

Teaching English Language Journal

ISSN: 2538-5488 – E-ISSN: 2538-547X – <http://teljournal.org>

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Please cite this paper as follows:

Zhaleh, K., Estaji, M., & Chory, R. M. (2025). Justice and fairness are not the same construct: Evidence from revalidating the teacher classroom justice scale on university EFL students in Iran. *Teaching English Language, 19*(1), 41-80. <https://doi.org/10.22132/tel.2025.473990.1675>

Research Paper

**Justice and Fairness are not the Same Construct:
Evidence from Revalidating the Teacher Classroom
Justice Scale on University EFL Students in Iran**

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Abstract

The teacher's being just in distributing outcomes, enacting procedures, and communicating with students is among the practices enhancing L2 teachers' pedagogical effectiveness and students' emotional and academic experiences. Studying students' perceptions of teacher classroom justice is of primary importance as it is among students' first priorities and expectations. Nevertheless, such studies are greatly lacking in the L2 literature, which might be mainly because there is a shortage of student-perceived classroom justice scales specifically designed and validated in L2 education. To address this issue, we revalidated the Teacher Classroom Justice Scale (TCJS) originally developed by Estaji et al. (2023) on Iranian EFL instructors. This

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study employed a sample of 318 EFL students drawn from the same context as the instructors' sample. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and reliability results provided strong empirical evidence that this scale has good psychometric properties to assess student-perceived classroom justice principles. To ensure its nomological validity, we examined its relationship with Chory's Classroom Justice (CJ) measures (Chory-Assad & Paulsel, 2004b; Chory, 2007) which have been among the most frequently used measures of student-perceived classroom justice/fairness in non-L2 domains. Correlational results approved the nomological validity of Teacher Classroom Justice Scale-Student Perceived (TCJS-SP), indicating this scale assesses a construct (i.e., classroom justice) associated with, but not identical to, the construct (i.e., classroom fairness) measured by Chory's CJ measures. These findings contribute to the hypothesized relationship between justice and fairness and the refinement of a valid classroom justice instrument to promote more empirical studies in L2 instructional contexts.

Keywords: Classroom Justice, Faceted Justice, Indirect Measure of Justice, Students' Justice Perceptions, Revalidation Study

Received: October 30, 2024

Accepted: January 25, 2025



The persistent calls for enacting justice in education (Molinari & Mameli, 2018; Sabbagh & Schmitt, 2016) and the growing enthusiasm for studying this concept (e.g., Jiang et al., 2024; Laeeque & Ali, 2024; Rasegh et al., 2023) demonstrate that researching and practicing justice have continued to be a focus of educational researchers and practitioners since 1970s (e.g., Deutsch, 1975). Studying students' perceptions of justice is of primary importance as justice is among students' first priorities and expectations (Bazvand & Rasooli, 2022; Mazzoli Smith et al., 2018). *Classroom justice* is a multidimensional concept, referring to perceptions that students maintain about fairness in communication and relationships with teachers (*interactional* dimension), classroom policies and procedures (*procedural* dimension), and class outcomes and resources distributed (*distributive* dimension) (Chory-Assad & Paulsel, 2004b; Chory, 2007).

Many empirical studies have assessed student-perceived classroom justice/fairness through measures featuring closed-ended items (e.g., Frisby et al., 2022; Grazia et al., 2024; Ren et al., 2023), with Chory's (Chory-Assad & Paulsel, 2004b; Chory, 2007) and Dalbert and Stoeber's (2002) instruments being the most frequently used measures. Rasooli, Zandi et al. (2023) recommend educational scholars extend the classroom justice theory by developing tools with improved evidence for validity and reliability to assess justice principles across various contexts of instruction. At the same time, student-perceived classroom justice scales specifically designed and validated in second/foreign language (L2) education are lacking. Nevertheless, studying justice principles (e.g., caring, equality, respect, equity, ethicality) in L2 instruction is significant as they can contribute to just L2 instruction (Nazari et al., 2023) and successful teacher-student relationships (Yang et al., 2021). Furthermore, teachers should elevate their professional skills beyond just good teaching to becoming pedagogically capable instructors (Khany et al., 2018; Soodmand Afshar et al., 2017). A behavior perceived by students and teachers as enhancing L2 teachers' pedagogical effectiveness is teachers' being just in the classroom (Sadeghi et al., 2023a). One of the few measures developed to measure justice in L2 education is that of Estaji et al. (2023), but it assesses teachers' perceptions toward their own classroom justice behavior. Scales comprehensively measuring students' perceptions of the degree of enactment of all classroom justice principles are lacking in L2 education.

To address the stated research lacuna, in this research, we revalidated the Teacher Classroom Justice Scale (TCJS; Estaji et al., 2023). Toward this end, the present study employed a sample of EFL students drawn from the same context as the instructors' sample (EFL teachers in Iran) used in the development of the TCJS measure. It examined construct validity and factor

structure of the Teacher Classroom Justice Scale-Student Perceived (TCJS-SP) through confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and psychometric tests of the relationships between the TCJS-SP and Chory's (Chory-Assad & Paulsel, 2004a, 2004b; Chory, 2007) Classroom Justice (CJ) measures. We tested the assertion that the TCJS-SP is a multi-dimensional measure of instructors' implementation of classroom justice principles that assesses a theoretical construct related to, but distinct from, the construct assessed by Chory's (Chory-Assad & Paulsel, 2004a, 2004b; Chory, 2007) CJ measures. In so doing, the hypothesized association between justice and fairness, as related but distinct constructs, was also examined, as is the claim that the enactment of justice principles influences or drives perceptions of fairness (Colquitt et al., 2015; Cropanzano et al., 2015; Goldman & Cropanzano, 2015; Kim & Leung, 2007). Our findings help provide empirical evidence to clarify the hypothetical link between fairness and justice as well as the development of a reliable and valid classroom justice tool tailored specifically for application in L2 instructional contexts. It is hoped that such conceptual clarification and scale development efforts propel future L2 researchers to undertake more empirical investigations in the emerging line of classroom justice research in L2 education.

1. Literature Review

1.1.Social Psychological Theorization of Justice

Classroom justice theory and research are based on *organizational justice* that Cropanzano and Greenberg (1997) describe as a social and subjective phenomenon concerning how just or unjust an employee perceives an act occurring in the organizational context (e.g., the workplace). Arguing that organizational justice principles can be applied to the instructional context, researchers began conceptualizing justice and fairness in the educational domain (e.g., Chory-Assad, 2002; Dalbert & Stoeber, 2005; Deutsch, 1975).

