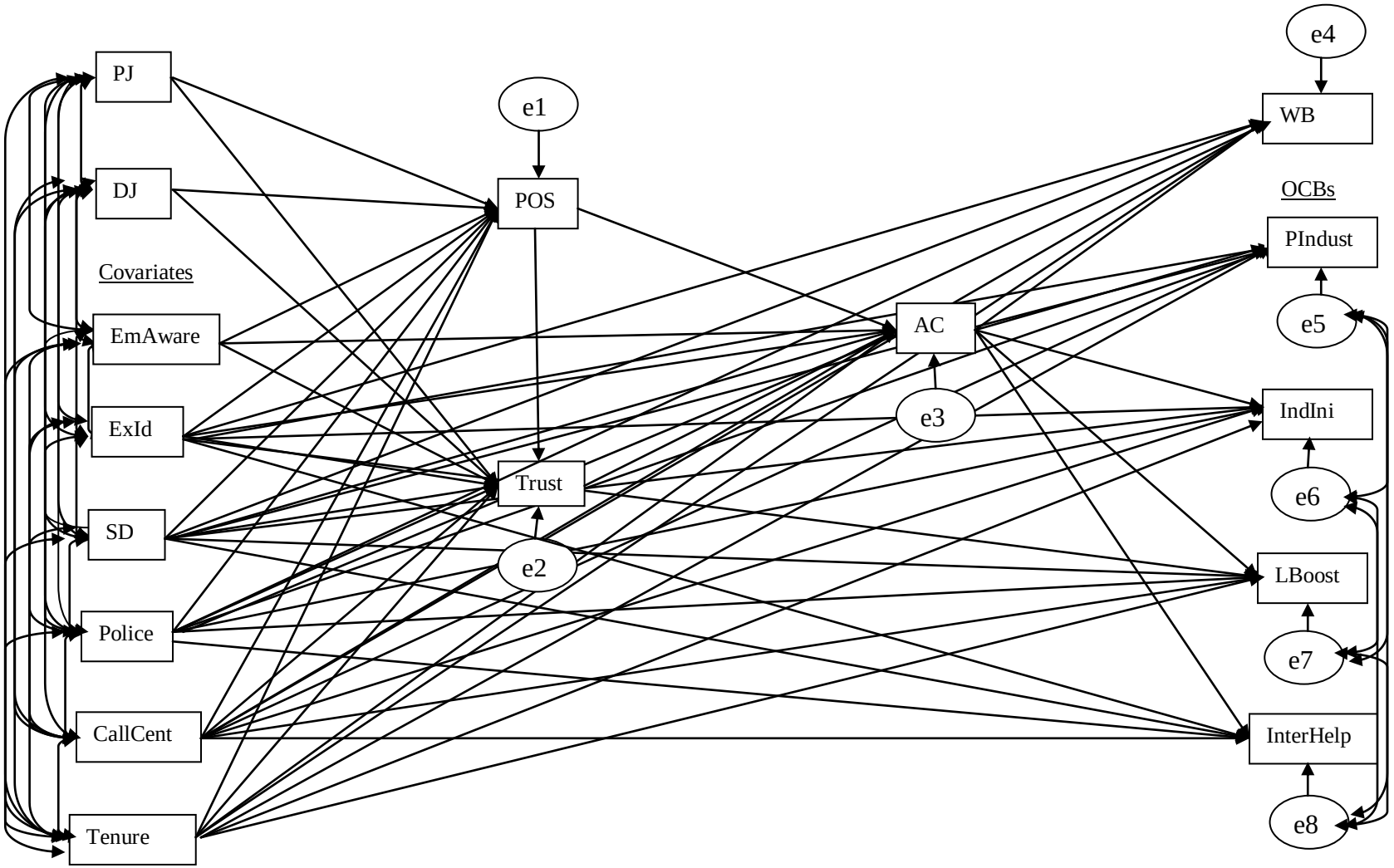
PJ
DJ
Covariates
EmAware
ExId
SD
Police
CallCent
Tenure
e1
POS
Trust
e2
AC
e3
e4
WB
OCBs
PIndust
e5
IndIni
e6
LBoost
e7
InterHelp
e8

Figure 25: Full path model with covariates for hypothesized model

Note: PJ = Procedural Justice; DJ = Distributive Justice; EmAware = Electronic Monitoring Awareness; ExId = Exchange Ideology; SD = Social Desirability Bias; Police = Dummy code 1 for organizational membership; Call Centre = Dummy code 2 for organizational membership; POS = Perceived Organizational Support; Trust = Organizational Trust; AC = Affective Commitment; WB = Withdrawal Behaviours; PIndust = Personal Industry; IndIni = Individual Initiative; LBoost = Loyal Boosterism; InterHelp = Interpersonal Helping.

Appendix O

Table 5

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for Organizational Justice

Model	χ^2 (df)	TLI	CFI	RMSEA (90% CI)
1-factor model	617.72 (35)	.55	.65	.28 (.26 to .30)
2-factor model	133.15 (34)	.93	.95	.09 (.10 to .14)

Note. All χ^2 are significant at $p < .001$; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation.

