

Gender Stereotypes and the Relational Consequences of Interpersonal Justice Violations

by

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I understand that my thesis may be made electronically available to the public.

STATEMENT OF CONTRIBUTIONS

An earlier draft of this manuscript, written under the supervision of my thesis advisors Dr. D. Ramona Bobocel and Dr. Winny Shen, was submitted for review at the *Journal of Applied Psychology* (Mu, Shen, & Bobocel, under review).

ABSTRACT

A large body of organizational justice research has demonstrated that manager-subordinate relationships are damaged when managers violate justice rules. Yet, this relational damage may be unequal across managers. In the present research, we integrate research on organizational justice and gender stereotypes to examine how gender role prescriptions surrounding agency and communality may bias employee responses to interpersonal justice violations from female as compared to male managers. Across four studies using employee samples (total $N = 1300$), relational damage from interpersonal justice violations is exacerbated for female relative to male managers. Namely, employees were less trusting and committed to female managers who treat them disrespectfully during decision-making processes, but male managers did not suffer such relational damage (Studies 1 & 2). Moreover, moderated mediation analyses indicate that employees perceive interpersonal justice violations from female managers to be incongruent with low agency prescriptions for women, but not incongruent with high communality prescriptions (Studies 3 & 4). Taken together, our results reveal that female managers suffer more relational consequences for violating interpersonal justice rules than male managers because their behaviors are perceived as being excessively agentic. Our findings emphasize the importance of connecting organizational justice scholarship with the literature on gender stereotypes. More broadly, our research indicates that immaterial information about managers, such as their social category membership, can bias employee reactions to managers' justice-related behaviors.

Keywords: organizational justice, interpersonal justice violation, leader gender, prescriptive gender stereotypes

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Positive exchange relationships between managers and their subordinates are critical for organizational functioning and leadership effectiveness (e.g., Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Cropanzano & Rupp, 2008; Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005). However, exchange relationships can be damaged when managers are perceived as acting unfairly when workplace decisions are made (Colquitt et al., 2013, 2015; Rupp et al., 2014). Imagine approaching your manager to inquire about a promotion, only to have them scoff at the very possibility, derogate your job performance, and brusquely eject you from their office. You would perceive this treatment to violate rules of interpersonal justice—normative standards for respectful and dignified treatment—and lose trust in your manager as a result. However, would the relational consequences of such justice violations be the same if your manager were a man or a woman?

Although a significant body of organizational justice research describes how injustice damages manager-subordinate relationships, the emphasis in the extant literature has been on *whether* managers violate justice rules. Much justice research has demonstrated that manager adherence to justice rules fosters positive relationships between managers and employees, as employees reciprocate fair and just treatment with trust, commitment, and other beneficial responses (e.g., Bobocel & Mu, 2016; Colquitt et al., 2013; Rupp et al., 2014). Conversely, justice violations from managers are known to damage manager-subordinate relationships, as employees similarly reciprocate unfair treatment with negative responses such as reduced trust and commitment. Consequently, in the example above, justice scholars would predict that you would likely repay the rude and derogatory treatment from your manager with reduced trust and commitment.

However, we argue *who* is violating interpersonal justice rules also matters and can alter the consequences. Specifically, we posit that employees may apply different standards when evaluating and responding to justice-related actions, depending on gender of their manager. Unfortunately, limited justice research has examined how responses to justice violations could be shaped by the social category membership of managers (for exceptions, see Caleo, 2016; Marques et al., 2017; Zapata et al., 2016). Prior research indicates that leader gender is one salient social category that contextualizes how employees interpret and react to managerial actions (e.g., Eagly & Karau, 2002; Eagly et al., 1992; Heilman, 1995). In particular, employees often rely on prescriptive gender stereotypes—normative beliefs regarding how men and women should act—as standards to evaluate the behaviors of their managers (Biernat, 2018; Heilman, 2001, 2012). Thus, in the example above, we predict that subordinate trust and future exchanges with the manager would be worse if the manager were a woman rather than a man.