Decades later, scholars have continued to underscore the essentiality of examining justice and fairness in instruction (e.g., Laeque & Saeed, 2023; Rasegh et al., 2023; Wallace & Qin, 2021).

1.2. Classroom Justice Conceptualization & Dimensions

Classroom justice, as defined by Chory and colleagues, relates to the extent of fairness perceived to be present in classroom interactions, procedures, and outcomes (Chory-Assad & Paulsel, 2004b; Chory, 2007). Overall perceptions of fairness are arrived at by analyzing different classroom justice *domains*, *principles*, and *dimensions* (Rasooli et al., 2018). Classroom justice encompasses three dimensions: *Distributive classroom justice* involves the extent to which students perceive classroom resources, results, or rewards they receive (e.g., grade, affect, attention, opportunities) to be impartial, neutral, or fair. *Procedural classroom justice* is the degree to which students perceive classroom policies or procedures (e.g., attendance policy, grading criteria, information for exams) to be fair. *Interactional classroom justice* is about degree of fairness in the instructor's interpersonal relationships and communication with students as perceived by students (Estaji & Zhaleh, 2021a).

In contrast to these three classroom justice dimensions, *principles* are benchmarks or criteria used in implementing and/or judging fairness (Rasooli, DeLuca et al., 2023). Accordingly, the individual's perceptions of classroom justice rely on his/her perspective that the principles indicating appropriateness in classroom have been realized in the particular instructional context in which he/she is involved (Cropanzano et al., 2015).

Distributive justice includes the principles of *need*, *equality*, and *equity* (Adams, 1965; Rasegh et al., 2023). Interactional justice involves six principles, namely *propriety*, *truthfulness*, *caring*, *timeliness*, *respect*, and *justification* (Bies & Moag, 1986; Estaji & Zhaleh, 2021a; Tyler & Bies,

1990). Procedural justice encompasses the eight principles of *ethicality*, *correctability*, *voice*, *bias suppression*, *transparency*, *consistency*, *reasonableness*, and *accuracy* (Leventhal et al., 1980; Rasooli, DeLuca et al., 2019).

Many classroom justice studies have taken into account the justice principles that were originally developed in organizational theory (See Systematic meta-ethnography of Rasooli et al., 2018). However, as argued by justice scholars (Cropanzano et al., 2015; Grace, 2017; Resh & Sabbagh, 2016), there is still a need, especially for cross-cultural research, to gather more empirical evidence as to how these justice principles function across specific instructional contexts worldwide. Although the existing justice principles and measures can usually be adjusted to the given cultural or classroom context, on occasion, the appropriateness of principles are unique to a given context, reflecting the emic distinction in cross-cultural research undertakings.

The *domains* of classroom justice pertain to contexts or course elements in which justice is implemented or violated (Estaji & Zhaleh, 2022c; Rasooli, DeLuca et al., 2019). They are broadly categorized as *learning*, *teaching*, *assessment*, and *interaction* domains within which various subdomains exist—such as explanation of the topic, treatment of students, grading procedure, exam, opportunity to learn, teacher attention, interaction with students, and adaptation of teaching—as found in previous empirical investigations (e.g., Grazia et al., 2024; Jiang et al., 2024; Laeeque & Ali, 2024; Laeeque & Saeed, 2023; Rezai, 2022; Sadeghi et al., 2023a).

1.3. Classroom Justice in L2 Education

Studying justice in L2 education is particularly important due to the unique features of L2 teaching and learning that necessitate teachers' fair treatment of students (Chory et al., 2022). Communicating in the target language, which is achieved through recurrent teacher-student interpersonal interactions and students' active engagement with class activities, is both the instrumental means and end in L2 education (Mercer & Gkonou, 2020). The nature of L2 classes is essentially more social and interpersonal than other subjects (Mercer & Dörnyei, 2020).

L2 classes are characterized by more enjoyable, friendly, and comfortable learning environments (Zhaleh et al., 2022), and L2 students are aware that for functioning successfully in L2 classes, they need to actively engage in the course elements through their frequent participation and communication. As communication, relationships, and rapport between the teacher and students are integral to L2 education (Mercer & Dörnyei, 2020), how L2 teachers understand and treat their students can directly affect students' educational outcomes (Derakhshan, 2022). Hence, it is significant to study L2 students' perceptions of how (un)justly their L2 teacher treats them (Yang, 2021). More specifically, L2 teaching is relational in nature, which requires teachers to be just and fair in their communication and relationships with students (Chory et al., 2022).

Despite its essentiality in L2 teacher classroom practice, classroom justice has been expanded only very recently to the realm of L2 education (e.g., Lankiewicz, 2014; Sun, 2022; Yang, 2021; Wallace, 2018). The conceptual and empirical studies of Estaji and colleagues (Chory et al., 2022; Estaji & Zhaleh, 2021a, 2021b, 2022a, 2022b, 2022c; Estaji et al., 2023) also addressed many aspects of classroom justice little/not attended to by previous researchers. Particularly, Estaji and colleagues (1) studied not only the students' but also teachers' perceptions of justice, (2) developed and

validated a classroom justice instrument measuring teachers' perceptions, (3) conceptualized and studied classroom justice in the L2 education domain, (4) employed interviews or open-ended questionnaires to elicit audio and textual data from their participants, (5) adopted qualitative and mixed-methods research approaches, (6) did an experimental study, examining teachers' expectations, perceptions, and experiences of a teacher classroom justice training course, (7) studied classroom justice in the imposed online education context, (8) unveiled challenges faced by teachers when they implement justice in the classroom, (9) studied both justice and injustice, (10), unraveled students' accounts of the incidents, sources, and solutions to teacher's injustice in L2 classes, and (11) built a comprehensive and unique theory-based framework of classroom justice, encompassing *dimensions*, *principles*, and *domains* localized to L2 classrooms.

