

# UC Berkeley

## Berkeley Review of Education

### Title

Development and Validation of an Empirical Instrument to assess Empathy Driven Organizational Justice systems in schools

### Permalink

<https://escholarship.org/uc/item/5x31t2q7>

### Journal

Berkeley Review of Education, 11(1)

### Author

Roy, Debarshi

### Publication Date

2022

### DOI

10.5070/B811151325

### Copyright Information

Copyright 2022 by the author(s). All rights reserved unless otherwise indicated. Contact the author(s) for any necessary permissions. Learn more at <https://escholarship.org/terms>

Peer reviewed

# Development and Validation of an Empirical Instrument to Assess Empathy Driven Organizational Justice Systems in Schools

Debarshi Roy<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Independent Researcher

## Abstract

*Organizational justice refers to the perceptions of the members of an organization with regards to the fair and just nature of organizational processes. School students are susceptible to unfair and unjust experiences due to the hierarchical and mechanistic nature of school organizations. In order to create nurturing school climates, it is necessary for schools to encourage just and fair organizational justice systems. This study attempted to develop and validate a scale which measured empathic organizational justice. The study was conducted among a random sample of 171 school students from Indian schools. The instrument consisted of three subscales representing equality, respect, and positivity. It was further tested and validated for convergent, discriminant, and concurrent validity. The instrument might present as a useful tool to measure the levels of empathic organizational justice systems in Indian schools so that interventions can be designed to enhance empathy within such systems.*

**Keywords:** organizational justice, empathy, schools, instrument design

Empathy is a polysemic (having multiple meanings) construct, which describes a plethora of behavioral actions. The fundamental definitions of empathy describe it as feeling with/as another person (different from sympathy which is feeling for another person). Empathy in adults is reported to enhance pro-social and altruistic behavior thus enhancing social competence and promoting ethical decision making (Cartabuke et al., 2016). Consequently, empathy is widely recognized as an important tool and crucial skill for decision makers in organizational set-ups where moralistic acceptance and management of situations involving ethical dimensions are often necessary (Cartabuke et al., 2016). Modern theorists propose that empathy includes three dimensions: cognition, affect, and compassion (Ekman, 2003; Powell & Roberts, 2017). While cognitive empathy refers to the phenomenon of understanding the other's predicament, affective empathy describes feeling with the other, and compassion deals with the act of helping the other. Cognitive empathy can itself lead to compassionate action even in the absence of affective empathy (Ekman, 2003; Powell & Roberts, 2017).

The concept of justice traverses beyond the cloistered limits of control, retribution, and punishment to involve societal transformation and improvement of human lives through

---

<sup>1</sup> Debarshi Roy, <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6473-9945>. I have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Debarshi Roy, NH-55, Salbari, P.O. Salbari, District Darjeeling, Siliguri, West Bengal, India. PIN: 734002. Email: roy.debarshi@gmail.com.

socio-economic quality, preservation of human rights, and the fulfillment of basic human needs (Hofrichter, 1993). Barack Obama has emphasized the need for empathetic judgment as, “I view that quality of empathy, of understanding and identifying with people’s hopes and struggles as an essential ingredient for arriving at just decisions and outcomes” (as quoted in Lee, 2009). The current study explores empathic justice systems in the context of school organizations. Schools are strictly hierarchical and mechanistic organizations especially in post-colonial societies like India. The heterogeneous social structures in many such societies provide grounds for bias-ruled, unfair or unjust non-egalitarian systems of justice in schools. It is thus imperative to study the existing levels of empathic justice systems in schools and take corrective steps if required in order to improve upon the system.

### **Empathy and Justice**

To develop an instrument to measure empathic justice in schools we first explore *prima facie* the relationship between empathy and justice. Such exploration will clarify how these two concepts relate, its importance, and the need of such an instrument.

Being empathetic, or being able to feel as another person, has inherent complexities and involves a wide range of associated phenomena: an awareness of the other person’s mental condition, projecting oneself into the other person’s state of affairs, conceptualizing the thoughts and feelings of the other person, feeling of distress for a person in suffering, or even adopting bodily postures, which might match the postures of an observed person (Batson, 2009). It is through these complex cognitive and affective processes that empathy presents as a fundamental human urge to feel with the other. Hoffman (1981) has described empathy as “a vicarious response to others: that is, an affective response appropriate to someone else’s situation rather than one’s own” (p. 128). Consequently, empathic behavior presents as an amalgamation of rational, intelligent understanding of another person’s predicament as well as an emotional feeling into the person’s situation as if it was one’s own. Empathetic behavior “is amenable to perceptual and cognitive influence,” (Hoffman, p. 128). Moralistic human behavior is often posited to be motivated by cognitive motivators like justice and reciprocity as well as affective motivators like empathy (Gibbs, 2014).

The idea of justice is as complex as that of empathy and similarly varied in its domain of usage. The Merriam-Webster (n.d.) dictionary functionally defines justice as “maintenance or administration of what is just especially by the impartial adjustment of conflicting claims or the assignment of merited rewards or punishments.” The utilitarian thinker John Stuart Mill (2015) posited,

The idea of justice supposes two things; a rule of conduct, and a sentiment which sanctions the rule. The first must be supposed common to all mankind, and intended for their good. The other (the sentiment) is a desire that punishment may be suffered by those who infringe the rule (p. 166).

Sadurski (1985) distinguished between the concept of justice, which he defined as “a criterion by which good laws of a society are evaluated” and the conception, ideal or principle that justice represents as “treating equals equally and unequals unequally in proportion to their inequality” (p. 9). Sadurski explained that the concept of justice prepares the structure within which a conception of justice as a benchmark in relation to which society, laws, or actions can be judged as being just or otherwise. Justice itself presents in diverse forms. For example, while distributive justice deals with just measures of

distribution of goods and services, retributive justice deals with the punishment of wrong doers. It is within the divergent complexities of rewards, punishments, equality, impartiality, retribution, and restoration that the ideation of justice interacts with empathy.

Evidently empathy and justice are in a complex relationship. Although some scholars argue that empathy is a motivational driver for justice (Decety & Cowell, 2015), empathy might also hinder just and fair actions through parochial manifestations like in-group empathy bias, wherein individuals feel more empathetic toward others of their own kind over those who are different. The intertwined relationship between empathy and justice presents within both the cause and the effect of just and fair behavioral models. Cohen (1935) argued that, "Law is a social process, a complex of human activities, and an adequate legal science must deal with human activity, with cause and effect, with the past and the future" (p. 844). This argument may be extrapolated effectively for all social systems that have an overwhelming obligation to be just and fair to its members. A precondition for fair and just processes requires that the motivations and consequences of the members' behaviors and the systemic reaction to these behaviors is considered. Hoffman (2000) has posited that if people are unfairly and unjustly treated, they might be prone to feel empathic anger toward the unfair treatment of others and might take steps to prevent or stop the unfair treatment. According to Hoffman, empathy in such unjust situations might "provide the motive to rectify violations of justice to others" (p. 229). Empathic understanding thus greatly enhances the capacity of social systems to comprehend situations and deliver just and fair outcomes.

Justice systems, however, have promoted the perceptions of just, fair, and equitable outcomes through the practice of reciprocity. Consequently, reciprocity has formed the basis of most justice delivery systems. Individuals who are excellent at work enjoy better rewards than those who are mediocre at their work, and serious crime elicits harsher punishment over crimes that are minor. A cursory view of the concept of reciprocity might lead to premature conclusions about equity and fairness. However, as Hartley (2014) has posited, "fittingness and proportionality seem central to an assessment of the appropriateness of reciprocal exchange if the purpose of the exchange is simply the continuation of mutually advantageous relations" (p. 415). Becker (1990) explained the predicament of fittingness using the example of a person needing help with rent but getting invited to a discussion on monkeys instead. While the discussion on the monkeys might be beneficial in some other context, it does not fit with the requirements of the person who at that point of time needs help with her rent. Moreover, reciprocal justice is often retributive in nature and may not involve empathic understanding of individuals. Becker declared that, "reciprocal exchanges are typically meant to sustain a particular practice or institution rather than productive social life per se" (p. 106). Lister (2011) recognized certain problems with justice systems that are strictly reciprocal in nature. The first problem involved justice for non-contributors who could be viewed as liabilities for the system. The second involved the justice for entities who reside outside the justice system and might not be able to contribute reciprocally to the system. Finally, the third involved that of situations wherein reciprocity might motivate selfish behavior within organizations. It has been proposed that fairness should not present as the conclusive objective for society and that empathic systems lead to better outcomes (Segal, 2019). It is pertinent, however, to recognize that justice systems, which discard reciprocity altogether, face the risk of instability. In such

circumstances, justice systems might include empathy into the fold of reciprocal justice and this inclusion might lead to empathic reciprocity. Kristjaánsson (2004), for example, posited that, “reciprocity is not ‘inherently’ pro-social, but it becomes pro-social precisely when associated with empathy” (p. 297).