Appendix P

Table 6

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for Mediator Variables

Model	χ^2 (df)	TLI	CFI	RMSEA (90% CI)
1-factor model	896.64 (209)	.74	.77	.13 (.12 to .14)
2-factor model (POS/Trust & AC)	716.52 (208)	.81	.83	.11 (.10 to .12)
2-factor model (POS/AC & Trust)	739.65 (208)	.80	.82	.11 (.10 to .12)
2-factor model (AC/Trust & POS)	775.19 (208)	.79	.81	.12 (.11 to .12)
3-factor model	566.87 (206)	.91	.92	.08 (.07 to .10)

Note. All χ^2 are significant at $p < .001$; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation.

Note. POS = Perceived Organizational Support; Trust = Organizational Trust; AC = Affective Commitment.

Appendix Q

Table 7

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for Outcome Variables

Model	χ^2 (df)	TLI	CFI	RMSEA (90% CI)
1-factor model	1393.20 (299)	.38	.43	.13 (.12 to .14)
2-factor model (OCBs & WB)	1054.41 (298)	.57	.60	.11 (.10 to .12)
3-factor model (OCB-Os, OCB-Is & WB)	821.41 (296)	.70	.73	.09 (.08 to .10)
5-factor model	534.64 (289)	.91	.91	.06 (.05 to .07)

Note. All χ^2 are significant at $p < .001$; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation.

Note. OCBs = Organizational Citizenship Behaviours; WB = Withdrawal Behaviours; OCB-Is = Organizational Citizenship Behaviours directed towards an individual (individual initiative, interpersonal helping); OCB-Os = Organizational Citizenship Behaviours directed towards the organization (personal industry, loyal boosterism).

Appendix R

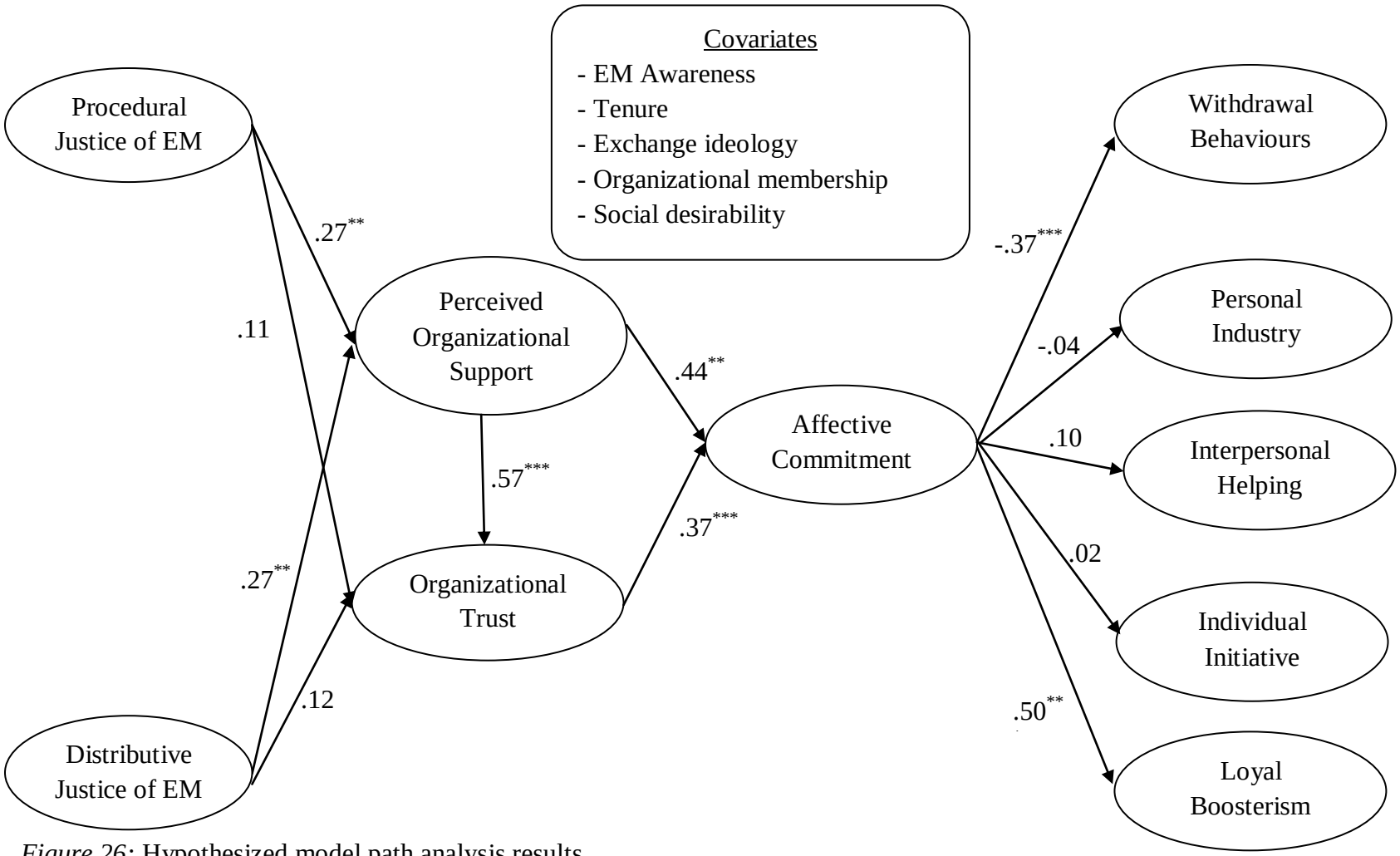

Figure 26: Hypothesized model path analysis results

Note. Entries are Standardized Path Coefficient. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$.