1.4. Classroom Justice and Fairness Conceptual Distinctions

Although the words *fairness* and *justice* have been utilized synonymously by organizational justice researchers, scholars have recently argued that they are related, but distinct, constructs (Colquitt & Rodell, 2015; Colquitt et al., 2015; Cropanzano et al., 2015). According to them, *justice* is the perceived degree that justice principles, conditions, or principles have been adhered to, and fairness is a "global perception of appropriateness" (Colquitt & Rodell, 2015, p. 3). Thus, the former (*justice*) refers to perceptions as to whether an entity follows principles of appropriateness (e.g., equity), whereas the latter (*fairness*) pertains to moral evaluations of the behavior or event (Goldman & Cropanzano, 2015). Furthermore, *justice* is purported to precede, influence, or drive *fairness* (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009; Colquitt & Rodell, 2015; Cropanzano et al., 2015; Kim & Leung, 2007). In other words, implementation of justice principles should encourage perceptions of fairness (Goldman & Cropanzano, 2015). Simply put, justice may not be another

word for fairness; rather, it may be a predictor of it. If the justice principles are perceived to be adhered to in the given context, individuals are hypothesized to perceive the event or their treatment as fair. However, if justice principles are perceived to be breached, people are expected to perceive violations of fairness (Cropanzano et al., 2015; Rasooli, Zandi et al., 2019).

Overall, justice scholars (e.g., Colquitt & Rodell, 2015; Cropanzano et al., 2015; Cugueró-Escofet & Rosanas, 2013; Goldman & Cropanzano, 2015) have collected evidence supporting the conceptualization of fairness and justice as distinct constructs in workplace and instructional settings. In this respect, previous empirical efforts have approved that students' perceptions of the violation or implementation of justice principles in a specific instructional context drive their perceptions of (un)fairness in that context (e.g., Gordon & Fay, 2010; Herr et al., 2024; Schmidt et al., 2003; Wallace, Qin, 2021). However, more evidence is required for considering this distinction valid in the L2 instructional context.

1.5. Classroom Justice and Fairness Operational Distinctions

Bearing in mind the definitional distinctions of justice and fairness, Colquitt and Rodell (2015) created a taxonomy of four justice measurement approaches. Categories are based on whether the measure emphasizes *justice* or *fairness* and whether it distinguishes among the justice dimensions (*facets*) or considers global (*latent*) perceptions. *Faceted justice* scales gauge dimensional distinctions among the justice types with items assessing specific justice principles, whereas *faceted fairness* scales gauge dimensional distinctions with items assessing global perceptions of appropriateness (e.g., "The rules and procedures are equally fair to everyone"). *Latent justice* scales measure justice as an overarching construct (without individual dimensions) with items assessing specific justice principles, whereas *overall fairness*

scales do not consider the distinction between the dimensions and pertain to a general perception of appropriateness (e.g., “My instructor is a fair person”).

1.6. Existing Classroom Justice Measures

Rasooli, Zandi et al.’s (2023) systematic review revealed that self-report questionnaires, comprised of closed-ended items, have been employed as the primary means to study student-perceived classroom fairness and justice. Chory’s (Chory-Assad & Paulsel, 2004b; Chory, 2007) and Dalbert et al.’s instruments (Dalbert & Stoeber, 2002) are the most frequently used measures of classroom justice. Although both measures adequately cover various classroom subdomains, Chory’s is better in this regard (Rasooli, Zandi et al., 2023). Chory’s scales measure students’ general experiences or evaluations of each dimension, only indirectly triggering consideration of the justice principles. As such, her measures are considered *faceted fairness* measures per Colquitt and Rodell’s (2015) typology.

To improve Chory’s (and others’) instruments, Rasooli, Zandi et al. (2023) suggest adding items that directly assess justice principles for the dimensions (*faceted justice*). In fact, measures been developed which assessed one or more of the classroom justice dimensions through some of the principles (e.g., Berti et al., 2010; Di Battista et al., 2014; Gorard, 2012; Kazemi, 2016; Sadeghi et al., 2023b; Tofighi & Ahmadi Safa, 2023). Nevertheless, none was a comprehensive measure of all classroom justice dimensions and principles within all classroom domains (i.e., learning, interaction, assessment, and teaching). Furthermore, majority of these scales have been developed in the West. To address these shortcomings in classroom justice measurement, Estaji et al. (2023) developed the TCJS.

1.7. Development of the Teacher Classroom Justice Scale (TCJS)

In conjunction with Rasooli, Zandi et al.'s (2023) advice to “enhance the validity evidence for fairness and justice instruments in classrooms by explicitly and comprehensively identifying justice principles and mapping these principles onto relevant classroom domains” (p. 11), Estaji et al. (2023) adopted the theory-based framework of Estaji and Zhaleh (2021a) to create the TCJS. This framework functions at three classroom justice levels, i.e., domains, principles, and dimensions. TCJS items assess the extent to which justice principles pertaining to the three dimensions are enacted within all classroom domains. Therefore, the TCJS is considered an *indirect faceted justice* measure.

The original 18-item TCJS was composed of 46 items which were derived and developed after Estaji et al.'s (2023) (1) careful reading of the classroom justice literature, (2) review of the existing measures of classroom justice, and (3) gathering of qualitative data through interviews from expert EFL teachers (Estaji & Zhaleh, 2021a, 2021b). To ensure content validity of the 46 items, Estaji et al. (2023) did an expert panel review by asking 10 applied linguistics university instructors, who were experienced in designing and validating scales, to assess the content relevance and language transparency of the items. The experts recommended modifications to the content and language of a few items.

Estaji et al. (2023) pilot studied the 46-item TCJS with 30 participants, and in the main phase of validating the scale, they collected data from 398 Iranian EFL teachers. Before analysis, they preprocessed the data for unengaged responses and missing data. They then conducted the first round of computing reliability, which led to deleting eight items. Next, after checking and approving sample adequacy, they conducted exploratory factor analysis through Principal Axis Factoring and Parallel Analysis on the remaining 38 items. The results suggested retaining only three of the

extracted factors, which contained 20 items. Next, a CFA was run on the 20 items, the results of which led to the elimination of two items and subsequent confirmation of the three-factor solution. Finally, acceptable discriminant validity and composite reliability (i.e., all above .70) were reported for each factor.

1.8. Comparing Teacher Classroom Justice Scale (TCJS) with Classroom Justice (CJ) Measures

Researchers consider various factors in the development of a justice or fairness measure (Colquitt & Rodell, 2015; Colquitt & Shaw, 2005) that determine the measure's unique characteristics as well as its strengths and weaknesses. These factors help distinguish the TCJS and CJ measures from each other in important ways.