In the present research, we integrate gender stereotype and organizational justice theories to examine whether the relational damage from interpersonal justice violations differs for male and female managers, and to identify the mechanisms that give rise to these differential effects. We focus on interpersonal justice violations—disrespectful, rude, or derogatory behaviors during decision-making processes (e.g., Bies, 2001, 2015; Colquitt et al., 2015)—for two reasons. First, interpersonal justice violations are perceived by employees to be especially indicative of a manager’s underlying motives toward them (Scott et al., 2009), and thus have extensive implications for manager-subordinate relationships. Second, relative to the other justice dimensions, interpersonal justice violations from female managers are the most incongruent with stereotypical expectations for women (Caleo, 2016). In particular, behaviors that violate interpersonal justice rules (e.g., “rude” or “derogatory”) could be perceived by subordinates as

also violating gender-role prescriptions—that women should be communal (e.g., kind or caring) and that women should not be agentic (e.g., dominant or aggressive; Abele & Wojciszke, 2007; Prentice & Carranza, 2002). Thus, we further investigate whether the differential relational damage from interpersonal justice violations for female versus male managers can be explained by employees interpreting such violations as incongruent with communal, agentic, or both types of stereotypical expectations of women.

Overall, our research makes three contributions to the organizational justice literature. First, we demonstrate that salient social category information about managers can moderate established injustice–outcome effects. In doing so, we highlight how employees may use different standards based on societal rules and norms when evaluating the justice-related behaviors of various managers. In other words, we illustrate one way in which the same justice behaviors can have different meanings for employees, depending on who is enacting justice. Thus, theories and frameworks that explicate the relational consequences of injustice should incorporate social category information about managers, such as their gender.

Second, we answer recent calls in the justice literature to examine how the gender of justice agents can influence the reactions of justice recipients (Caleo, 2016). Recent experimental research has shown that when responding to hypothetical workplace scenarios, neutral observers evaluated fictitious female managers who engaged in interpersonally unfair behaviors more harshly relative to male managers who engaged in the same unfair behaviors (Caleo, 2016). In such experimental paradigms, evaluators have limited information about the fictitious managers, and are thus likely to draw on gender stereotypes to judge the justice-related actions of female managers (e.g., Landy, 2008). Corroborating and expanding on these results, our research suggest that gender stereotypes can also affect how employees evaluate justice violations within

long-term workplace relationships, despite employees having much more individuating information to judge the justice-related actions of their own managers than evaluators judging the justice-related actions of fictitious managers.

Finally, we take a deep dive into the mechanisms that underlie the unequal relational damage for female versus male managers. Prior theorizing suggests that interpersonal justice violations may be “less acceptable” when enacted by a female compared to a male manager, because such behaviors are incongruent with high communality expectations of women (Caleo, 2016; Caleo & Heilman, 2013). However, the communality incongruence hypothesis has yet to be empirically tested. Moreover, gender stereotypes prescribe women to exhibit high communality *and* low agency (Prentice & Carranza, 2002; Phelan & Rudman, 2010; Rudman & Glick, 2001), suggesting two ways in which behaviors from female leaders might be incongruent with stereotypical expectations. We examine whether employees perceive interpersonal justice violations from female managers to be incongruent with agentic, communal, or both forms of gender role prescriptions. Thus, our research uncovers the mechanism underlying a bias that may impede the career success of female leaders. Understanding the underlying mechanisms that explain why employees may be biased against female leaders when they engage in certain actions will be pivotal in formulating effective interventions mitigating such prejudice.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW & HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

Organizational justice perceptions are shaped by justice rules regarding how employees expect authority figures to behave when decisions about employees are being made or implemented (for reviews, see Colquitt & Rodell, 2015; Cropanzano et al., 2015). Among the four dimensions of organizational justice (i.e., distributive, procedural, interpersonal, informational), interpersonal justice focuses on rules that govern the fairness of interpersonal treatment that employees receive from authority figures (Bies, 2001, 2015; Bies & Moag, 1986). Generally, employees expect respectful, polite, and dignified treatment from managers during decision-making processes. Interpersonal justice violations occur when employees perceive their managers as violating these rules by acting in a rude, insulting, disrespectful, or derogatory manner (Bies, 2015; Colquitt & Rodell, 2015; Colquitt et al., 2015).