While reciprocity might be focused on fairness, the concept of distributive justice finds its ideational basis in equality. Institutional justice systems are often involved in resource allocation problems. Distributive justice calls for egalitarian distribution of resources; however, egalitarian distribution may not present as a just process, particularly in situations of gross inequalities in socio-economic status. Lister (2013), while establishing his arguments on posits of Young (1990), had proposed that discussions on distributive justice often neglect “relationships of subordination and domination” (p.72). The contradictions between fairness and egalitarianism were addressed significantly by Rawls (1971) and Dworkin (1981a; 1981b). Rawlsian egalitarianism advocates that just and fair distribution should ensure that the highest benefit accrues to the most disadvantaged sections of the population. Rawls argued that individuals’ talents and capacities to work are the “outcome of the natural lottery; and this outcome is arbitrary from a moral perspective” (p. 64). Dworkinian egalitarianism recognized the role of luck in the determination of individuals’ position in life, however, it differentiated Dworkinianism within the nature of individual luck. Although brute luck referred to bad luck, which is beyond the control of an individual, option luck described luck that could be within an individual’s realm of control (Arneson, 2018). Dworkin advocated that differentials should be set between individuals who face an unfortunate situation on their own accord and those who are the victims of brute luck. This line of thought led to the idea of luck egalitarianism, the recognition of the influence of luck on individual socio-economic conditions. The fundamental argument that both Rawls and Dworkin presented involved the fact that equality might sometimes present as an unjust action, while inequality might be just in certain circumstances. Such fundamental complexities within justice systems require an understanding of situations from divergent perspectives, empathy could contribute to that understanding. Hoffman (2000) argued that empathy would decide on the model of justice within a system. Individuals motivated by self-centered bias would prefer distributive justice modified according to their personal situation in life. High achievers would prefer merit-based distribution (reciprocity) while low achievers would prefer distribution according to Rawlsian or Dworkinian principles. If individuals are motivated by empathic considerations, high achievers would prefer equal distribution or even merit regulated distribution (Rawlsian/ Dworkinian models) so that poverty and extreme difference in wealth are eliminated. Anderson (1999) opposed luck egalitarianism, which she described as theories that focused on the correction of “cosmic injustice” (p. 289) and instead sought to focus on an egalitarian justice system that meant to end oppression, which she termed democratic equality. Anderson explained that the aim of egalitarian justice is “not to ensure that everyone gets what they morally deserve, but to create a community in which people stand in relations of equality to others” (p. 289).

Equality and freedom have been frequently presented as divergent ideas, seldom congruent. Leftist thinkers have often accentuated this argument to propose and defend constraints on freedom and personal liberty in the quest to create egalitarian societies. Freedom, however, has multitudinous connotations as was described by Berlin (2002),

Men are largely interdependent, and no man's activity is so completely private as never to obstruct the lives of others in anyway. 'Freedom for the pike is death for the minnows;' the liberty of some must depend on the restraint of others.

'Freedom for an Oxford don,' others have been known to add, 'is a very different thing from freedom for an Egyptian peasant' (p.171).

Notwithstanding the diverse connotations of the concept of freedom, human civilization has witnessed that unequal, power-centric, and hierarchical societal structures have often resulted in oppression and consequent suppression of individual freedom. Hence, it may be argued that inequality is not necessarily linked to greater freedom, and free societies are not undoubtedly unequal.

While distributive justice relates to the outcome, procedural justice relates to the process that is followed to arrive at an outcome. Procedural justice forms an important part of the justice delivery system. As Tyler (1987) has explained, "It has been widely found that people are as concerned with the fairness of the way decisions are made as they are with the fairness of those decisions (i.e., distributive justice)" (p. 41). Leventhal (1980) dwelled upon the nature of procedural justice and proposed that procedural justice should be consistent, ethical, unbiased, correctable, inclusive, and accurate (Hosmer & Kiewitz, 2005). Vermunt and Törnblom (1996) elaborated upon three aspects of procedural justice: (a) the structural, determined by the existing law of the land; (b) the cultural, determined by the culture of the country, society, or organization (sometimes cultural procedures override the law of the land); and (c) the personal, which determines how decisions are communicated to concerned individuals. Tyler (2007) enumerated four principles of procedural justice: voice, neutrality, respect, and trust. Voice refers to the opportunity given to all parties to present their case and be heard. Neutrality describes an unbiased and transparent procedural system. Respect is the dignity of individuals and trust involves sincerity, benevolence, and caring attitudes of the decision maker. Tyler's principles reflect empathic understanding of individuals without tendencies to vilify or humiliate.

The concept of justice, as well as the perception of justice by the individuals who are judged, present as relevant and important factors within organizations wherein individuals and groups, as members of such organizations, work together toward the fulfillment of set objectives. Organizations are controlled by rules and regulations, which are often enforced through an organizational justice system. However organizational justice does present with unique characteristics that need to be explored for a better understanding of justice as referred to within the organizational context.

### **Organizational Justice**

The concept of organizational justice is important and relevant to this study that develops a measurement tool of empathic justice systems within schools. Schools are organizational systems where individuals and groups work toward the achievement of certain objectives. The members of the school organization work within the boundaries set by the rules and regulations of the school and are guided and controlled them. To understand school organizational justice, it is imperative to discuss the nuances and characteristics of organizational justice.

Organizational justice is largely descriptive in nature. Contrary to normative justice, an event under organizational justice is judged as just or unjust based on how members of

the organization perceive it. Procedural justice within the realms of organizational justice relates to the satisfaction of its members with the system that is followed, while distributive justice describes the satisfaction with the outcome that is achieved (Greenberg, 1990). Most often the perception of fairness is a result of the comparison of an event (often an unfortunate event) with a norm or standard. Consequently, research in organizational justice explores whether such procedures are deemed to be fair by the members rather than focus on the truly fair nature of the process (Cropanzano & Molina, 2015).

Folger and Cropanzano (1998) explained that, “In organizations, justice is about the rules and social norms governing how outcomes (e.g., rewards and punishments) should be distributed, the procedures used for making such distribution decisions (as well as other types of decisions), and how people are treated interpersonally” (p. xiii). Organizational justice thus steps beyond the boundaries of distributive and procedural justice to include social aspects and determinants, including the treatment of members of the organization within its realm. Members of an organization react positively to perceptions of just treatment within organizations. The positive reaction often presents overtly in the form of positive organizational citizenship behavior, enhanced organizational commitment, and job satisfaction (Cropanzano & Molina, 2015). It has been proposed that organizational justice consist of four dimensions: distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional (interpersonal), and informational justice, wherein information that forms the basis of a decision is adequately shared with stakeholders of a decision (Hosmer & Kiewitz, 2005).

Adams (1965) discussed distributive justice in organizational set ups. He proposed a model, which defined perceptions of equity in organizational situations within the context of organizational justice. Moreover, he posited that “inequity exists for Person whenever he perceives that the ratio of his outcomes to inputs and the ratio of Other’s outcomes to Other’s inputs are unequal” (p. 280). Thus, he presents the formula,

$$\frac{Op}{Ip} < \frac{Oa}{Ia}$$

wherein  $Op$  denotes the outcome for the person who is judging for fairness and  $Ip$  denotes the input of the person judging for fairness.  $Oa$  denotes the output of others and  $Ia$  denotes the input of others. Adam’s model proposed that equity is achieved only when,

$$\frac{Op}{Ip} = \frac{Oa}{Ia}$$

Later, researchers like Thibaut and Walker (1975) argued that organizational members value the fairness and legality of procedures that are employed to arrive at outcome decisions over the input/output ratios that supposedly form the basis for assessing distributive justice. The perceptual importance provided to procedural justice within the precincts of organizational justice has been explained by Lind and Tyler (1988) through the self-interest model and the group value model. The self-interest model recognizes that individuals act in their own self-interest and seek to protect their own well-being. Consequently, individuals strive to seek control over the procedures of justice. The chance to have a say on the procedures has been posited to favorably amplify the perceptions of procedural justice (Greenberg, 1990; Greenberg & Folger, 1983). The group value model is based on ideations, which posit models that assume individuals to be concerned with the

sole objective of maximizing individual outcomes and do not appreciate certain distinct features of justice (Lerner, 1981; Lind & Tyler, 1988). The group value model assumes that individual members of a group are prone to set aside their own personal self-interest to help all members of their group (Lind & Tyler, 1988). While this behavior might present as an altruistic act, the motivation for the behavior might lie within the individual's recognition that his or her interests are best served in the long run by being a part of the group and serving the group's interest (Lind & Tyler, 1988). An extension of the group value model presents in the relational model (Tyler & Lind, 1992), wherein rules and authority structures are created within groups to regulate behavior.

Bies and Moag (1986) are credited with the introduction of the concept of interactional justice (Dai & Xie, 2016). Interactional justice relates to the way members of an organization are treated. Interactional justice emphasizes that members are not treated with disrespect, that they are not subject to deceitful or deceptive practices, and that they do not experience derogatory judgment against them (Hosmer & Kiewitz, 2005). Interactional justice is often categorized as interpersonal justice, which specifically relates to the treatment and concern for individuals and informational justice, specifically the dissemination of knowledge about procedures that are followed to arrive at outcomes (Greenberg, 1990; 1993).

It is relevant to note that the various dimensions of organizational justice form the basis of empathic justice systems in schools. An empathic school justice system would involve a robust design based on egalitarian principles (distributive justice), unbiased and just procedures for corrective action (procedural justice), recognizes that children are to be respected (interactional justice), while promoting free exchange of information (informational justice). It is with regard to these dimensions of organizational justice that provide the theoretical foundation for this study.

### **Empathic Organizational Justice in Schools**

Schools, especially those in post-colonial societies like India where this study was conducted, are often mechanistic and hierarchical organizations with asymmetric power structures, inordinately tilted in favor of the adults who control the administrative machinery (Roy, 2020). In countries like India where the societal culture encourages great respect for teachers (who are sometimes referred to as gurus), justice is often influenced by power variables. Moreover, the inequalities in societal structures are often mirrored within the justice systems that schools encourage. While the specific context of the study was India, the problems faced within the inherent intricacies of school systems are overwhelmingly universal in nature, witnessed in varying degrees within schools all over the world. Schools are rules driven organizations where misbehavior primarily involves the breaking of such rules.

Ryan (2010) remarked that within the context of school organizations, "Even with the best of intentions, administrators may find themselves in the course of carrying out their jobs unwittingly supporting in both subtle and not so subtle ways various forms of racism, sexism, classism and homophobia" (p. 357). Researchers (Innaconne, 1975; Ryan, 2010) have stressed that the micropolitics at play within school education systems often present as a mediator for organizational justice systems in schools. Micropolitics involve "the



interaction and political ideologies of social systems of teachers, administrators and pupils within school buildings” (Innaconne, 1975, as cited in Ryan, 2010, p. 359).