The first factor is the dimension of justice to be assessed. Both the TCJS (Estaji et al., 2023) and the CJ (Chory-Assad & Paulsel, 2004b; Chory, 2007) scales measure all three classroom justice dimensions. The second factor is the context in which justice is to be measured. At an abstract level, the current research is concerned with validating a scale to measure justice in the instructional or educational context. More specifically, the TCJS assesses perceptions regarding the enactment of justice principles in an EFL university course taught by a particular EFL instructor. Chory's CJ measures assess the fairness of grades (distributive), course policies and processes (procedural), and instructor communication (interactional) in a specific course.

The third aspect of justice and fairness measures is whether the organization (e.g., university) or supervisor (e.g., instructor) is the source of (in)justice. Based on Colquitt et al.'s (2013) assertion that supervisor-(instructor-) focused evaluations of justice are potentially more salient, transparent, and interpretable than are fairness evaluations of the organization

as a whole, the TCJS (Estaji et al., 2023) and Chory's measures are primarily instructor-focused. All items in Estaji et al.'s TCJS are teacher-focused. Chory's (2007) interactional justice measure is instructor-focused. Chory's (Chory-Assad & Paulsel, 2004b) distributive justice scale may also be considered instructor-focused because student grades are ultimately at the instructor's discretion. Finally, their procedural justice measure varies in how instructor-focused it is, because it references behaviors and processes that vary in the extent to which they are under the given instructor's control. For instance, recitation sections that share a lecture component may have standardized policies, grading rubrics, and exams across sections.

Fourth, justice and fairness measures vary as to whether a direct or indirect approach is adopted. *Direct* measures assess perceptions of fairness using items that explicitly employ the term "fair(ness)" or its synonyms (e.g., "my instructor's grading is fair"). In contrast, indirect measures tap into perceptions that indicate justice principles have (or have not) been enacted. Thus, items in indirect measures do not include the word "fair(ness)" or its synonyms (e.g., "My instructor treats students with dignity;" Colquitt & Shaw, 2005). Chory's CJ measures are *direct* in that they assess the extent to which students perceive various instructional actions, outcomes, and structures as fair, whereas the TCJS is *indirect* in that it measures perceptions that the justice principles have been implemented.

The fifth factor is whether the items evaluate a specific event, multiple events, or the overall performance of an entity. Chory's (Chory-Assad & Paulsel, 2004b) distributive justice scale assesses specific events (grade on the most recent exam, projected course grade), whereas their procedural and Chory's (2007) interactional justice measures tap into overall fairness evaluations. Estaji et al.'s (2023) TCJS assesses instructors' implementation of justice principles in multiple events.

As recommended by Colquitt and Rodell (2015), construct definition and construct validity are crucial in developing a measure of justice and its items. Thus, in this paper, construct validity and factor structure of the TCJS-SP were examined using Chory's CJ measures. Specifically, the present study investigated the claim that justice, as measured by the TCJS-SP, and fairness, as measured by the CJ measures, are distinct, but related, constructs. By revalidating Estaji et al.'s (2023) TCJS on a sample of Iranian EFL university students, this paper further studied the hypothesized association of justice and fairness, continued developing the recent conceptualization of classroom justice in L2 education, refined a valid instrument to promote more empirical studies, and provided an evidentiary basis for classroom justice policy and practice in L2 and other educational settings. The following hypotheses guided the study:

- H1: The three-factor (distributive, procedural, and interactional) measurement model of the Teacher Classroom Justice Scale-Student Perceived (TCJS-SP) fits the data at an acceptable level.
- H2: The Teacher Classroom Justice Scale-Student Perceived (TCJS-SP) demonstrates acceptable psychometric properties.
- H3: Scores on the Teacher Classroom Justice Scale-Student Perceived (TCJS-SP) and the perceived Classroom Justice (CJ) measures are positively related at a moderate to strong level.

2. Method

2.1. Participants

Through convenience sampling, 318 Iranian university EFL students were recruited for participation in the study. The only criterion for selecting the participants was being a university EFL student in one of the universities in Iran. The justification for selecting a wide range of participants was to increase the generalizability of the study's results. Participants' demographic information is presented in Table 1.

Table 1.

Students' Demographic Information

Demographic information	Participants (frequency)
Gender	
Female	225
Male	93
Age	
Less than 20	20
20-29	236
30-39	49
40 or more	13
Educational Status	
Bachelor of Arts' Students	184
Master of Arts' Student	86
PhD Student/Candidate	48
University	
Allameh Tabataba'i University	79
Gonbad Kavous University	56
Golestan University	55
Khatam University	38
University of Kurdistan	36
Maragheh University	20
Other universities*	34
Self-perceived English Language Proficiency	
Beginner	5
Pre-intermediate	10
Intermediate	79
Upper-intermediate	100

Advanced	124
Majors	
Teaching English as a Foreign Language	260
English Language and Literature	27
Applied Linguistics	26
English Translation	5

*Other universities: They were 34 students from universities other than the six universities named in this table. The reason we created a category named "other universities" was that they were universities from which only few students participated in this study (e.g., Islamic Azad University), and thus, we aggregated the frequency of students from such universities.

2.2. Instrumentation

2.2.1. Demographic Information Scale

To gather such non-sensitive demographic information as gender, self-perceived proficiency level, university, educational status, age, and major from the participants, a demographic information scale was utilized (See Table 1 for a summary).

2.2.2. Teacher Classroom Justice Scale-Student Perceived (TCJS-SP)

In this paper, items of the TCJS, originally developed and validated (Estaji et al., 2023) to assess classroom justice as perceived by EFL teachers, were rewritten to assess EFL students' perceptions of this concept. The scale was renamed as TCJS-SP. Initially, each researcher of the present study rewrote the items individually. They subsequently discussed their revisions and (dis)agreements and then jointly finalized the revision of the items, and in this way, ensured language clarity (i.e., content validity) of the items. The scale includes 18 items assessing the dimensions of interactional (*Items 2, 3, 5, 6, 8, 9, 11*), distributive (*Items 4, 7, 10, 16*), and procedural (*Items 1, 12, 13, 14, 15, 17, 18*) justice. Students' answers to items ranged on a 5-point scale of 1 "Never" to 5 "Always." In an intervention study, Estaji & Zhaleh

(2022a) reported Cronbach's alpha of the TCJS as well as its dimensions at both pre-test and post-test phases ranged from .71 to .87.