Please see Table 4 for the Standardized Path Coefficients for the covariates for the Hypothesized model

Table 8

Summary of Standardized Path Coefficients for Hypothesized Model

Path	*B*	β	*SE*
Procedural Justice → Perceived Organizational Support	.37**	.27	.12
Distributive Justice → Perceived Organizational Support	.24**	.27	.08
Procedural Justice → Organizational Trust	.10	.11	.05
Distributive Justice → Organizational Trust	.07	.12	.04
Perceived Organizational Support → Organizational Trust	.37***	.57	.04
Perceived Organizational Support → Affective Commitment	.41***	.44	.07
Organizational Trust → Affective Commitment	.54***	.37	.12
Affective Commitment → Personal Industry	-.02	-.04	.05
Affective Commitment → Loyal Boosterism	.39***	.50	.05
Affective Commitment → Interpersonal Helping	.06	.10	.04
Affective Commitment → Individual Initiative	.01	.02	.05
Affective Commitment → Withdrawal Behaviours	-.26***	-.37	.04

Note. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$.

Table 9

Relationships Between Covariates and Endogenous Variables for Hypothesized Model

Endogenous Variable	Social Desirability	Exchange Ideology	Aware of Electronic Monitoring	Tenure	Police	Call Centre
Perceived Organizational Support	.07	-.08	-.09	-.23**	-.06	-.11
Organizational Trust	.15***	-.04	.03	-.09	-.09	.05
Affective Commitment	.02	.07	.01	.13*	.08	.00
Personal Industry	.25**	-.12	–	.07	-.10	.01
Loyal Boosterism	.13*	-.08	–	.03	.01	.09
Interpersonal Helping	.20**	-.04	–	.15*	-.09	.05
Individual Initiative	.07	-.02	–	.09	.03	.07
Withdrawal Behaviours	-.50***	.09	–	.11	.05	.10

Note. Entries represent standardized path coefficients.
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$

Appendix S

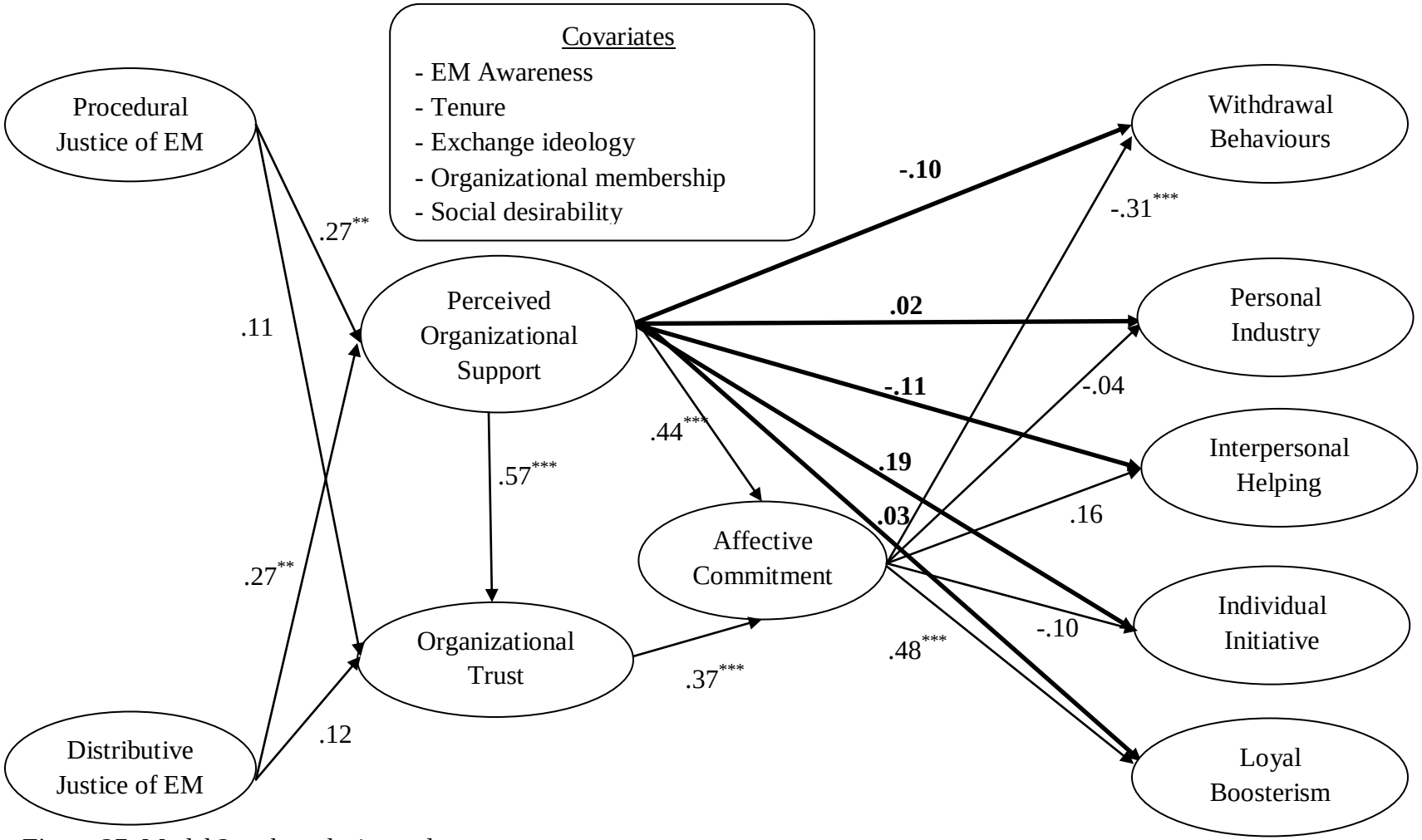

Figure 27: Model 2 path analysis results

Note. Entries are Standardized Path Coefficient. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$.