Although all types of justice violations can undermine manager-subordinate relationships (Colquitt et al., 2013), negative relational consequences should be especially potent when employees experience interpersonal justice violations. This is because in contrast to distributive justice (i.e., rules about how resources should be allocated; Adams, 1965; Leventhal, 1976), procedural justice (i.e., rules about how decisions should be made; Leventhal, 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975), and informational justice (i.e., rules about how decisions should be explained to employees; Bies, 2001; Greenberg, 1993), managers have the most discretionary control over actions that are relevant for interpersonal justice (Scott et al., 2014). Although managers do not always have direct control over how outcomes are allocated, how decisions are made, or how decisions can be communicated to their subordinates due to systemic constraints (e.g., formal organizational policies or protocols), they tend to have substantial autonomy over how they treat their subordinates. Actions relevant for interpersonal treatment are often only visible to the

recipients of the treatment, making them less conspicuous and collectively visible to others than actions relevant for the other dimensions of justice. As such, standards for interpersonal treatment are particularly difficult to enforce via formal organizational policies, and managers are free to adhere to or violate interpersonal justice rules at their discretion (Scott et al., 2009). Consequently, interpersonal justice violations can be uniquely interpreted by employees as intentional transgressions that signal disdain for the manager-subordinate relationship, which employees are likely to reciprocate by withdrawing from the manager-subordinate relationship.

Relational Consequences of Interpersonal Justice Violations

To assess the relational consequences of interpersonal justice violations, we focus on two key indicators of social exchange relationship quality—employee commitment and trust toward their managers. Both constructs are essential to maintaining high quality social exchange relationships between employees and their managers, as the former helps to ensure the exchanges will be reciprocated or ongoing and the latter supports both parties' willingness to be vulnerable to each other (Colquitt et al., 2014). Therefore, justice scholars often conceptualize these constructs as prototypical relational outcomes of employee justice perceptions (e.g., Colquitt et al., 2013; Rupp et al., 2014).

Commitment refers to the psychological attachment to an entity, such as a manager (Becker, 2016; Cheng et al., 2003). Social exchange relationships cannot occur without both parties maintaining commitment to the relationship, as such relationships require reciprocal exchange of resources and services over the long term (Blau, 1964). In the context of interpersonal justice, respectful and dignified treatment are valued by employees, and can be considered as symbolic or socioemotional resources that managers provide to employees. As recipient of such resources, employees feel obligated to reciprocate with greater commitment to

the relationship (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Cropanzano & Rupp, 2008). Conversely, disrespectful treatment from managers can also be seen as a symbolic gesture, but one that signals hostility and threatens employees' sense of safety. In exchange, employees reciprocate such mistreatment by reducing their commitment and withdrawing from the relationship.

Trust is defined as positive expectations about the actions of a target person, and a willingness to be vulnerable to the target's intentions and actions (Lewicki & Bunker, 1995; McAllister, 1995; Mayer et al., 1995). Given that social exchange relationships involve ambiguous and diffuse transactions of symbolic resources over the long term, engaging in such relationships requires individuals to be vulnerable to exploitation from their exchange partners (Blau, 1964). As such, high quality exchange relationships require individuals to trust that their exchange partners (i.e., managers) will reciprocate the transaction of resources and fulfill their obligations to the relationship. In the context of interpersonal justice violations, disrespectful or derogatory treatment from managers signal their hostility and willingness to exploit the goodwill of employees, which should make employees feel vulnerable and less willing to trust their manager. Similar to commitment, a lack of trust toward one's manager signals disengagement or withdrawal from the social exchange relationship (Holmes, 1981; Organ & Konovsky, 1989). Therefore, in line with the extensive justice literature highlighting the relational consequences of justice violations, we predict the following:

Hypothesis 1: Employee perceptions of interpersonal justice violations are negatively associated with employee (a) commitment toward and (b) trust in their managers.