2.2.3. Perceived Classroom Justice (CJ) Measures

Perceived procedural and distributive dimensions were evaluated through Chory's (Chory-Assad & Paulsel, 2004b) instruments, and perceived interactional justice was measured by Chory's (2007) instrument. The distributive justice scale was rooted in Adams's (1965) equity theory and related work by Deutsch (1985) and Homans (1961). It asks students to evaluate the fairness of the grades they had expected to obtain or been given in a particular class by comparing them to various referents (e.g., other students, performance in similar courses). The procedural justice scale assesses fairness of workload, schedule, course policies, and the like from students' perspective. Finally, the interactional justice instrument measures student-perceived instructor interpersonal treatment of students. The measures' reliability and validity have been demonstrated in multiple studies (e.g., See Chory et al., 2017; Rasooli, Zandi et al., 2023). Participants responded to the items on a Likert-type scale of 1 (Extremely Unfair) to 5 (Extremely Fair).

2.3. Procedure

The link of a Google Form, including all data collection instruments of this research, was provided to the potential participants by WhatsApp or email. Approximately, they needed between 10 to 15 minutes to complete the scales. Participants completed the measures in relation to one of their instructors in a university EFL class (e.g., general English, writing, Speaking class), not a content-based class in English (i.e., English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) context (e.g., language testing and assessment, psycholinguistics, discourse analysis). Following 1964 Helsinki's declaration

regarding principles of ethics in doing research investigations, prior to collecting any data, a consent form was signed by the participants, indicating that having been informed of the aim of this research, confidentiality of their data, anonymity of their participation, and their rights as research study participants, they willingly engaged in the present study.

2.4. Data analysis

CFA of the measurement model was conducted in IBM SPSS AMOS 26 software. Model fit was assessed based on the procedures and criteria recommended in the literature (Hair et al., 2010; Hooper et al., 2008; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2005). Specifically, the chi-square statistic (χ^2), the chi-square divided by degrees of freedom (χ^2/df), standardized root mean squared residual (SRMR), root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA), the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), as well as the comparative fit index (CFI) were examined and evaluated to determine model fit. Convergent validity (through checking factor loadings, the Average Variance Extracted (AVE), Cronbach's alpha, and Construct Reliability) and nomological validity (through running Pearson correlations among the TCJS-SP and CJ measures) were also examined to check the construct validity of the TCJS-SP measure.

3. Results

3.1. Confirmatory Factor Analyses (CFA)

Before running CFA, sample adequacy was checked against Osborne's (2014) recommendation of 10 participants per item. Given that the TCJS-SP has 18 items, a sample size of 180 is required. Thus, the sample of 318 participants was more than adequate for this study.

Next, to test the measurement theory upon which the TCJS-SP measurement model is based, CFA with maximum likelihood estimation was

conducted. The TCJS-SP measurement model is represented in the path diagram featured in Figure 1.

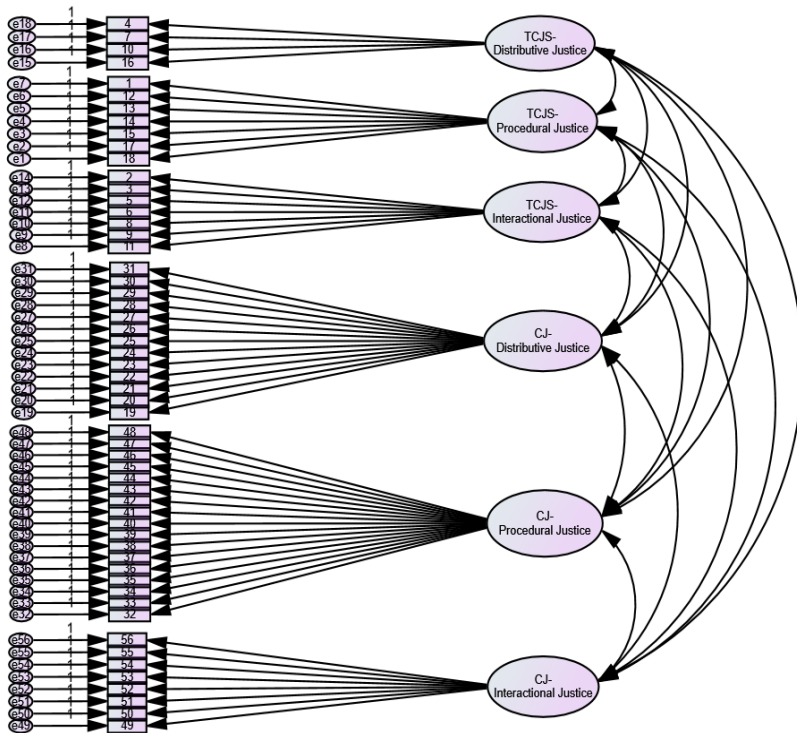


Figure 1. Path Diagram for the Teacher Classroom Justice Scale-Student Perceived (TCJS-SP) and Perceived Classroom Justice Measure (CJ) Measurement Model

This measurement theory proposes a set of relationships between the items in the TCJS-SP and the latent constructs, i.e., teacher distributive, procedural, and interactional justice that the items are hypothesized to represent. Items from the perceived CJ measures (Chory-Assad & Paulsel, 2004b; Chory, 2007) were also included in the measurement model to provide a more stringent test of the TCJS-SP’s construct validity. Prior research supports the validity and multidimensionality of the CJ measures (Chory-Assad & Paulsel, 2004b; Chory, 2007; Chory et al., 2017; Horan et

al., 2010). CFA was conducted on the six-factor TCJS-SP and CJ measurement model.

3.1.1. Assessing Model Fit

The CFA results demonstrated that the hypothesized six-factor model did not quite fit the data at an acceptable level [$\chi^2(1470) = 3618.53, p < .001, \chi^2/df = 2.46; SRMR = .06; RMSEA = .07; TLI = .84; CFI = .85$]. Based on an examination of the factor loadings, the item “If I criticize my teacher, he/she will think about his/her behavior or practice instead of dismissing me” (factor loading = .44), which exemplified the correctability principle, was deleted from the TCJS-Procedural scale, and the item “My teacher makes timely communication of his/her expectations with students at the beginning of the semester” (factor loading = .59), which exemplified the timeliness principle, was eliminated from the TCJS-Interactional justice scale. The factor loading (.43) for the TCJS-Distributive justice item “My teacher does not have a favorite student who he/she treats differently from other students in class,” also suggested its elimination. However, because there were only four items for this construct, the item was retained to statistically overidentify the construct so that a fit value could be computed (Hair et al., 2010). Finally, the modification indices recommended that model fit would be enhanced by letting some of the error terms covary. Therefore, the errors for five pairs of indicators were free to covary.