Please see Table 7 for the Standardized Path Coefficients for the covariates for Model 2

Table 11

Summary of Standardized Path Coefficients for Model 2

Path	*B*	β	*SE*
Procedural Justice → Perceived Organizational Support	.37**	.27	.12
Distributive Justice → Perceived Organizational Support	.24**	.27	.08
Procedural Justice → Organizational Trust	.10	.11	.05
Distributive Justice → Organizational Trust	.07	.12	.04
Perceived Organizational Support → Organizational Trust	.37***	.57	.04
Perceived Organizational Support → Affective Commitment	.41***	.44	.07
Organizational Trust → Affective Commitment	.54***	.37	.12
Perceived Organizational Support →Personal Industry	.01	.02	.01
Perceived Organizational Support →Loyal Boosterism	.02	.03	.06
Perceived Organizational Support →Interpersonal Helping	-.06	-.11	.05
Perceived Organizational Support →Individual Initiative	.12	.19	.06
Perceived Organizational Support →Withdrawal Behaviours	-.06	-.10	.05
Affective Commitment → Personal Industry	-.02	-.04	.05
Affective Commitment → Loyal Boosterism	.38***	.48	.06
Affective Commitment → Interpersonal Helping	.10	.16	.05
Affective Commitment → Individual Initiative	-.07	-.10	.07
Affective Commitment → Withdrawal Behaviours	-.21***	-.31	.05

Note. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$.

Table 12

Relationships Between Covariates and Endogenous Variables for Model 2

Endogenous Variable	Social Desirability	Exchange Ideology	Aware of Electronic Monitoring	Tenure	Police	Call Centre
Perceived Organizational Support	.08	-.08	.01	-.23**	-.06	-.11
Organizational Trust	.15***	-.04	.03	-.09	-.09	.05
Affective Commitment	.02	.07	.07	.13*	.08	.02
Personal Industry	.24**	-.12	–	.07	-.10	.01
Loyal Boosterism	.18*	-.08	–	.04	.02	.09
Interpersonal Helping	.20**	-.04	–	.14	-.09	.05
Individual Initiative	.06	.01	–	.12	.04	.06
Withdrawal Behaviours	-.50***	.08	–	.10	.04	.10

Note. Entries represent standardized path coefficients.
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$