Since school organizations in many societies are hard wired to be hierarchical and focused on rules, the concept of organizational justice in such scenarios is often ignored. Such a predicament led Hoy and Tarter (2004) to comment that, “matters of justice and fairness in the school workplace should not be taken lightly” (p. 250). Schools are highly interdependent organizations wherein all the entities (e.g., parents, teachers, students, school management) are dependent on each other for effective functioning. Interdependence leads to vulnerability and a consequent enhanced need for trust among the entities (Hoy & Tarter, 2004; Rousseau et al., 1998). In this respect, Hoy and Tarter explained the relationship between organizational justice and trust as, “a reciprocal one: we postulate that faculty trust promotes organizational justice, but that justice in return reinforces trust” (p. 255). The interdependent nature of school organizations and its consequent bearing on the vulnerability, as well as on the importance of trust, encourages the necessity for school organizations to be benevolent, honest, reliable, open, and competent (Hoy & Tarter, 2004).

The importance of trust, patience, and tolerance in an emotionally fragile system like a school led experts such as Hopkins (2002) to advocate for a restorative justice approach in schools. Restorative justice aims to repair the harm inflicted on relationships over the blaming and punishment of the wrong doer. Restorative justice steps beyond the mere breaking of rules to approach misbehavior as a harm done by an individual or group to another individual or group. Systems that follow restorative justice do not aim to inflict punishment or pain but instead focus on collaboration, understanding, and empathy. Relationships are prioritized over rules, and conflicts and acts of misdemeanor are approached as opportunities for learning (Hopkins, 2002). Empathic organizational justice systems in schools often encourage restorative justice, and relational justice is proximal to restorative justice. Casanovas and Poblet (2008) defined relational justice as “bottom-up justice, or the justice produced through cooperative behavior, agreement, negotiation or dialogue among actors in a post-conflict situation (the aftermath of private or public, tacit or explicit, peaceful or violent conflicts)” (p. 323). Elovainio et al. (2011) reported that low levels of relational justice in schools was associated with poor performance, depression, psychosomatic disorders, truancy, and absenteeism, all of which led to poor academic performance.

Organizational justice in schools has a profound and diverse effect on students and their view of the world at large. An interesting manifestation of this behavior presents within the belief in a just world. It has been reported that students who believe in a just world perceive their teachers and peers to be fair and are more comfortable and less distressed in school (Correia & Dalbert, 2007). The enhanced well-being and diminished stress are attributed to a trust in the existing justice system in school (Correia & Dalbert, 2007). In the context of schools, the procedural and interactional justice dimensions of organizational justice have been posited to present as significant predictors of organizational identification, which have been defined as an individual’s sense of belonging, allegiance, and loyalty to the organization (Terzi et al., 2017). Similarly, organizational citizenship behavior and organizational justice within schools have been reported to be positively related (Travis Burns & DiPaola, 2013; Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2008).

The perception of justice and injustice in schools is frequently discussed within the context of standardized examinations. Schools often encourage cut-throat competition among students with the intent to improve student performance as measured through test scores (Roy, 2020). Test scores can be critical for future careers and are unfortunately presented as overt indicators of academic prowess and intelligence. Consequently, test scores are perceived to be “valued goods” (Resh, 1999, p. 103). The allocative process for test scores, however, is seldom just and egalitarian. Students often perceive that their test scores are lower than what they deserve, and teachers’ cognitive biases often play a role in augmenting such perceptions (Resh, 1999; Roy, 2020). Resh (1999) reported that the students who achieved high scores felt they deserved the high scores while the students who scored at low levels felt that they have been deprived of their actual scores. However, the serious (and obvious) anomaly that occurs within the score allocation process in standardized testing relates to the diverse socio-economic backgrounds to which students belong. The predicament is particularly common for socioeconomically diverse countries like India. Students belonging to the underprivileged sections of society feel that they have been deprived of a fair score through their status in society and the consequent lack of learning facilities, opportunities, or even requisite nutrition (Datta & Singh, 2016; Ferguson et al., 2007; Human Rights Watch, 2014; Krishna, 2021; OECD, 2012). This phenomenon results in the perception of relative deprivation wherein students feel that they have been deprived of the scores that they deserve. Esposito and Villasenor (2017) described relative deprivation as, “detrimental implications arising from the inability to achieve as much as the people we compare with in society (the so-called reference group)” (p. 1). Relative deprivation has significantly adverse influence on school outcomes and is negatively related to school enrollment. Similarly, Mayer (2001) remarked that, “If children feel relatively deprived, they may be less inclined to study or stay in school” (p. 4). Economic inequality increases the gap in educational achievement among the children from high-income families and those from low-income families (Mayer, 2001).

The inequalitarian nature of modern societies and the inability of governments, societies, and individuals to create a level playing field for children of all socio-economic and cultural backgrounds thus renders the existing system of school education inherently unjust. Cognitive biases skewed social beliefs, dogmas, and misplaced priorities often serve as aggregators to the existing unjust nature of school systems. To create a functionally just and egalitarian systems of organizational justice within schools, deliberate and conscientious intervention models augmenting empathic understanding of students are necessary.

### **Measuring Organizational Justice**

Measuring organizational justice presents challenges since the term relates to the subjective perception of the members of the organization toward just and unjust actions that individuals and their colleagues experience within the organization (Yadav & Yadav, 2017). However, as Colquitt and Rodell (2015) explained, measurement models help in lending empirical support to theories, serving to enhance and augment knowledge in the field. Measurements models of organizational justice often face choice dilemmas of focus, context, and experience bracketing. The models might be designed to focus on the supervisory (micro) level (Blade & Tyler, 2003; Cobb et al, 1997; Colquitt & Rodell, 2015)

or organizational (macro) level, with a focus on organizational climate dependent on the vision and behavior of the organizational leaders (Brockner et al., 2007; Colquitt & Rodell, 2015; Daly & Geyer, 1994;). The context of such a measurement exercise is important and could include specific conflict resolution or resource allocation problems, or focus generally on organizational culture and processes. For respondents, measurement models of organizational justice might require them to focus on a specific personal experience or a set of personal experiences, or the experiences of colleagues over a certain period (Colquitt & Rodell, 2015).

The extant scales for measuring organizational justice may be categorized into those that measure organizational justice as a comprehensive measure (Colquitt, 2001) and those that measure specific constructs of organizational justice like distributive justice (Price & Mueller, 1986) or procedural justice (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Moorman, 1991). Price and Mueller (1986) developed a six-item scale for measuring distributive justice, known as the *Distributive Justice Index*. The scale measures distributive justice through the perception of the respondents toward the rewards that they have received from their organization on a five-point Likert-type scale. Folger and Konovsky (1989) developed a 26-item scale to measure procedural justice. The items were loaded onto four factors: feedback, planning, recourse, and observation. Moorman (1991) developed a scale to measure procedural justice in his study to explore the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior. His scale used two dimensions to measure procedural justice: formal and interactional. However, several researchers such as Bies (2001) and Colquitt and Rodell (2015) differed their construct and posited a distinct difference between interactional justice and procedural justice. As Moorman's scale did not include measures for distributive justice and informational justice, it was found inadequate as a comprehensive measure for organizational justice (Shibaoka et al., 2010). McFarlin and Sweeney (1992) had developed a four-item scale for measuring procedural justice within the format of the distributive justice scale. The respondents to the scale indicated their perceptions toward the fairness of various organizational procedures such as performance appraisal, promotions, or enhancement in pay. The researchers used their procedural justice scale in conjunction with five of the six items from Price and Mueller's distributive justice scale, resulting in a scale that could measure both procedural and distributive justice.

Even as scales to measure specific dimensions of organizational justice were being developed, a scale to measure the different dimensions of organizational justice within a single comprehensive instrument was deemed to be important. Consequently, Colquitt (2001) developed a 20-item measure of organizational justice with four dimensions: procedural, distributive, interpersonal, and informational. Colquitt and Rodell (2015) explained that the procedural items were based upon Thibaut and Walker's (1975) and Leventhal's (1980) postulates while the items related to interactional justice were based upon the rules formulated by Bies and Moag (1986).

While the popular scales to measure organizational justice are limited to the investigation of traditional constructs like distributive, procedural, or interactional justice, certain other measurement scales venture beyond the traditional dimensions to measure specific focus areas within the realms of organizational justice. Daly and Geyer (1994) studied organizational justice within the context of organizational relocation decisions.

They developed a 15-item scale wherein they measured, employees' voice, decisional justification, procedural and outcome fairness as well as the employee's intention to remain in the organization within the context of the organizational relocation decision. Siegrist (2017) introduced the effort-reward imbalance model, which assesses workplace stress due to the imbalance caused by high levels of effort and low rewards. The scale consists of 23 items grouped into three factors: effort, reward, and over-commitment (Siegrist, 2017). Coloski (2002) developed a scale to measure perceptions of organizational justice among middle school students. The scale consisted of 29 items grouped into four factors: distributive/procedural justice, interactional justice, amount of conflict and amount of bullying. The extant scales for measuring organizational justice mostly relate to business organizations and focus on the perceptions of the employees of the organizations with regards to the just and fair nature of the organization's policies and processes as well as their experience with the nature of such policies and processes. However, such extant scales are inadequate to measure the perceptions of organizational justice among high school students. This predicament arises mainly due to the divergent nature of experiences between employees and students as well as divergent priorities and stages of mental development. An overwhelming majority of the extant scales for measuring organizational justice attempt to measure organizational justice within the constraints of the theoretical dimensions of organizational justice without any significant attempt to apply those dimensions to specific contexts or constructs. Consequently, the extant scales are measurement invariant and merely attempt to measure the same dimensions either individually or as a comprehensive set. However, a scale for measuring empathic organizational justice among high school students should exhibit strict relevance to the nature of the construct (empathy) as well as to the context (school) within which it is placed. The present study attempts to bridge these gaps in literature through the development of a scale that is designed specifically for the related construct (empathy) and context (schools).

### **Method**

The objective of the present study lies in the development of a statistically reliable and valid instrument to assess the existing justice system that exists in individual schools within the context of empathy.