After these adjustments were made, the CFA was conducted a second time. Accordingly, it was found that the revised six-factor model fit the data at an acceptable level [$\chi^2(1357) = 3086.59, p < .001, \chi^2/df = 2.275; SRMR = .06; RMSEA = .06; TLI = .87; CFI = .88$], supporting the first hypothesis.

3.1.2. Assessing Construct Validity

To examine the construct validity of the TCJS-SP measure, convergent and nomological validity were examined.

3.1.2.1. Convergent Validity

First, for the convergent validity of a measure to be established, factor loadings should be statistically significant and at least .50 in size (ideally, .70 or greater in size; Hair et al., 2010). The CFA results showed that all the items loaded on their respective factors at the $p < .001$ level of statistical significance. With the exception of the TCJS-Distributive justice item retained for statistical identification, all factor loadings were greater than .62, with mean loadings of .72 for the TCJS-SP and .77 for the CJ measure. These results support the convergent validity of the TCJS-SP (and CJ) measures (See Table 2 and Appendix for the TCJS-SP and CJ factor loadings and items, respectively).

Table 2.

Teacher Classroom Justice Scale-Student Perceived (TCJS-SP) and the Perceived Classroom Justice Measures (CJ) Items and Factor Loadings

Item Number	TCJS-SP			Perceived CJ		
	DJ	PJ	IJ	DJ	PJ	IJ
4	.71					
7	.73					
10	.77					
16	.43					
12		.76				
13		.72				
14		.82				
15		.69				
17		.77				
18		.73				
3			.71			
5			.75			
6			.68			
8			.80			
9			.77			
11			.70			

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1	.67
2	.78
3	.78
4	.66
5	.77
6.	.73
7	.74
8	.77
9	.85
10	.71
11	.80
12	.75
13	.78
14	.62
15	.63
16	.74
17	.78
18	.76
19	.74
20	.73
21	.79
22	.76
23	.77
24	.78
25	.74
26	.78
27	.73
28	.71
29	.74
30	.76
31	.86
32	.89
33	.87
34	.88
35	.90
36	.86
37	.83
38	.77

Average	.45*	.56	.54	.57	.55	.73
Variance						
Extracted (AVE)						
Construct	.76	.88	.88	.95	.95	.96
Reliability (CR)						
Cronbach's	.74	.88	.88	.95	.95	.96
Alpha (α)						

Notes: For the TCJS, participants rated the frequency with which the instructor engaged in the given behavior from 1 (never) to 5 (always). For perceived CJ, participants rated the fairness of the statements for the given course from 1 (unfair) to 5 (extremely fair). After each TCJS item, the justice principle exemplified by the instructor behavior described in the item appears in parentheses.

*If only 3 items had been retained on the TCJS-DJ loading, its AVE would equal .54.

Second, the AVE for each latent construct serves as a summary indicator of convergent validity, with AVEs of .50 or higher suggesting adequate convergence. AVEs greater than .50 indicate that more than half of the variance in the items, on average, is explained by the latent construct. With the exception of the AVE for the TCJS-Distributive scale, all AVEs exceeded the .50 threshold for convergent validity.

Third, the measure's reliability estimate provides information relevant to convergent validity. Cronbach's alpha is widely used as an estimate of reliability, though a Construct Reliability (CR) estimate, calculated from each factor's squared sum of factor loadings and its sum of the error variance terms, is often used with SEM models such CFAs. In both cases, reliabilities greater than .70 indicate that the items consistently represent the same theoretical construct, providing evidence of convergent validity. Results of the current study indicate that the Cronbach alphas and CRs of the TCJS-SP and three CJ scales all exceeded the .70 thresholds for convergent validity. Furthermore, the TCJS-SP factors were intercorrelated ($r_s \geq .74$), as were the CJ factors ($r = .45$, $r = .54$, $r = .81$). In summary, all evidence suggests that the TCJS-SP (and CJ) measures demonstrate exceptional convergent validity. The second hypothesis is confirmed.

3.1.2.2. Nomological Validity

To further establish the construct validity of the TCJS-SP, its nomological validity was assessed by examining its relationship with the perceived CJ measures. Theoretically, instructors who engage in the behaviors described in the TCJS are expected to engender student-perceived fairness in the classroom. Pearson correlations among the TCJS-SP and CJ measures were conducted to investigate these proposed relationships.

Scores on the TCJS-Distributive instrument ranged from 1.00 to 5.00 (4 items, $M = 3.79$, $SD = .83$) as did scores on the TCJS-Procedural instrument (6 items, $M = 3.97$, $SD = .78$). Scores on the TCJS-Interactional instrument ranged from 1.17 to 5.00 (6 items, $M = 3.97$, $SD = .76$). Scores on the CJ-Distributive instrument ranged from 1.00 to 5.00 (13 items², $M = 3.66$, $SD = .80$) as did scores on the CJ-Interactional measure (8 items, $M = 4.01$, $SD = .90$). Scores on the CJ-Procedural instrument ranged from 1.24 to 5.00 (17 items, $M = 3.78$, $SD = .78$). In addition, the CJ factors were intercorrelated at moderate ($r = .45$, $r = .54$) to strong levels ($r = .81$).

Results of the Pearson correlations indicate that the TCJS-SP factors were positively correlated with the CJ factors, as predicted. The TCJS-Distributive, -Procedural, and -Interactional justice factors displayed their weakest relationships with the perceived CJ-Distributive justice factor. These correlations ranged from $r = .39$ to $r = .46$. In contrast, the TCJS subscales correlated strongly with the perceived CJ-Procedural ($r_s \geq .63$) and CJ-

² The last item listed in the perceived Distributive Justice Measure (Chory-Assad & Paulsel, 2004b, p. 273), was meant to be a criterion variable for checking the validity of the other 13 items in the measure. It mistakenly appears in the Appendix (p. 273) under the stem "The grade you will probably receive in this course compared to ...". As a result, the item reads "The grade you will probably receive in this course compared to ... the grade you will probably receive in this course" (p. 273). As such, this item was not included in the present study.