Appendix T

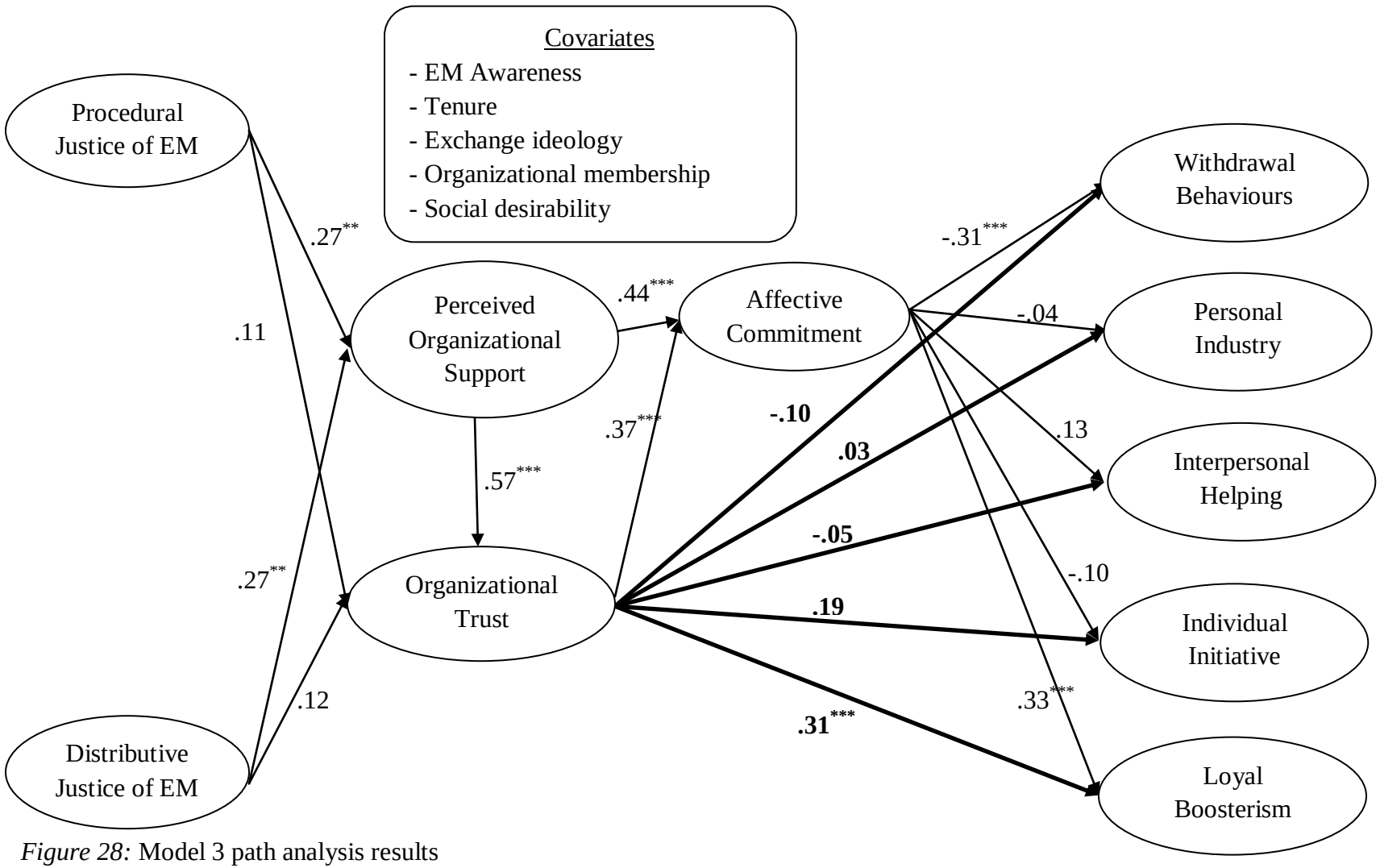

Figure 28: Model 3 path analysis results

Note. Entries are Standardized Path Coefficient. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$.

Please see Table 9 for the Standardized Path Coefficients for the covariates for Model 3.

Table 13

Summary of Standardized Path Coefficients for Model 3

Path	*B*	β	*SE*
Procedural Justice →Perceived Organizational Support	.37**	.27	.12
Distributive Justice →Perceived Organizational Support	.24**	.27	.08
Procedural Justice →Organizational Trust	.10	.11	.05
Distributive Justice →Organizational Trust	.07	.12	.04
Perceived Organizational Support → Organizational Trust	.37***	.57	.04
Perceived Organizational Support → Affective Commitment	.41***	.44	.07
Organizational Trust → Affective Commitment	.54***	.37	.12
Organizational Trust →Personal Industry	.02	.03	.08
Organizational Trust →Loyal Boosterism	.35***	.31	.09
Organizational Trust →Interpersonal Helping	-.05	-.05	.08
Organizational Trust →Individual Initiative	.19	.19	.10
Organizational Trust →Withdrawal Behaviours	-.10	-.10	.07
Affective Commitment → Personal Industry	-.03	-.04	.05
Affective Commitment → Loyal Boosterism	.25***	.33	.05
Affective Commitment → Interpersonal Helping	.07	.13	.05
Affective Commitment → Individual Initiative	-.07	-.10	.07
Affective Commitment → Withdrawal Behaviours	-.21***	-.31	.05

Note. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$.

Table 14

Relationships Between Covariates and Endogenous Variables for Model 3

Endogenous Variable	Social Desirability	Exchange Ideology	Aware of Electronic Monitoring	Tenure	Police	Call Centre
Perceived Organizational Support	.07	-.08	.01	-.23**	-.06	-.11
Organizational Trust	.15***	-.04	-.04	-.09	-.09	.05
Affective Commitment	.02	.07	.01	.13*	.08	.02
Personal Industry	.24**	-.12	–	.12	-.09	.01
Loyal Boosterism	.13*	-.04	–	.07	.05	.04
Interpersonal Helping	.20**	-.04	–	.14	-.09	.05
Individual Initiative	.04	.01	–	.11	.04	.06
Withdrawal Behaviours	-.49***	.08	–	.10	.04	.11

Note. Entries represent standardized path coefficients.
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$