The Moderating Role of Manager Gender

Although employees generally react negatively to justice violations, such reactions may further be shaped by social categorization and stereotyping processes (Marques et al., 2017;

Zapata et al., 2016). In particular, we posit that manager gender is an important factor that can shape employee reactions to justice violations. Gender is one of the most salient social categories that perceivers use to categorize others (Fiske, 1998; van Knippenberg et al., 1994), and gender stereotypes are easily and automatically activated in many social situations (Banaji & Hardin, 1996; Banaji et al., 1993). As such, employees often compare the behaviors of their leaders against standards prescribed by prescriptive gender stereotypes (Caleo & Heilman, 2013; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Heilman, 2012). Prescriptive gender stereotypes are injunctive social norms about gender roles (Cialdini & Trost, 1998; Eagly & Karau, 2002). Unlike descriptive gender stereotypes, which consists of beliefs about how men and women typically behave, prescriptive stereotypes consists of beliefs about how men and women *should* and *should not* behave (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Heilman, 2001, 2012; Rudman & Glick, 2001; Rudman et al., 2012). Similar to other forms of stereotypes, gender stereotypes reflect essentialist beliefs about differences in traits between members of distinct social groups, such as men versus women (Eagly et al., 2020; Prentice & Miller, 2006). Women are assumed to share some common underlying similarities (i.e., the essences) that are distinct from the common similarities of men, such as biological or behavioral traits.

Most research on gender stereotypes has found that the content of these stereotypes are typically clustered into two distinct themes—communion and agency (e.g., Eagly et al., 2020; Sczesny et al., 2019; Rucker et al., 2018). Generally, women are prescribed to exhibit high communality—social-oriented traits that emphasize concern for the welfare of others (i.e., being considerate, kind, and interpersonally sensitive; Heilman, 2012). In contrast, men are prescribed to exhibit high agency—dominance-oriented traits that emphasize control over others (i.e., being aggressive, assertive, and confident; Abele & Wojciszke, 2007; Carli et al., 2016; Prentice &

Carranza, 2002). Moreover, women face a double bind as they are also expected to refrain from engaging in agentic behaviors, and thus to exhibit *low* agency (Caleo & Heilman, 2013; Heilman, 2001; Johnson et al., 2008).

Much research has demonstrated that prescriptive gender stereotypes can perpetuate bias against women in leadership roles (for reviews, see Heilman, 2012; Biernat, 2018). As injunctive social norms, prescriptive gender stereotypes are deeply ingrained (Gill, 2004), resistant to change (Zehnter et al., 2018), and provide the standards dictating appropriate behaviors for women (Caleo & Heilman, 2013; Heilman, 2001, 2012; Eagly & Karau, 2002). Given that evaluators generally disapprove of any behaviors that deviate from injunctive norms (Cialdini & Trost, 1998), female leaders who engage in stereotype-incongruent behaviors (e.g., by being insufficiently communal or excessively agentic) tend to elicit significant social disapproval and backlash (e.g., Caleo & Heilman, 2013; Rudman & Glick, 2001).

We argue that interpersonal justice violations are likely to be viewed through a gendered lens by subordinates. This is because interpersonal justice rules overlap with the content of prescriptive gender stereotypes (Caleo, 2016). By definition, interpersonal justice violations constitute behaviors that are insulting, rude, disrespectful, or derogatory (Bies, 2015; Colquitt et al., 2015). Such labels are synonymous with behaviors that characterize low communality, such as being inconsiderate, unkind, or interpersonally insensitive. Thus, when faced with interpersonal justice violations, employees are likely to interpret their managers' actions as insufficiently communal. Additionally, rude or disrespectful actions are also similar to highly agentic behaviors, such as being aggressive, dominant, or authoritative. As such, employees can also interpret interpersonal justice violations as their manager being excessively agentic. Given that both low communality and high agency are incongruent with prescriptive stereotypes for

women (e.g., Biernat, 2018; Caleo & Heilman, 2013; Heilman, 2012), employees could interpret interpersonal justice violations from female managers as being incongruent with either agentic or communal prescriptions, viewing them as “not nice enough” or “too hostile.”

As a consequence of engaging in stereotype-incongruent behaviors, female managers who act in an interpersonally unfair manner are likely to be penalized for violating both justice rules and gender role prescriptions. In contrast, male managers are not typically expected to be highly communal, and are prescribed to be agentic (e.g., Prentice & Carranza, 2002; Zehnter et al., 2018). Thus, male managers who violate interpersonal justice rules may suffer some relational penalties for acting unfairly, but they should be penalized to a lesser extent than female managers because they do not violate gender role prescriptions. If so, the bias against interpersonally unfair female managers may stem from prescriptive gender stereotypes imposing more draconian standards of appropriate behavior for female managers compared to male managers.