Interactional ($r_s \geq .64$) measures. Pearson correlations among the measures appear in Table 3. Hypothesis three is supported.

Table 3.

Pearson Correlations among the Teacher Classroom Justice Scale-Student Perceived (TCJS-SP) Factors and the Classroom Justice Measures (CJ) Factors

	1	2	3	4	5
Teacher Classroom Justice Scale (TCJS-SP)					
1 Distributive Justice	---				
2 Procedural Justice	.74	---			
3 Interactional Justice	.77	.83	---		
Perceived Classroom Justice (CJ) Measure					
4 Distributive Justice	.46	.39	.46	---	
5 Procedural Justice	.63	.72	.70	.54	---
6 Interactional Justice	.64	.73	.71	.45	.81

$N = 318$; All correlations are statistically significant at $p < .001$.

The findings related to convergent and nomological validity of the TCJS-SP suggest that the TCJS-SP is a measure consisting of three related, but distinct, internally consistent factors. Overall, these results support the construct validity of the measure.

4. Discussion

This study aimed to further establish the validity of the TCJS (Estaji et al., 2023). Toward this end, the validity of the TCJS, which has previously been supported with a sample of EFL instructors, was examined with a sample of EFL university students, and its relationships with Chory's (Chory-Assad & Paulsel, 2004b; Chory, 2007) CJ measures were assessed. Results provide strong empirical evidence that the TCJS-SP is a multidimensional measure assessing instructors' implementation of distributive, procedural, and interactional classroom justice principles. Consistent with studies highlighting the importance of assessing classroom justice with measures that take into account multiple perspectives (e.g., Ehrhardt et al., 2018; Sadeghi et al., 2023b; Sonnleitner & Kovacs, 2020), results of the present study highlight that the TCJS is a valid measure of teachers' perceptions (Estaji et

al., 2023) and its revalidated version (i.e., TCJS-SP) is a valid tool for measuring student-perceived enactment of justice principles in classroom.

The TCJS-SP is designed to measure the frequency with which instructors are perceived to enact various justice principles, whereas Chory's (Chory-Assad & Paulsel, 2004b; Chory, 2007) CJ measures is designed to assess the extent to which students perceive classroom procedures, course grades, and instructor communication as fair. As such, the TCJS-SP is an indirect justice measure, and Chory's scales are direct measures. Theoretically, the enactment of justice principles is expected to elicit perceptions of fairness (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009; Colquitt & Rodell, 2015; Cropanzano et al., 2015; Goldman & Cropanzano, 2015; Kim & Leung, 2007). In addition, justice and fairness are purported to be separate, yet related, constructs (Colquitt & Rodell, 2015; Colquitt et al., 2015; Cropanzano et al., 2015).

Consistent with these theoretical propositions, the CFA results showed that the items accessing classroom justice principles and fairness perceptions loaded on their a priori assigned factors. The present study also demonstrated that scores on the TCJS-SP and CJ measures were positively related at a statistically significant level, but these relationships did not indicate unity between the constructs. Supporting its validity, the TCJS-SP appears to assess a construct that is related to, but not identical with, the construct measured by Chory's perceived CJ measures.

Construct validity links psychometric properties of the scale to the theory or meaning behind it. The present study established the construct validity of the TCJS-SP through an examination of its convergent and nomological validity. Convergent validity was supported by the TCJS-SP's factor loadings, AVE, and its subscale reliabilities (Hair et al., 2010). The CFAs results indicated that the three-factor TCJS-SP model fit the data, suggesting that the items measure justice principles for the three dimensions of

classroom justice. Nomological validity was supported by the mentioned theoretically-consistent positive correlations observed between scores on the indirect TCJS-SP measure and the direct CJ measures.

5. Conclusion

Results obtained in the current study supported the acceptable validity and reliability of the revalidated TCJS-SP. Thus, it can be used to measure EFL university students' justice perceptions in specific L2 education contexts. In addition, the pattern of results suggests that the TCJS-SP assesses a construct that is related to, but not identical with, the construct measured by the perceived CJ measure. The TCJS-SP appears to measure perceived implementation of the classroom justice principles, whereas the CJ measures assess the perceived fairness of classroom instructor behaviors, outcomes, and processes. Overall, the current study, prior EFL classroom justice research, and the directions for future research presented here facilitate the development of evidence-based training, policy, and theory to enhance justice and fairness in our localized L2 education context, as well as other instructional settings.

6. Implications

Importantly, the correlations between the TCJS-SP and CJ scales were not so high so as to indicate that they are interchangeable. This finding underscores the importance of including direct and indirect justice measures in a single study, as recommended by Cropanzano et al. (2015). Because the TCJS-SP and CJ measures appear to assess different constructs, they may impact or be impacted by different variables and/or to different degrees. For instance, Ambrose and Schminke's (2009) empirical evidence suggests that perceptions of fairness may mediate the influence of classroom justice principles on student/teacher outcomes. Similarly, the meta-analysis of Colquitt et al. (2001) revealed the indirect procedural justice measure

accounted for only around half of the variance in perceived procedural fairness. These studies show that justice and fairness are empirically distinct (Karriker et al., 2017) and that the enactment of justice principles causes perceptions of fairness. As such, measures of justice and fairness complement each other, and ideally, both should be used in the same studies of organizational and classroom justice.

In line with Rasooli, Zandi et al.'s (2023) recommendation, the TCJS-SP was designed to assess the implementation of justice principles in the classroom, and the results are consistent with this interpretation. Although the observed results supported the TCJS-SP's validity, the construct measured by the TCJS-SP warrants further explication. For example, the TCJS-SP subscales correlated strongly with the perceived CJ-Procedural and CJ-Interactional measures, but more moderately with the CJ-Distributive measure, suggesting that the TCJS-SP assesses something that is more strongly predictive of students' perceptions of interactional and procedural justice than distributive justice. This pattern may be due to the CJ-Distributive scale dealing exclusively with the grade subdomain and being grounded in the equity principle, and the TCJS-distributive subscale only including one mention of grades (as subdomain) and one instance of equity (justice principle), both in the same item ("My teacher grades students based on their achievements").