### **Measurement**

#### ***Justification and Implications of the Scale***

As emphasized earlier, school organizations in most parts of the world present with asymmetric power structures loaded in favor of adults. The formulation of rules and regulations that govern schools, as well as the authority to implement those rules and mete out justice, overwhelmingly involve the adults in a school. Thus, within such skewed distribution of power it is necessary to ensure that systems are just, fair, and forgiving instead of biased and retributive. Acts of retributive justice and cruelty in the name of corrective actions are common in schools all over the world. A school justice system that children perceive as empathic can enhance student confidence in a fair and just world, consequently leading to better school outcomes. Since asymmetric power structures

remove or at least weaken the feedback loop wherein students can voice their opinion, dissent, or protest, a scale for measuring empathic justice systems is important, if not necessary, for all the stakeholders in a school. The scale for measuring empathy-driven school justice systems will provide the necessary student feedback to help school administrators, teachers, and policymakers to reevaluate school justice systems with the objective to make such systems empathic toward students through changes in rules and regulations, or even legislation. Moreover, as mentioned earlier, there is no extant scale to measure empathic organizational justice among high school students. The development of a scale was thus deemed justified for the purpose.

### ***Theoretical Framework***

Since the instrument developed in this study aims to measure empathy driven school organizational justice systems, we include the fundamental characteristics of organizational justice as perceptive/descriptive rather than as normative. A perceptive/descriptive approach implies that the scale measures empathic organizational justice from the perception of students who have experienced the system.

Kılıç et al. (2015) emphasized the importance of a collective measure for the assessment of organizational justice, stressing that individuals may not be affected solely by their personal experiences but also the experiences of their peers. An instrument that attempts to accurately explore organizational justice should therefore recognize the collective aspect of such an exercise. In the context of schools, the prevailing climate and nature of organizational justice can be best assessed from the perspective of the group most affected by the nature of the justice system: the students. Consequently, in this study the empathic nature of the organizational justice system prevailing in a school was assessed through a collective response from the students. The collective response was measured as an aggregate of individual responses from the students.

We place the dimensions and nature of organizational justice systems in schools within the context of empathic behavior, defined as perceived compliance of organizational authorities to actions and behavior within organizational justice systems indicating a deliberate effort and intention to understand students and analyze their behavior and predicaments from their points of view. The scale presented in this study steps beyond the existing subscales (distributive, procedural, and interactional) and attempts to investigate empathic organizational justice within school organizations through three novel subscales: equality, respect, and positivity. The three subscales include the dimensions and philosophies that define distributive, procedural, and interactional justice, as well as the nature of justice systems as defined by restorative and relational justice. The instrument has been designed as a relevant and simple to understand tool for school management professionals and educators.

The subscale equality includes certain aspects of distributive and procedural justice; the subscale respect, aspects of procedural and interactional justice, while positivity involves aspects of procedural, restorative, and relational justice. The scale items and their respective connotations are described in Table 1.

**Table 1**  
*Scale Items Summary*

Variable Code	Item	Instrument subscale	Connotation to dimensions of organizational justice
VAR00002	All children are treated equally in school	Equality	Distributive
VAR00003	Rules are applied consistently and without exception	Equality	Distributive, Procedural
VAR00004	School authorities rely on facts to take decisions	Equality	Procedural
VAR00005	Decisions on punishments are not based on personal biases	Equality	Distributive, Procedural
VAR00006	Rewards are fair and proportionate to performance	Equality	Distributive, Procedural
VAR00007	Test scores are fair and unbiased	Equality	Distributive, Procedural
VAR00008	Warm and friendly	Respect	Interactional
VAR00009	Respect students	Respect	Interactional/Procedural
VAR00010	Do not insult students	Respect	Interactional/Procedural
VAR00011	Inform the students about rules and regulations	Respect	Interactional/Informational
VAR00012	Refrain from physical violence	Respect	Interactional
VAR00013	Do not shame students	Positivity	Interactional, Restorative, Relational, Procedural
VAR00014	Try to understand the reasons for students' behavior	Positivity	Restorative, Relational
VAR00015	Talk to students at length to help them understand the consequences of their behavior	Positivity	Interactional, Restorative, Relational
VAR00016	Try to avoid harsh punishments as far as possible	Positivity	Restorative, Relational
VAR00017	Reward improvements in student behavior	Positivity	Restorative, Relational
VAR00018	Show concern and interest for the well-being of students	Positivity	Restorative, Relational

**Subscales.** The instrument for measuring empathy driven organizational justice system consists of three subscales: respect, positivity, and equality. The argument presented herein posits that the three distinct dimensions of equality, respect, and positivity lead to perceptions of empathic organizational justice in school systems. Respect for organizational members is an important aspect of functional behavior and organizational culture. However, organizational members “rarely report receiving it” (Rogers & Ashforth, 2014, p. 1). Organizational respect is essentially categorized into two types: generalized respect toward people in the organization and respect for specific accomplishment or achievement by a member or a set of members, which requires to be earned. Rogers and Ashforth (2014) described generalized respect as “we” respect, whereas individualized earned respect was described as “me” respect. In the realm of the criminal justice system, Butler and Drake (2007) have introduced the notions of respect-as-esteem and respect-as-consideration. Respect-as-consideration is the general respect for human beings and their rights, but respect-as-esteem is the respect that individuals have to earn through their achievements. Butler and Drake posited that, “it should be a fundamental human right to be treated in a respectful and considerate manner” (p. 120). Thus, for the purposes of this study, the term respect referred to the dimension of generalized respect. In school organizations, it is imperative that students are respected as young learners and that their rights are protected within the prevailing organizational justice system. This aspect presents with greater importance than respect for individual achievements, which might result in individual motivation but encourage inequalitarian processes especially in the context of organizational justice systems.

Butler and Drake (2007) had remarked that, “Equality is not necessary for respectful treatment to occur” (p. 120). Equality presents as a unique dimension of organizational justice in schools. Petty (2014) described equality in schools as, “equality is about ensuring individuals are treated fairly and equally, no matter their race, gender, age, disability, religion or sexual orientation” (para. 1). Thus, while there is rife argument as to the oftentimes unjust nature of equality in justice systems, especially within the realms of distributive justice, this study applies the term within the description that Petty had put forward.

The term positivity relates to the nature and objectives of the organizational justice system in schools. The system could be designed for retribution and punishment, or it could present as restorative and relational to induce positivity. Blame, shame, insults, and punishment are often employed as tools of correction by schools within their organizational justice system. Such techniques seldom lead to satisfactory results and can even induce greater dysfunctionalities in society. Children should be treated primarily as children and not as offenders (Haines & Case, 2015), and every effort at engagement and understanding of the children’s situation should be encouraged in school.

### **Respondents**

The respondents in this study consisted of 171 high school students (grades 9–12 within the Indian school system) from schools in India. The age bracket of the respondents ranged between 15–18 years, consisting of a mix of both boys (68.4%) and girls (31.6%)

from a wide range of government-run and private schools from different parts of India. Private schools in India mostly cater to the relatively affluent and upwardly mobile sections of society, while many government schools cater to a section of the population who might present with relatively lower socio-economic status. However, this differential does not hold true for many well-known government schools where children from all sections of the society study. It is possible that socioeconomic status affects the results, but we did not collect this information. Given the random selection of our participants and the lack of significant outliers, we do not expect socioeconomic status to affect our final results considerably.

### **Procedure**

The study was conducted in four stages. At the first stage, a series of 12 personal interview sessions were conducted among a set of high school students. Then, each student participated in a set of three focus group discussion sessions. Focus group discussions included five participants each. The interviewees and participants of the focus group discussion at this stage were chosen through convenience sampling.

A list of 34 items emerged from the interactions with the students as generally important to them in their perceptions of empathic school justice. A subsequent analysis led to the elimination of items perceived to be very similar or duplicates of each other. The items were then correlated with a set that had been derived from a study of related literature to establish face-validity of the items. These processes then led to the finalization of the 23 items that were used for the pilot study.

At the second stage of the study, a pilot study was conducted among 43 respondents chosen through convenience sampling. At this stage, we deleted six items that had low factor loadings (less than .5). At the third stage, a questionnaire eliciting responses on a five-point, Likert-type scale (1=never...5=Always) was developed using the 17 items from the pilot study and one additional item, which served as a dependent variable to measure the empathic nature of school authorities. The dependent variable would not form a part of the final scale. The questionnaire was administered to the respondents physically as well as through electronic means with an assurance of privacy. A set of 340 high school students were shortlisted based on available contact information, age, logistical efficiencies in administering the questionnaire, and their willingness to take part in such studies. This set included students from various parts of rural as well as urban India. A set of 240 students were further shortlisted from the main list with the help of a random number generator using a spreadsheet. Twenty-four probable respondents could not be contacted at this point, which gave us 216 students to administer our questionnaire. Out of the 216 questionnaires that were administered, 171 were included for the study. The remaining questionnaires were either not received or were inadequately filled. In the fourth stage of the study the responses were collected and subjected to statistical analysis to determine the results.

### **Statistical Analysis and Results**

We first checked the reliability of the scale using Cronbach's alpha. The Cronbach's alpha for the 17-item scale was .9 with an adequate the sample (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy=.86, approximate Chi-



Square=4005.427,  $df=136$ ,  $p < .001$ ). A principal component analysis with orthogonal varimax rotation extracted three components (Table 2). These three components were termed equality, respect, and positivity. Following principal component analysis, we conducted a path analysis to test the validity of the model for empathy driven organizational justice. The model-fit-statistics (Appendix, Figures 1 and 2) were within acceptable range (Chi-square Mean/Degree of Freedom (CMIN/DF) ratio=1.928, NFI =.947, CFI =.974, RMSEA =.074). Since the model was established to be valid, a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted on the 17-item scale to establish factorial validity of the scale. The model-fit-statistics were within acceptable range (CMIN/DF ratio = 1.838, NFI = .952, CFI = .977, RMSEA =.070). The factorial validity of the scale was thus established (Appendix, Figures 3 and 4).

Following the confirmatory factor analysis, a principal component regression was conducted with the dependent variable based on responses to the statement, “Your school authorities understand your situation when you face problems.” Regression factor scores of the three components were extracted through the principal component analysis as the independent variables. The variable responding to the statement, “Your school authorities understand your situation when you face problems,” was chosen to measure the student’s perception of the overall empathic disposition of the school authorities. It was used as the dependent variable to test whether the components of the school justice system were a significant predictor of the students’ perception of the empathic nature of the school authorities. Such an analysis could most effectively be conducted through a study of the perception of cognitive empathy (understanding). This item could also serve as a criterion measure to test concurrent validity of the instrument.