Appendix U

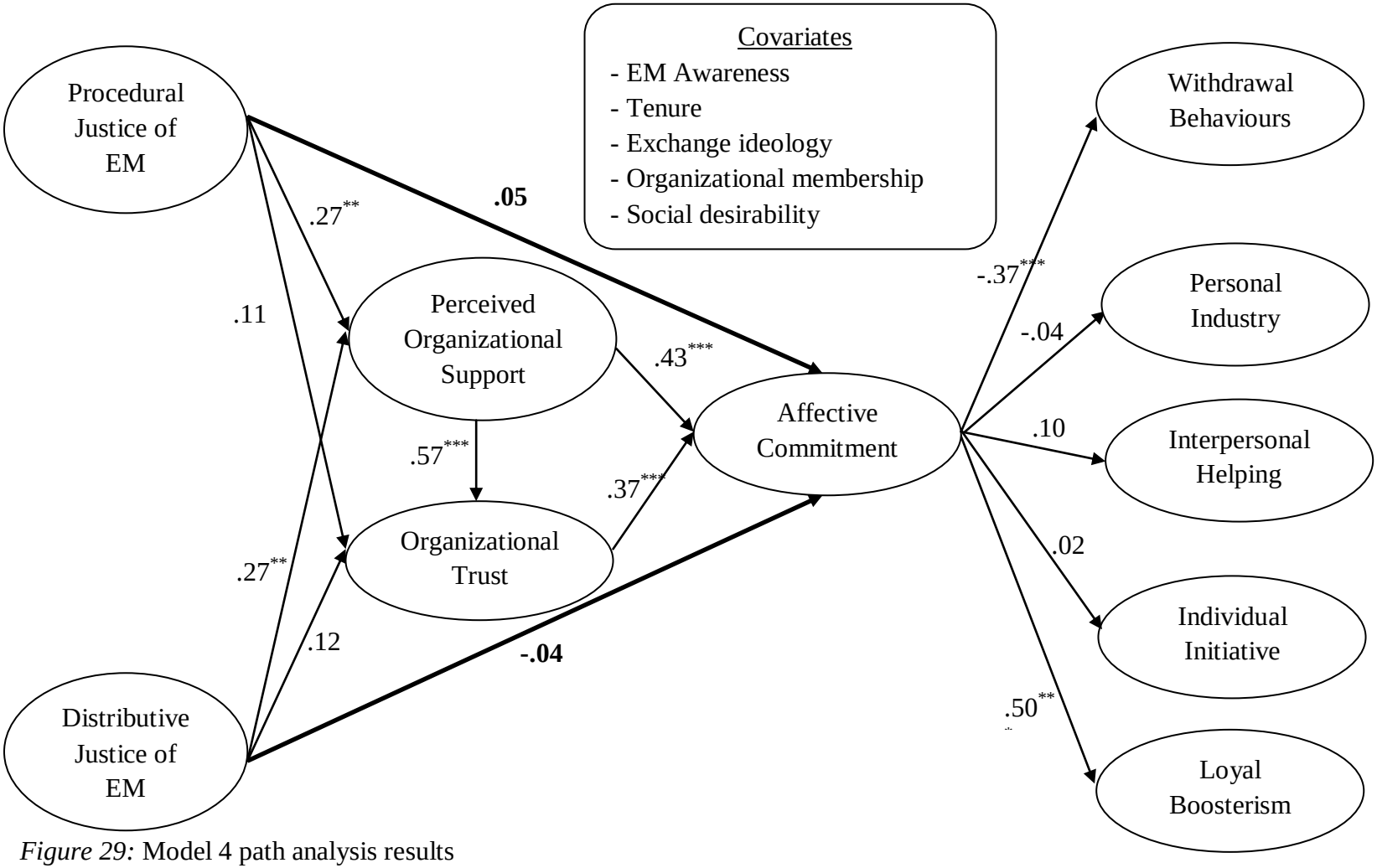

Figure 29: Model 4 path analysis results

Note. Entries are Standardized Path Coefficient. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$.

Please see Table 11 for the Standardized Path Coefficients for the covariates for Model 4

Table 15

Summary of Standardized Path Coefficients for Model 4

Path	*B*	β	*SE*
Procedural Justice → Perceived Organizational Support	.37**	.27	.12
Distributive Justice → Perceived Organizational Support	.24**	.27	.08
Procedural Justice → Organizational Trust	.10	.11	.05
Distributive Justice → Organizational Trust	.07	.12	.04
Procedural Justice → Affective Commitment	.07	.05	.09
Distributive Justice →Affective Commitment	-.03	-.04	.06
Perceived Organizational Support → Organizational Trust	.37***	.57	.04
Perceived Organizational Support → Affective Commitment	.41***	.43	.07
Organizational Trust → Affective Commitment	.54***	.37	.12
Affective Commitment → Personal Industry	-.02	-.04	.05
Affective Commitment → Loyal Boosterism	.39***	.50	.05
Affective Commitment → Interpersonal Helping	.06	.10	.04
Affective Commitment → Individual Initiative	.01	.02	.05
Affective Commitment → Withdrawal Behaviours	-.26***	-.37	.04

Note. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$.

Table 16

Relationships Between Covariates and Endogenous Variables for Model 4

Endogenous Variable	Social Desirability	Exchange Ideology	Aware of Electronic Monitoring	Tenure	Police	Call Centre
Perceived Organizational Support	.07	-.08	.01	-.23**	-.06	-.11
Organizational Trust	.15***	-.04	-.04	-.09	-.09	.05
Affective Commitment	.02	.06	.06	.13*	.08	.02
Personal Industry	.24**	-.12	–	.11	-.09	.01
Loyal Boosterism	.18*	-.08	–	.03	.01	.09
Interpersonal Helping	.20**	-.03	–	.14	-.09	.05
Individual Initiative	.07	-.02	–	.09	.03	.07
Withdrawal Behaviours	-.49***	.09	–	.11	.05	.10

Note. Entries represent standardized path coefficients.
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$