The other TCJS-distributive items assess the equality principle in the instructor's distribution of attention, affect, and access to information. Furthermore, the TCJS-SP is designed to assess instructors' behaviors, as is the CJ-interactional measure and some of the items on the CJ-procedural scale. In contrast, the CJ-distributive scale only focuses on evaluating grades. As a result, scores on the TCJS-SP and CJ-interactional and CJ-procedural measures may at least partially represent a "halo" effect caused by other

instructor characteristics (e.g., charisma), as described by Colquitt and Shaw (2005).

7. Limitations and Future Research

As in any empirical investigation, this research has some limitations. First, the TCJS-SP was validated with a convenience sample of 318 participants due to practical considerations and availability. To more confidently generalize the current study results to the statistical population of L2 university students, future studies should revalidate the scale with larger samples and L2 learners of languages other than English, using random sampling strategies. They should also examine its validity in other instructional contexts, as well as with different subgroups of teachers (i.e., novices, experienced teachers, teacher candidates, in-service teachers, and teacher educators), students (i.e., students from different age groups, genders, cultures, those at school level, private language institutes, with learning difficulties, with exceptionalities, from different socio-economic backgrounds, linguistic backgrounds, educational backgrounds), students' parents, or external observers. Such future undertakings will contribute to making more generalizable conclusions regarding the validity and applicability of the TCJS-SP.

The validity of the TCJS-SP could also be enhanced by studying its correlational and predictive relationship with student outcomes assessed in prior studies that used Chory's CJ measures (e.g., student affective, behavioral, and cognitive learning, belief in a just world, wellbeing). Ideally, both the TCJS-SP and CJ scales should be included in the same study to compare their impact on student outcomes (e.g., student achievement, motivation, engagement) and further explicate the theoretical constructs they measure. TCJS-SP was a teacher-based measure of perceived justice, exploring students' views toward the teacher's just behavior. Future studies

can develop school/university-based measures of justice to examine how much justice is enacted or violated within a particular school or university.

This study only did a between-persons measure of classroom justice. Future studies can employ both between-persons and within-person bases for assessing classroom fairness and justice to understand how perceptions vary respectively across individuals and time. Such within-person studies can be longitudinal, exploring how an individual's perceptions of classroom justice changes over a specific span of time. Next, this scale measured perceptions of justice. Future studies can develop instruments on classroom injustice/unfairness, particularly exploring to what extent it predicts student deviant outcome variables (e.g., distress at school, aggression, resistance). According to Colquitt and Rodell (2015), the present study instruments were measures of experienced justice as they measured the past. Future studies can develop anticipatory measures of justice, assessing perceptions of justice incidents before their actually taking place (Shapiro & Kirkman, 1999).

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Appendix

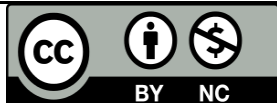
Items of the Teacher Classroom Justice Scale-Student Perceived (TCJS-SP) and the Perceived Classroom Justice Measures (CJ)

	TCJS-SP			Perceived CJ		
	DJ	PJ	IJ	DJ	PJ	IJ
4. My teacher grades students based on their achievements. (Equity)	*					
7. My teacher provides equal attention and help to both high- and low-achievers in our class. (Equality)	*					
10. My teacher provides students in the class with equal access to information on exam materials. (Equality)	*					
16. My teacher does not have a favorite student who he/she treats differently from other students in class. (Equality)	*					
12. If my teacher teaches a topic incorrectly, he/she will accept and attempt to provide correct information. (Correctability)		*				
13. My teacher gives all students equal opportunity and time to participate in classroom discussions. (Consistency)		*				
14. My teacher sets reasonable expectations for students' performance. (Reasonableness)		*				
15. My teacher gives students the opportunity to express their views and feelings regarding the scheduling of homework and topics he/she plans to set in the course. (Voice)		*				
17. My teacher explains everything clearly so students understand. (Transparency)		*				
18. My teacher allows students to express their concerns regarding the attendance policy. (Voice)		*				
3. My teacher provides students with sufficient and honest information regarding the criteria that he/she employs in grading students. (Sufficiency & Truthfulness)			*			
5. My teacher includes enough explanations and instructions on exams for students to show what they know and what they can do. (Sufficiency)			*			
6. My teacher specifies his/her expectations, syllabus, and grading criteria at the beginning of the semester. (Timeliness)			*			
8. My teacher has a caring & supportive relationship with his/her students. (Caring)			*			
9. My teacher is sensitive to his/her students' feelings, opinions, and rights. (Caring)			*			
11. My teacher adequately informs students of his/her class attendance policy. (Sufficiency)			*			
<i>Your grade on the last exam compared to ...</i>						
1. other students' grades on the exam				*		
2. the grade you expected to receive on the exam				*		
3. the grade you deserved to receive on the exam				*		
4. the effort you put into studying for the exam				*		
5. the grade(s) you received on other exams in this course				*		
6. the grade most other students at this university would have received on the exam				*		
<i>the grade you will probably receive in this course compared to...</i>						
7. the grades other students in the course will probably receive				*		
8. the grade you expected to receive in this course at the beginning of the semester				*		
9. the grade you feel you deserve to receive in this course				*		
10. the effort you put into this course				*		
11. the grade(s) you've received in similar courses				*		
12. the grade most other students at this university would receive in this course				*		
13. your grade on the last exam				*		
14. the missed work make-up policies					*	

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15. the course attendance policies					*
16. the instructor's ways of grading exams, etc.					*
17. the grading scale for the course					*
18. the course's schedule of topics					*
19. how the instructor conducts class discussions					*
20. the way the instructor calls on students in class					*
21. the way the instructor conducts class					*
22. the course syllabus					*
23. the scheduling of exams					*
24. the instructor's expectations of students					*
25. the types of questions on exams					*
26. the amount of work required to get a good grade in the course					*
27. the number of questions on exams					*
28. the level of difficulty of the course content					*
29. the amount of time you need to put into this course to receive a good grade					*
30. the scheduling of homework and other written assignments					*
31. The way the instructor treats students					*
32. The instructor's communication with students					*
33. The instructor's interpersonal interactions with students					*
34. The way the instructor listens to students					*
35. The way the instructor deals with students					*
36. The way the instructor talks to students					*
37. How the instructor considers students' opinions					*
38. How the instructor handles students who disagree w/ him/her					*



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