Concurrent validity indicates the extent to which the results of an instrument are similar to the results from another established instrument. However, the classical connotation of concurrent validity has severe limitations due to non-availability of established instruments, which might be used as standards. Thus, it has been posited that, “The lack of criterion or reference measures restricts the assessment of this psychometric property almost exclusively to performing studies of short/abbreviated versions of the instruments, using the original version as a Gold Standard or criterion measure” (Echevarría-Guanilo et al., 2019, p. 6). Consequently, in the absence of such standard instruments, multiple regression models have often been used to test concurrent validity of the instrument using a criterion variable (Kuo & Nitz, 2011; Mehta et al., 2019). Since there are no other available instruments to study empathic school organizational justice that could be used as a standard for the comparative analysis, the predicted/dependent variable was used as the criterion measure to test for concurrent validity of the instrument through a multiple regression analysis. Our model tested whether the dimensions

of the school justice system as provided in the instrument was a predictor for the perception of empathic nature of school authorities (criterion variable).

As explained, the principal component regression was conducted to establish concurrent validity of the instrument. The predicted variable represented the students’ perception of the empathetic nature of the school management. The results of our principal component regression show statistically significant results ( $F = 63.306, P < 0.0005, R^2 = 0.53$ ). The three components presented as significant predictors ( $p < .01$ ) of the students’ perceptions of empathetic school management (Tables 3 and 4). The principal component regression helped to establish concurrent validity of the instrument. The results of the principal component regression are provided in Tables 3, 4, and 5.

Discriminant validity of the instrument was tested through the Fornell Larcker criterion analysis. Fornell Larcker criterion requires that the square root of the average variance extracted be greater than the component correlation coefficients. (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The results of the Fornell Larcker criterion analysis are presented in Table 6 showing the criterion fulfilled. The average variance extracted for all three components are greater than 0.5 (0.93, 0.76, and 0.76), which provide evidence of discriminant validity.

**Table 2**

*Rotated Component Matrix*

Items	Component		
	1 Respect	2 Positivity	3 Equality
All children are treated equally in school	.075	.085	<b>.924</b>
Rules are applied consistently and without exception	.087	.063	<b>.917</b>
School authorities rely on facts to take decisions	.058	.055	<b>.861</b>
Decisions on punishments are not based on personal biases	.289	.104	<b>.837</b>
Rewards are fair and proportionate to performance	.013	.054	<b>.854</b>
Test scores are fair and unbiased	.010	.124	<b>.837</b>
Warm and friendly	<b>.969</b>	.115	.088
Respect students	<b>.973</b>	.095	.085
Do not insult students	<b>.974</b>	.103	.088
Inform the students about rules and regulations	<b>.966</b>	.073	.112
Refrain from physical violence	<b>.942</b>	.114	.078
Do not shame students	.135	<b>.873</b>	.174
Try to understand the reasons for students’ behavior	.120	<b>.881</b>	.134
Talk to students at length to help them understand the consequences of their behavior	.090	<b>.811</b>	.076
Try to avoid harsh punishments as far as possible	.022	<b>.912</b>	.005
Reward improvements in student behavior	.042	<b>.902</b>	.057
Show concern and interest for the well-being of students	.113	<b>.865</b>	.047

*Note.* Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 4 iterations.

**Table 3***Model Summary for Principal Component Regression*

<b>Model</b>	<b>R</b>	<b>R Squared</b>	<b>Adjusted R Squared</b>	<b>Std. Error of the Estimate</b>	<b>Durbin-Watson</b>
1	.729 <sup>a</sup>	.532	.524	.877	1.501

*Note.* <sup>a</sup> Predictors: (Constant), REGR factor score 3 for analysis 1, REGR factor score 2 for analysis 1, REGR factor score 1 for analysis 1. Dependent Variable: VAR00001, Your school authorities understand your situation when you face problems

**Table 4***ANOVA<sup>b</sup> Table for Principal Component Regression*

	<b>Model</b>	<b>Sum of Squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
1	Regression	146.139	3	48.713	63.306	.000 <sup>a</sup>
	Residual	128.504	167	.769		
	Total	274.643	170			

*Note.* <sup>a</sup> Predictors: (Constant), REGR factor score 3 for analysis 1, REGR factor score 2 for analysis 1, REGR factor score 1 for analysis 1.

<sup>b</sup> Dependent Variable: VAR00001, Your school authorities understand your situation when you face problems

**Table 5***Coefficients of Principal Component Regression*

	<b>Model</b>	<b>Unstandardized Coefficients</b>		<b>Standardized Coefficients</b>		<b>Sig.</b>
		<b>B</b>	<b>Std. Error</b>	<b>Beta</b>	<b>t</b>	
1	(Constant)	2.655	.067		39.578	.000
	Respect	.192	.067	.151	2.848	.005
	Positivity	.835	.067	.657	12.415	.000
	Equality	.354	.067	.278	5.260	.000

*Note.* Dependent Variable: VAR00001, Your school authorities understand your situation when you face problems

**Table 6***Fornell Larcker Criterion*

<b>Variable</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>
Respect	<b>0.9648</b>		
Positivity	0.19	<b>0.8746</b>	
Equality	0.201	0.183	<b>0.8723</b>

### Discussion

The results of this study can be analyzed within the context of two important findings: the relation between students' perception of the empathic disposition of school authorities and school organizational justice systems, and the validity and significance of the scale tested to measure empathic school organizational justice systems.

#### Organizational Justice as a Predictor for Perceptions of Empathic School Systems

The results of this study show that the dimensions of organizational justice are significant predictors of students' perception of the empathic nature of school systems. Modern theorizations of empathy have proposed three dimensions to the concept (Ekman, 2003): cognition (understanding), affect (feeling), and compassion (acting to mitigate sufferings of the other). This study focused on cognitive empathy (e.g., "Your school authorities understand your situation when you face problems"). The rationale behind this approach was that students would find it difficult to perceive affective empathy of teachers and school authorities (if the teachers and school authorities actually felt their problems just as they did) and would conversely find it much easier to perceive cognitive empathy of teachers and school authorities (if the teachers and school authorities "understood" their problems from their point of view).

In the context of the perceptions of justice, Decety and Yoder (2016) have reported that while cognitive empathy presented as a significant predictor of sensitivity to justice, emotional empathy was not connected to such sensitivity. Thus, they posited that to "promote justice motivation, it may be more effective to encourage perspective taking and reasoning to induce concern for others than emphasizing emotional sharing with the misfortune of others" (Decety & Yoder, 2016, p. 1). While the arguments by Decety and Yoder are relevant while deciding on the salient dimension of empathic behavior, it is interesting to note that this study established that the converse of their arguments also holds true within the context of school organizations. While Decety and Yoder had posited on the predictive nature of cognitive empathy, the current study found that students' perceptions of cognitive empathy of school authorities could be predicted through the perceptions of the extant justice system in schools.

The results from the study can be interpreted to conclude that the current scale is an effective measure of empathic organizational justice system in schools, since the items in the scale were significant predictors of perceptions of the empathic nature of the school authorities. This finding is significant because it establishes the importance of adequate

organizational justice systems in schools to augment students' perceptions about the empathic nature of the school authorities. When students perceive school justice systems to be fair, just, respectful, and designed with the honest intentions to help them, it leads to perceptions of empathic school authorities who are interested in their well-being. Such perceptions lead to an enhancement of trust in school authorities as well as a positive world view for their future lives. Conversely, school organizational justice systems that are unfair, biased, retributive, and designed with the objective of ensuring strict conformity led to feelings of cynicism, mistrust, and hopelessness.

### **Validity and Significance of the Scale**

The present scale had been developed to measure empathy driven school organizational justice systems. The scale developed in this study was found to be statistically reliable and valid in measuring, which meant that the scale measured the construct that it was supposed to measure and was consistent with such measurement. The 17 items of the scale were loaded on to three components: respect, positivity, and equality. The three components represented very important dimensions of a school organizational justice systems and determined whether such systems could be described as empathic or otherwise. This was further established by the fact that all the three components were found to be significant predictors of the students' perceptions about the empathic nature of the school authorities within this study.

The component equality consisted of six items, all of which presented with high factor loadings ( $>.8$ ) in this study. The component equality measured whether the school justice systems treated all children equally, with rules applied to all without exception. Further, it also measured whether decisions of school authorities were unbiased and factual, and whether the system of rewards and punishments were fair. When the items of this component were contextualized within the theoretical dimensions of organizational justice, they represented characteristics of procedural and distributive justice. Specifically, they represented the students' perceptions of the equality and fairness of the process of organizational justice that is followed in a school (procedural justice) and whether the outcomes of such processes were fair (distributive justice). If children perceived that the justice system was fair and applied equally to all students without exception, then they developed a respect for the rules and abided by them even if they felt that the rules were tough. Moreover, unequal treatment of children encouraged feelings of despondency and frustration within them, which might lead to anger against the system; very often such anger manifests in undesired outcomes like juvenile delinquency or violence against others or even oneself. Consequently, an effective justice system should treat all children equally and fairly without the influence of biases.

The component respect consisted of five items and the items presented with very high factor loadings ( $>.9$ ). This component measured whether the process followed by the school organizational justice systems was respectful toward students and sought to correct any misdemeanor without resorting to insults, vilification, psychological or physical torture, and or violence. The component respect largely represented dimensions of interactional and informational justice. Respect within school organizational justice systems was important to school outcomes because in asymmetric, power-loaded systems like schools, the power is often misused, which leads to catastrophic consequences. Schools

should strive to correct students without branding them with undesirable adjectives. Moreover, students will conform to rules when the process is transparent, and the rules and regulations are clearly communicated. If school justice systems are retributive and seek to control through the fear of punishments, then students may experience school life in a fight-or-flight mode, which could lead to avoiding any kind of risks or even encouraging rebellious behavior. Such situations are dysfunctional and lead to compromised school outcomes.