Appendix V

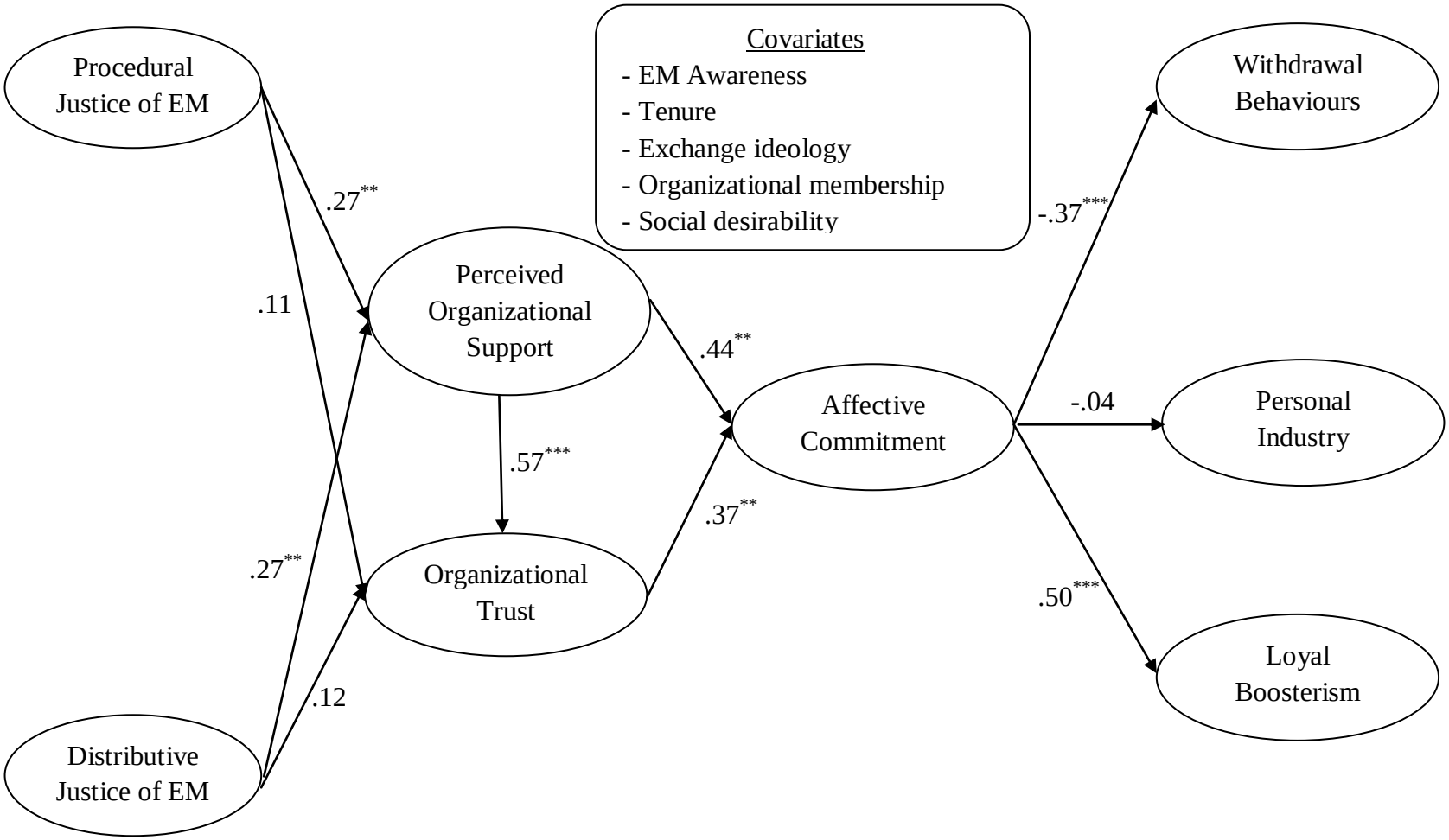

Figure 30: Model 5 path analysis results

Note. Entries are Standardized Path Coefficient. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$.

Please see Table 13 for the Standardized Path Coefficients for the covariates for Model 5

Table 17

Summary of Standardized Path Coefficients for Model 5

Path	*B*	β	*SE*
Procedural Justice → Perceived Organizational Support	.37**	.27	.12
Distributive Justice → Perceived Organizational Support	.24**	.27	.08
Procedural Justice → Organizational Trust	.10	.11	.05
Distributive Justice → Organizational Trust	.07	.12	.04
Perceived Organizational Support → Organizational Trust	.37***	.57	.04
Perceived Organizational Support → Affective Commitment	.41***	.44	.07
Organizational Trust → Affective Commitment	.54***	.37	.12
Affective Commitment → Personal Industry	-.02	-.04	.05
Affective Commitment → Loyal Boosterism	.39***	.50	.05
Affective Commitment → Withdrawal Behaviours	-.26***	-.37	.04

Note. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$.

Table 18

Relationships Between Covariates and Endogenous Variables for Model 5

Endogenous Variable	Social Desirability	Exchange Ideology	Aware of Electronic Monitoring	Tenure	Police	Call Centre
Perceived Organizational Support	.07	-.08	.01	-.23**	-.06	-.11
Organizational Trust	.15***	-.04	.03	-.09	-.09	.05
Affective Commitment	.02	.07	.01	.13*	.08	.00
Personal Industry	.24**	-.12	–	.07	-.09	-.01
Loyal Boosterism	.18*	-.08	–	.11	.01	.09
Withdrawal Behaviours	-.50***	.09	–	.11	.05	.10

Note. Entries represent standardized path coefficients.
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$

Appendix W

Table 22

Tests of Total Indirect Effects, Direct Effects, and Total Effects for Distributive Justice Associated with the use of Electronic Monitoring

Variable	Total Indirect Effects			Total Direct Effects			Total Effects		
	β	*SE*	95% *CI*	*β*	*SE*	95% *CI*	*β*	*SE*	95% CI
POS	-	-	-	.27*	.09	.09 to .44	.27*	.09	.09 to .44
Trust	.15**	.05	.06 to .27	.11	.07	-.01 to .25	.27**	.08	.11 to .42
AC	.22**	.07	.10 to .35	-	-	-	.22**	.07	.10 to .35
WB	-.08**	.03	-.15 to -.03	-	-	-	-.08**	.03	-.15 to -.03
LB	.15**	.05	.07 to .25	-	-	-	.15**	.05	.07 to .25
PIndust	-.00	.02	-.05 to .02	-	-	-	-.00	.02	-.05 to .02

Note. Entries represent standardized coefficients.