Initial research examining how prescriptive gender stereotypes may influence reactions to justice violations revealed that neutral third-party observers react more negatively to interpersonal justice violations from female managers compared to similar violations from male managers (Caleo, 2016). Building on this foundational work, we posit that employees could also be biased in how they evaluate and react to the interpersonal justice violations committed by their own managers. Specifically, we predict that employees will perceive interpersonally unjust (e.g., disrespectful and rude) treatment from female managers as violating justice rules and breaching normative expectations about how women should behave. As a result, employees should be more likely to withdraw from the relationship, such that the relational damage from

interpersonal justice violations is exacerbated for female managers as compared to male managers.

Hypothesis 2: Managers' gender moderates the relationships between employee perceptions of interpersonal justice violations and (a) commitment toward and (b) trust in managers, such that the negative relationships are stronger among employees with female managers as compared to employees with male managers.

Disentangling Mediating Mechanisms

To understand why employees would react more negatively to interpersonal justice violations from female managers as compared to male managers, we also examine how employees use prescriptions from gender stereotypes as standards to evaluate interpersonal justice violations. In an initial attempt to examine mediating mechanisms, Caleo (2016) found that neutral observers viewed interpersonal justice violations from female managers as less “acceptable” than male managers. However, given that prescriptive gender stereotypes for women include both expectations of communality and admonishments against agency (Phelan & Rudman, 2010; Prentice & Carranza, 2002; Rudman & Glick, 2001), unacceptability in this context can be driven by perceptions that interpersonally unfair female managers are acting in ways that are incongruent with communal, agentic, or both types of stereotypical expectations. Thus, we attempt to uncover whether one or both forms of incongruence can explain the bias against female managers. Elucidating the mechanisms underlying such heightened reactions toward female managers is important not only from a scientific perspective, but also for developing workplace interventions or formulating policies to mitigate such bias.

As noted earlier, a significant body of research demonstrates that women are punished for exhibiting agency because agentic behaviors are incongruent with stereotypical gender role

prescriptions. According to role congruity theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002) and the lack of fit model (Heilman, 2001), women in leadership roles tend to experience more prejudice and disapproval than men in similar roles because leadership roles are believed to require agentic attributes, which are incongruent with low agency expected of women. For example, relative to male leaders, female leaders face more censure and disapproval from their subordinates (and other evaluators) for engaging in autocratic leadership (e.g., Eagly et al., 1992; Ronay et al., 2018), using assertive and dominant communication styles (e.g., Brescoll, 2011; Carli, 2001), and displaying dominance-based emotions (e.g., anger and pride; Brescoll & Uhlmann, 2008; Ragsin & Winkel, 2011). Similarly, research on the backlash effect (Rudman, 1998) has also found that women who engage in agentic behaviors, such as utilizing assertive impression management strategies, tend to have limited career advancement opportunities. Specifically, evaluators (e.g., hiring managers) perceive agentic women as lacking warmth, and actively discriminate against them in hiring and promotion scenarios (e.g., Phelan et al., 2008; Rudman & Glick, 2001; Phelan & Rudman, 2010).

Although less frequently examined in the literature, some research has also shown that women, as compared to men, are penalized for being insufficiently communal. Heilman and Chen (2005) found that female leaders who failed to help their colleagues were evaluated more harshly in terms of both competence and likability than male leaders who failed to help. Thus, female leaders experience censure and social disapproval for acting in either an excessively agentic or an insufficiently communal manner.

Extant theorizing on why female managers are evaluated more negatively than male managers for committing interpersonal justice violations has focused only on communal deficiencies (Caleo, 2016). However, whether the unequal relational damage from interpersonal

justice violations is explained by incongruence with communal gender stereotypes remains untested empirically. Moreover, given the extensive empirical evidence that has accumulated on bias against agentic female leaders, the bias against interpersonally unjust female managers could also be due to employees perceiving such managers to display behaviors incongruent with agency prescriptions. In the current investigation, we examine the mediating role of both types of stereotype incongruence. Specifically, we first examine whether women are more likely than men to be perceived as overly agentic or as insufficiently communal when they violate interpersonal justice rules. We then test the full moderated mediation model by also examining relationships between stereotype incongruence and relational outcomes (see Figure 1).