The component positivity measured whether the school justice system was positive in nature and sought to promote restorative, interactional, and relational justice. The component consisted of six items all of which presented with high factor loadings (>.8) in the study. The items within this component measured whether the schools were concerned and interested in the well-being of the students and tried to correct misdemeanors through a process that involved an attempt to understand the reasons behind students' behavior. Further, the component measured if the process of correction involved interactions with students to apprise them about their behavior while avoiding punishments and rewarding improvements. Importantly, positive school organizational justice systems did not shame students deliberately or otherwise. Shaming in schools might occur without deliberate attempts to insult or disrespect students individually. For example, low scorers in examinations might be shamed if the school puts up the test scores and class rank on a public notice board or if the school has a strict rule of checking uniforms every morning wherein children who can't afford multiple sets of uniforms might harbor a feeling of shame. Thus, school rules and regulations need to be positive in nature and seek to nurture students and enhance their confidence.

Empathy is an important characteristic of school organizations. The role of empathy is particularly enhanced within the organizational justice systems in school with the reasons being the asymmetric power structures in school organizations are associated closely with the lack of feedback and limited options of remedial action for students who might feel that they have been unfairly treated. Lack of empathy, cruelty, and retributive school justice systems have the potential to destroy healthy young lives. Moreover, such systems also have the potential to stifle empathic reactions of perfectly good and kind teachers and school administrators. The scale that is being presented through this study provides an important instrument to evaluate empathic disposition of school organizational justice systems. Such evaluation will help in the much-needed assessment of school justice systems and ensure that such systems are fundamentally driven by empathic considerations. In this context the scale can be used by individual schools to evaluate the empathic nature of their existing organizational justice systems, as well as by governments, statutory authorities, or school councils to periodically evaluate the empathic nature of the school systems under their jurisdiction to formulate policy frameworks that enhance and sustain empathy within such systems. In this regard, this scale can provide a benchmark, or at the least a point of reference, for such decision-making processes.

### **Scope for Future Studies**

The study was conducted in India with limited resources and a constrained sample size. A wider multinational, cross-cultural study might help in the augmentation of the scales. The relation between empathic organizational justice and leadership styles, as well as

organizational culture, may be further explored to gain insights on this important area of organizational behavior in schools.

### References

- Adams, J.S. (1965). Inequity in social exchange. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 2, 267–299. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601\(08\)60108-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601(08)60108-2)
- Anderson, S. E. (1999). What Is the Point of Equality? *Ethics*, 109(2), 287–337. <https://doi.org/10.1086/233897>
- Arneson, R. (2018). Dworkin and Luck Egalitarianism: A Comparison. In S. Olsaretti (Ed.), *The Oxford Handbook of Distributive Justice* (pp. 54–79). Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199645121.013.4>
- Batson, D. C. (2009). These things called empathy: Eight related but distinct phenomena. In J. Decety and W. Ickes (Eds.), *The social neuroscience of empathy* (pp. 3–15). MIT Press <https://doi.org/10.7551/mitpress/9780262012973.003.0002>
- Becker, L.C. (1990). *Reciprocity*. The University of Chicago Press.
- Berlin, I. (2002). *Liberty*. H. Hardy (Ed.), Oxford University Press.
- Bies, R. J. (2001). Interactional (in)justice: The sacred and the profane. In J. Greenberg & R. Cropanzano (Eds.), *Advances in organizational justice* (pp. 89–118). Stanford University Press.
- Bies, R.J., & Moag, J.S. (1986). Interactional justice: Communication criteria of fairness. In R. J. Lewicki, B. H. Sheppard, & B. H. Bazerman (Eds.), *Research on negotiation in organizations* (Vol. 1, pp. 43–55). Jai press.
- Blader, S. L., & Tyler, T. R. (2003). What constitutes fairness in work settings? A four-component model of procedural justice. *Human Resource Management Review*, 13, 107–126. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s1053-4822\(02\)00101-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/s1053-4822(02)00101-8)
- Brockner, J., Fishman, A. Y., Reb, J., Goldman, B., Spiegel, S., & Garden, C. (2007). Procedural fairness, outcome favorability, and judgments of an authority's responsibility. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(6), 1657–1671. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.6.1657>
- Butler, M., & Drake, D. H. (2007). Reconsidering respect: Its role in her majesty's prison service. *The Howard Journal of Criminal Justice*, 46(2), 115–127. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2311.2007.00460.x>
- Cartabuke, M., Westerman, J. W., Bergman, J. Z., Whitaker, B. G., Westerman, J., & Beekun, R. I. (2016). Empathy as an antecedent of social justice attitudes and perceptions. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 157(3), 605–615. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-017-3677-1>
- Casanovas, P & Poblet, M. (2008). Concepts and fields of relational justice. In P. Casanovas, G. Sartor, N. Casellas & R. Rubino (Eds.), *Computable Models of the Law* (LNAI 4884, pp. 323–339). Springer-Verlag. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-540-85569-9\\_21](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-540-85569-9_21)
- Cobb, A. T., Vest, M., & Hills, F. (1997). Who delivers justice? Source perceptions of procedural fairness. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 27(12), 1021–1040. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.1997.tb00284.x>
- Cohen, S.F. (1935). Transcendental Nonsense and the Functional Approach. *Columbia Law Review*, 35(6), 809–849. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1116300>

- Coloski, M-E. M. (2002). *An instrument to measure perceptions of organizational justice of middle school students* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. University of Connecticut.
- Colquitt, J. A. (2001). On the dimensionality of organizational justice: A construct validation of a measure. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*, 386–400. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.86.3.386>
- Colquitt, A. J., & Rodell, B.J., (2015). Measuring justice and fairness. In R. S. Cropanzano & M. L. Ambrose (Eds.), *The Oxford handbook of justice in the workplace* (pp. 187–202). Oxford University Press.
- Correia, I., & Dalbert, C. (2007). Belief in a just world, justice concerns, and well-being at Portuguese schools. *European Journal of Psychology of Education, XXII*(4), 421–437. <https://doi.org/10.1007/bf03173464>
- Cropanzano, R., & Molina, A. (2015). Organizational justice. In J. D. Wright (Ed.), *International encyclopedia of the social & behavioral sciences* (2nd ed., Vol. 17, pp. 379–384). Elsevier.
- Dai, L.T., & Xie, H.X. (2016). Review and prospect on interactional justice. *Open Journal of Social Sciences, 4*, 55–61. <https://doi.org/10.4236/jss.2016.41007>
- Daly, J. P., & Geyer, P. D. (1994). The role of fairness in implementing large-scale change: Employee evaluations of process and outcome in seven facility relocations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 15*(7), 623–638. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.4030150706>
- Datta, S. K., & Singh, K. (2016). Analysis of child deprivation in India: Focus on health and educational perspectives. *Economic Analysis and Policy, 50*, 120–130. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eap.2016.03.003>
- Decety, J., & Cowell, J. M. (2015). Empathy, justice, and moral behavior. *AJOB Neuroscience, 6*(3), 3–14. / <https://doi.org/10.1080/21507740.2015.1047055>
- Decety, J., & Yoder, J. K. (2016). Empathy and motivation for justice: Cognitive empathy and concern, but not emotional empathy, predict sensitivity to injustice for others. *Social Neuroscience, 11*(1), 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17470919.2015.1029593>
- Dworkin, R. (1981a). What is equality? Part 1: Equality of welfare. *Philosophy and Public Affairs, 10*, 185–246. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2264894>
- Dworkin, R. (1981b). What is equality? Part 2: Equality of resources. *Philosophy and Public Affairs, 10*, 283–345. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2265047>
- Echevarría-Guanilo, M. E., Gonçalves, N., & Romanoski, P.J. (2019). Psychometric properties of measurement instruments: Conceptual basis and evaluation methods – Part II. *Texto Contexto Enferm [Internet], 28*, e20170311. <https://doi.org/10.1590/1980-265X-tce-2017-0311>
- Ekman, P. (2003). *Emotions revealed: Recognizing faces and feelings to improve communication and emotional life*. Times Books.
- Elovainio, M., Pietikäinen, M., Luopa, P., Kivimäki, M., Ferrie, J. E., Jokela, J., Suominen, S., Vahtera, J., & Virtanen, M. (2011). Organizational justice at school and its associations with pupils' psychosocial school environment, health, and wellbeing. *Social Science & Medicine, 73*, 1675–1682.



- Esposito, L., & Villaseñor, A. (2017). Relative deprivation and school enrolment: Evidence from Mexico. *Review of Income and Wealth*.  
<https://doi.org/10.1111/roiw.12344>
- Ferguson, H., Bovaird, S., & Mueller, M. (2007). The impact of poverty on educational outcomes for children. *Paediatrics & child health*, 12 (8), 701–706.  
<https://doi.org/10.1093/pch/12.8.701>
- Folger, R., & Konovsky, M. A. (1989). Effects of Procedural and Distributive Justice on Reactions to Pay Raise Decisions. *Academy of Management Journal*, 32(1), 115–130.  
<https://doi.org/10.2307/256422>
- Folger, R., & Cropanzano, R. (1998). *Organizational Justice and Human Resource Management*. Sage Publications.
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(1), 39–50.
- Gibbs, C.J. (2014). *Moral Development and Reality* (3rd ed.). Oxford University Press.
- Greenberg, J. (1990). Organizational justice: Yesterday, today and tomorrow. *Journal of Management*, 16(2), 399–432. <https://doi.org/10.1177/014920639001600208>
- Greenberg, J. (1993). The social side of fairness: Interpersonal and informational classes of organizational justice. In R. Cropanzano (Ed.), *Justice in the workplace: Approaching fairness in human resource management* (pp. 79–103). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Greenberg, J., & Folger, R. (1983). Procedural justice, participation and the fair process effect in group and organizations. In P.B. Paulua (Ed.), *Basic group processes* (pp. 235–256). Springer
- Haines, K.R. & Case, S.P. (2015). *Positive youth justice: Children first, offenders second*. Policy Press.
- Hartley, C. (2014). Two conceptions of justice as reciprocity. *Social theory and practice*, 40(3), 409–432. <https://doi.org/10.5840/soctheorpract201440326>
- Hoffman, M. L. (1981). Is altruism part of human nature? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 40,121–137. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.40.1.121>
- Hoffman, M. L. (2000). *Empathy and moral development. Implications for caring and justice*. Cambridge University Press.
- Hofrichter, R. (1993). *Toxic struggles: The theory and practice of environmental justice*. New Society Press.
- Hopkins, B. (2002). Restorative justice in schools. *Support for Learning*, 17(3), 144–149.  
<https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9604.00254>
- Hosmer, T. L., & Kiewitz, C. (2005). Organizational justice: A behavioral science concept with critical implications for business ethics and stakeholder theory. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 15(1), 67–91. <https://doi.org/10.5840/beq20051513>
- Hoy, K.W., & Tarter, K.C. (2004). Organizational justice in schools: No justice without trust. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 18(4), 250–259.  
<https://doi.org/10.1108/09513540410538831>
- Human Rights Watch (2014). “*They Say We’re Dirty*” *Denying an Education to India’s Marginalized*. Human Rights Watch.