Note. Confidence intervals are Bias Corrected; 1000 Bootstrapped Samples.

Note. POS = Perceived Organizational Support; Trust = Organizational Trust; AC = Affective Commitment; WB = Withdrawal Behaviours; LB = Loyal Boosterism; PIndust = Personal Industry

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table 23

Tests of Total Indirect Effects, Direct Effects, and Total Effects for Procedural Justice Associated with the use of Electronic Monitoring

Variable	Total Indirect Effects			Total Direct Effects			Total Effects		
	β	*SE*	95% CI	*β*	*SE*	95% CI	*β*	*SE*	95% CI
POS	-	-	-	.27**	.09	.09 to .44	.27**	.09	.09 to .44
Trust	.16**	.05	.06 to .27	.11	.07	-.02 to .24	.26**	.06	.11 to .42
AC	.22**	.06	.10 to .33	-	-	-	.22**	.06	.10 to .33
WB	-.08**	.03	-.15 to -.04	-	-	-	-.08**	.03	-.15 to -.04
LB	.15**	.05	.06 to .26	-	-	-	.15**	.05	.06 to .26
PIndust	-.00	.02	-.05 to .02	-	-	-	-.00	.02	-.05 to .02

Note. Entries represent standardized coefficients.

Note. Confidence intervals are Bias Corrected; 1000 Bootstrapped Samples.

Note. POS = Perceived Organizational Support; Trust = Organizational Trust; AC = Affective Commitment; WB = Withdrawal Behaviours; LB = Loyal Boosterism; PIndust = Personal Industry

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$

Table 24

Tests of Total Indirect Effects, Direct Effects, and Total Effects for Perceived Organizational Support

Variable	Total Indirect Effects			Total Direct Effects			Total Effects		
	β	*SE*	95% *CI*	*β*	*SE*	95% *CI*	*β*	*SE*	95% CI
Trust	-	-	-	.58**	.05	.47 to .67	.58**	.05	.47 to .67
AC	.21**	.05	.11 to .32	.44**	.08	.26 to .59	.65**	.05	.53 to .74
WB	-.24**	.04	-.33 to -.16	-	-	-	-.24**	.04	-.33 to -.16
LB	.39**	.05	.30 to .49	-	-	-	.39**	.05	.30 to .49
PIndust	-.03	.05	-.11 to .07	-	-	-	-.03	.05	-.11 to .07

Note. Entries represent standardized coefficients.

Note. Confidence intervals are Bias Corrected; 1000 Bootstrapped Samples.

Note. Trust = Organizational Trust; AC = Affective Commitment; WB = Withdrawal Behaviours; LB = Loyal Boosterism; PIndust = Personal Industry

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$

Table 25

Tests of Total Indirect Effects, Direct Effects, and Total Effects for Organizational Trust

Variable	Total Indirect Effects			Total Direct Effects			Total Effects		
	β	*SE*	95% *CI*	*β*	*SE*	95% *CI*	*β*	*SE*	95% CI
AC	-	-	-	.37**	.09	.18 to .55	.37**	.09	.18 to .55
WB	-.14**	.04	-.23 to -.07	-	-	-	-.14**	.04	-.23 to -.07
LB	.12**	.04	.05 to .21	.31**	.08	.15 to .42	.43**	.08	.29 to .59
PIndust	-.01	.03	-.07 to .04	-	-	-	-.01	.03	-.07 to .04

Note. Entries represent standardized coefficients.

Note. Confidence intervals are Bias Corrected; 1000 Bootstrapped Samples.

Note. AC = Affective Commitment; WB = Withdrawal Behaviours; LB = Loyal Boosterism; PIndust = Personal Industry

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$

Appendix X

Table 26

Mediation Tests for Specific Indirect Effects

Proposed Mediation (Hypothesis)	Indirect Effects		
	B	*SE*	95% CI
DJ → POS → AC (hypothesis 3a)	.10	.05	.04 to .19*
PJ → POS → AC (hypothesis 3b)	.15	.06	.07 to .30*
DJ → POS → Trust (hypothesis 6a)	.09	.03	.04 to .16*
PJ → POS → Trust (hypothesis 6b)	.15	.05	.05 to .26*
DJ → Trust → AC (hypothesis 8a)	.03	.02	.00 to .08
PJ → Trust → AC (hypothesis 8b)	.02	.02	.00 to .07
POS → Trust → AC (hypothesis 9)	.22	.05	.12 to .35*
POS → AC → PIndust (hypothesis 12a)	-.01	.02	-.06 to .05
POS → AC → LB (hypothesis 12d)	.12	.04	.06 to .20*
POS → AC → WB (hypothesis 13)	-.09	.03	-.15 to -.04*
POS → Trust → LB (not hypothesized)	.14	.01	.07 to .24*

Trust → AC → PIndust (hypothesis 14a)	-.03	.05	-.14 to .09
Trust → AC → LB (hypothesis 14d)	.26	.07	.14 to .41*
Trust → AC → WB (hypothesis 15)	-.22	.06	-.34 to -.11*

Note. Entries represent nonstandardized coefficients.

Note. Confidence intervals are Bias Corrected; 1000 Bootstrapped Samples.

Note. POS = Perceived Organizational Support; Trust = Organizational Trust; AC = Affective Commitment; WB = Withdrawal Behaviours; LB = Loyal Boosterism; PIndust = Personal Industry

Note. *Confidence intervals that exclude zero are considered to be statistically significant.

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