- Innaconne, L. (1975). *Education policy systems: A study guide for educational administrators*. Nova University Press.
- Kılıç, T., Bostan, S. & Grabowski, W. (2015). A new approach to the organizational justice concept: The collective level of justice perceptions. *International Journal of Health Sciences*, 3(1), 157–175. DOI: 10.15640/ijhs.v3n1a9
- Kristjaånsson, K. (2004). Empathy, sympathy, justice and the child. *Journal of Moral Education*, 33(3), 291–305. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0305724042000733064>
- Krishna, A. (2021). Over 33% of SC, ST, OBC students drop out in Class 10: UDISE+ Report. *news.careers360.com*. <https://news.careers360.com/udise-plus-education-minister-ramesh-pokhriyal-nishank-school-dropout-sc-st-obc-class-10>
- Kuo, S. L., & Nitz, J. C. (2011). Establishment of predictive validity and reliability of a newly developed fear of falling scale in Hong Kong. *Hong Kong Psychotherapy Journal*, 29(1), 2–11. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hkpj.2011.03.003>
- Lee, J. (2009, May 1). The president’s remark on Justice Souter. *The White House: President Obama*. <https://obamawhitehouse.archives.gov/blog/2009/05/01/presidents-remarks-justice-souter>
- Lerner, S. C. (1981). Adapting to scarcity and change (I): Stating the problem. In M. J. Lerner & S. C. Lerner (Eds.), *The justice motive in social behavior*. Plenum Press.
- Leventhal G. S. (1980). What should be done with equity theory? In K. J. Gergen, M.S. Greenberg, & R. H. Willis (Eds.), *Social exchange*. Springer. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4613-3087-5\\_2](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4613-3087-5_2)
- Lind, E. A., & Tyler, T. (1988). *The social psychology of procedural justice*. Springer.
- Lister, A. (2011). Justice as fairness and reciprocity. *Analyze and Kritik*, 33(1), 93–112. <https://doi.org/10.1515/auk-2011-0108>
- Lister, A. (2013). Reciprocity, relationships and distributive justice. *Social Theory and Practice*, 39(1), 70–94. <https://doi.org/10.5840/soctheorpract20133919>
- Merriam-Webster Dictionary. (n.d). Justice. In *Merriam-Webster.com dictionary*. Retrieved September 27, 2021, from <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/justice>
- Mayer, S. (2001). How did the increase in economic inequality between 1970 and 1990 affect children’s educational attainment? *American Journal of Sociology*, 107(1), 1–32. <https://doi.org/10.1086/323149>
- McFarlin, D., & Sweeney, P. (1992). Distributive and procedural justice as predictors of satisfaction with personal and organizational outcomes. *Academy of Management Journal*, 35(3), 626–637. <https://doi.org/10.5465/256489>
- Mehta, T., Young, H-J., Lai, B., Fuchenhu Wang, F., Kim, Y., Thirumalai, M., Tracy T., Motl, R.W., & Rimmer, J.H. (2019). Comparing the convergent and concurrent validity of the dynamic gait index with the berg balance scale in people with multiple sclerosis. *Healthcare*, 7(1), 27. <https://doi.org/10.3390/healthcare7010027>
- Mill, J.S. (2015). *On liberty, utilitarianism, and other essays*. Oxford University Press.
- Moorman, H. R. (1991). Relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviors: Do fairness perceptions influence employee citizenship? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76(6), 845–855. <https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0021-9010.76.6.845>

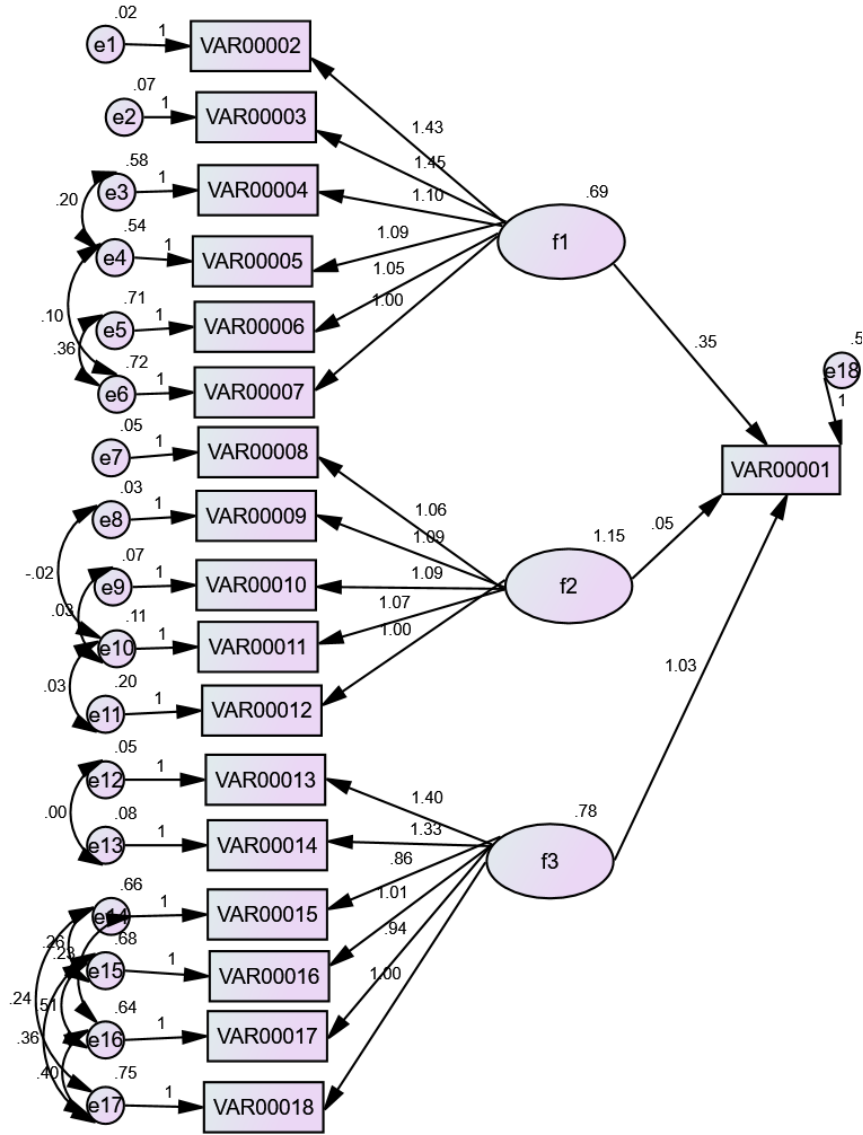
- OECD (2012). *Equity and Quality in Education: Supporting Disadvantaged Students and School*. OECD Publishing. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264130852-en>
- Petty, L. (2014, December 21). How to promote equality and diversity in the classroom. *High Speed Training*. <https://www.highspeedtraining.co.uk/hub/classroom-equality-diversity/>
- Powell, P. A., & Roberts, J. (2017). Situational determinants of cognitive, affective, and compassionate empathy in naturalistic digital interactions. *Computers in Human Behaviour*, 68, 137–148. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2016.11.024>
- Price, J.L., & Mueller, C.W. (1986). *Handbook of organizational measurement*. Pitman.
- Rawls, J. A. (1971). *A theory of justice (Revised)*. Belknap Press of Harvard University Press.
- Resh, N. (1999). Injustice in schools: Perception of deprivation and classroom composition. *Social Psychology of Education*, 3, 103–126. <https://doi.org/10.1023/a:1009675715255>
- Rogers, K.M., & Asforth, E.B. (2014). Respect in organizations: Feeling valued as “We” and “Me.” *Journal of Management*, XX(X). <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206314557159>
- Rousseau, D. M., Sitkin, S. B., Burt, R. S., & Camerer, C. (1998). Not so different after all: A cross-discipline view of trust. *Academy of Management Review*, 23(3), 393–404. <https://doi.org/10.5465/AMR.1998.926617>
- Roy, D. (2020). *Skinned knees and ABCs: The complex world of schools*. Routledge.
- Ryan, J. (2010). Promoting social justice in schools: Principals’ political strategies. *International Journal of Leadership in Education: Theory and Practice*, 13(4), 357–376. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13603124.2010.503281>
- Sadurski, W. (1985). *Giving Desert its Due*. Springer, Dordrecht.
- Segal, A. E. (2019, March 25). Fairness is good, but empathy is better. *Psychology Today*. <https://www.psychologytoday.com/us/blog/social-empathy/201903/fairness-is-good-empathy-is-better>
- Shibaoka, M., Takada, M., Watanabe, M., Kojima, R., Kakinuma, M., Tanaka, K., & Kawakami, N. (2010). Development and validity of the Japanese version of the organizational justice scale. *Industrial Health*, 48(1), 66–73. <https://doi.org/10.2486/indhealth.48.66>
- Siegrist, J. (2017). The effort-reward imbalance model. In C.L. Cooper & J.C. Quick (Eds.), *The Handbook of Stress and Health* (pp. 24–35). John Wiley & Sons. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118993811>
- Terzi, A. R Dülker, A.P., Altın, F., Celik, F., Dalkıran, M., Yulcu, N.T., Tekin, S., & Deniz, Ü., (2017). An analysis of organizational justice and organizational identification relation raised on teachers’ perceptions. *Universal Journal of Educational Research*, 5(3), 488–495. <https://doi.org/10.13189/ujer.2017.050320>
- Thibaut, J., & Walker, L. (1975). *Procedural justice: A psychological analysis*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Travis Burns W. R., & DiPaola, F. M. (2013). Organizational justice perceptions of high school teachers: Relationships to organizational citizenship behavior and student achievement. *American Secondary Education*, 42(1), 4–23.

- Tyler, T. R. (1987). Procedural justice research. *Social Justice Research, 1*(1), 41–65.  
<https://doi.org/10.1007/bf01049383>
- Tyler, T. R. (2007). Procedural justice and the courts. *Court Review: The Journal of the American Judges Association, 44*(1/2), 26–31.
- Tyler, T., & Lind, E. A. (1992). A relationship model of authority in groups. In M. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology*. Academic Press.  
[https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601\(08\)60283-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601(08)60283-X)
- Vermunt, R., & Törnblom, K. (1996). Introduction: Distributive and procedural justice. *Social Justice Research, 9*(4), 305–310. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02196987>
- Yadav, K. L., & Yadav, L. (2017). Organizational justice: An analysis of approaches, dimensions and outcomes. *NMIMS Journal of Economics and Public Policy, 2*(2), 44–63.
- Yilmaz, K., & Tasdan, M. (2008). Organizational citizenship and organizational justice in Turkish primary schools. *Journal of Educational Administration, 47*(1), 108–126.  
<https://doi.org/10.1108/09578230910928106>
- Young, I. M., (1990). *Justice and the Politics of Difference*. Princeton University Press.

Appendix

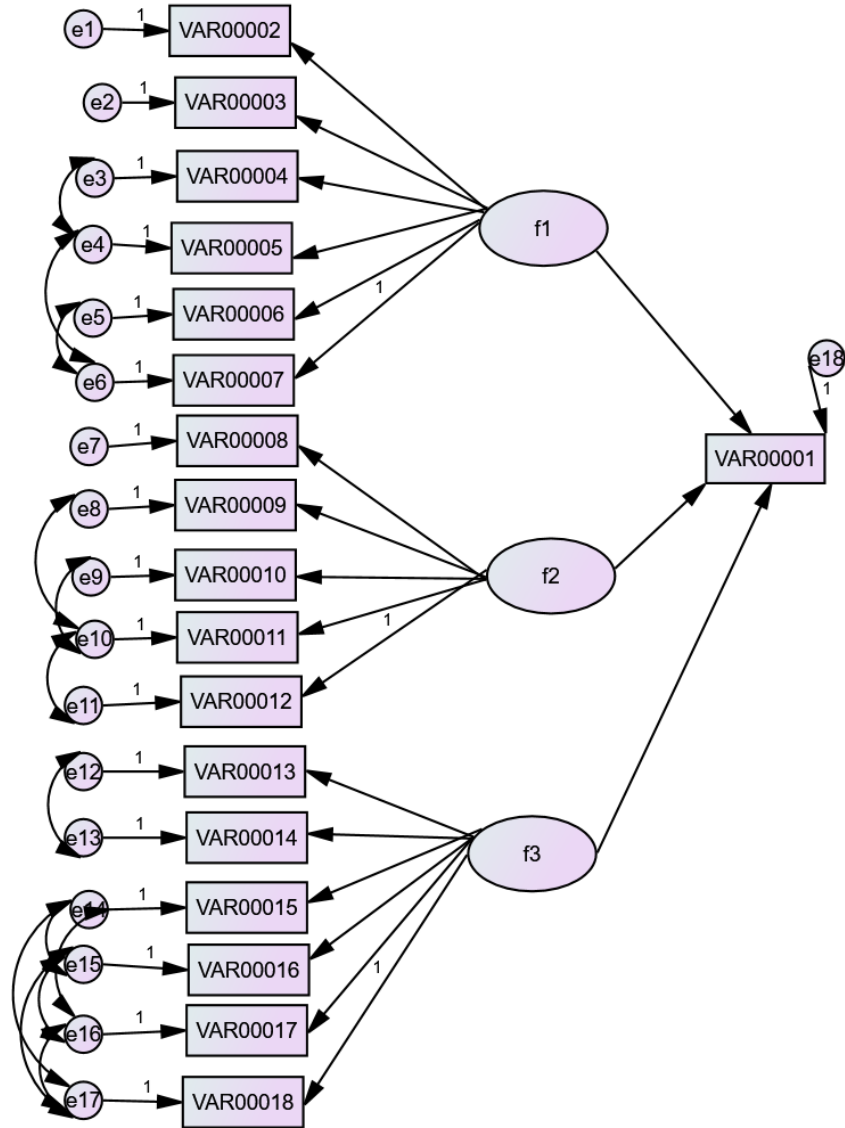
Figure 1

Path Analysis for Empathy Driven Organizational Justice Model (unstandardized)



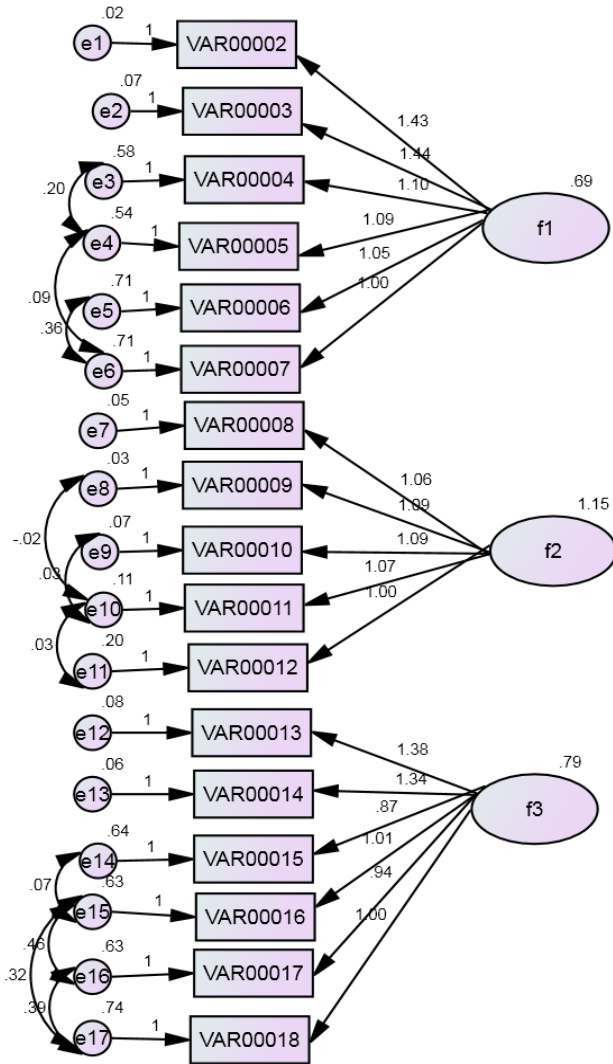
Note. F1: Equality, F2: Respect, F3: Positivity. VAR00001: Empathy-driven school organizational justice. Variables 2–18 are explained in Table 1.

**Figure 2**  
 Path Analysis for Empathy Driven Organizational Justice Model (standardized)



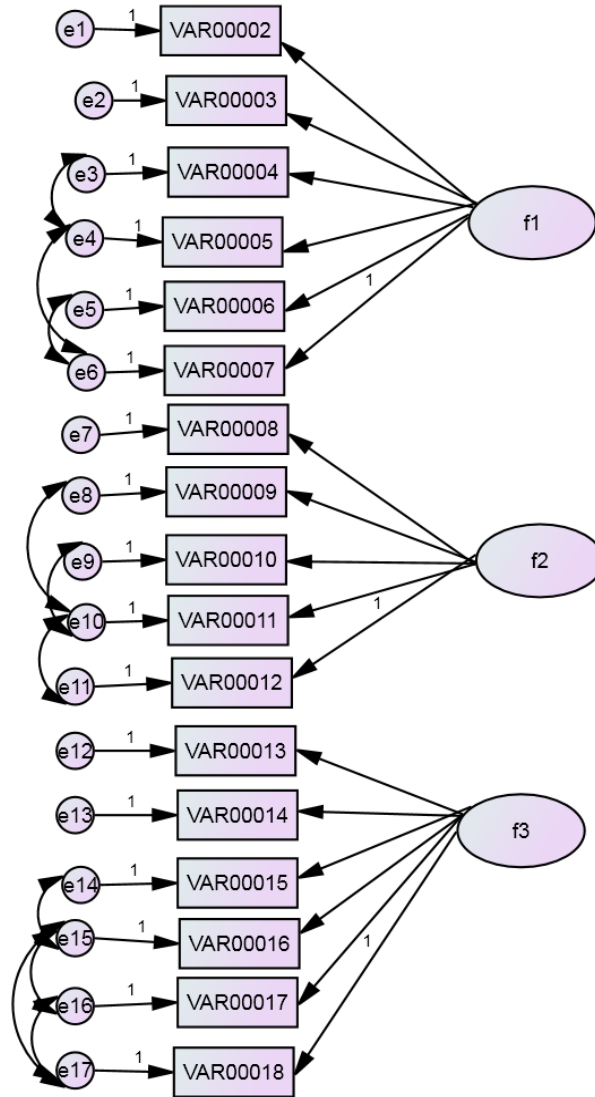
Note. F1: Equality, F2: Respect, F3: Positivity. VAR00001: Empathy-driven school organizational justice. Variables 2–18 are explained in Table 1.

**Figure 3**  
*Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Empathic Organizational Justice Scale for High School Students (unstandardized)*



Note. F1: Equality, F2: Respect, F3: Positivity. Variables 2–18 are explained in Table 1.

**Figure 4**  
*Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Empathic Organizational Justice Scale for High School Students (standardized)*



*Note.* F1: Equality, F2: Respect, F3: Positivity. VAR00001: Empathy-driven school organizational justice. Variables 2–18 are explained in Table 1.