Hypothesis 3: Employee perceptions of interpersonal justice violations from female managers, relative to male managers, are more strongly related to perceptions of (a) agentic incongruence and (b) communal incongruence.

Hypothesis 4: Employee perceptions of managers' (a) agentic incongruence and (b) communal incongruence mediate the moderated relationships between interpersonal justice violations and manager gender on *commitment toward manager*, such that greater agentic and communal incongruence explain why the negative effect of interpersonal justice violations on commitment is stronger for female managers than male managers.

Hypothesis 5: Employee perceptions of managers' (a) agentic incongruence and (b) communal incongruence mediate the moderated relationships between interpersonal justice violations and manager gender on *trust in manager*, such that greater agentic and communal incongruence explain why the negative effect of interpersonal justice violations on trust is stronger for female managers than male managers.

Overview of Studies

To test our hypotheses, we conducted four complementary studies that focused on ongoing, long-term manager-subordinate relationships. In Studies 1 and 2, we examine whether the relationship between interpersonal justice violations and employee commitment and trust is moderated by manager gender (i.e., H1 & H2). Specifically, Study 1 uses cross-sectional archival data as a preliminary test of our hypotheses. Study 2 builds on these results by using lagged surveys to reduce common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003), and by providing evidence of divergent validity in examining whether the bias against unfair female managers is unique to interpersonal justice violations (versus distributive and procedural justice violations).

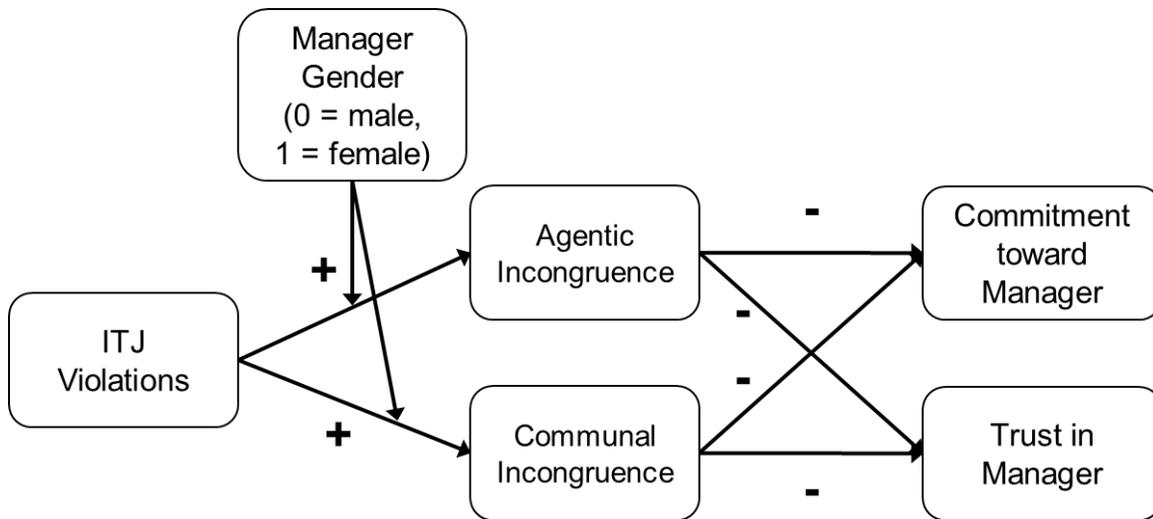
In Studies 3 and 4, we home in on testing agentic and communal stereotype incongruence as mediating mechanisms explaining the bias against unfair female managers (i.e., H3, H4, & H5). In Study 3, we tap into the cognitive processes underlying differential employee reactions to interpersonal injustice violations from female and male managers by using an event recall methodology. Participants recalled a recent interpersonal justice violation committed by their manager and whether they interpreted their managers' actions as being incongruent with agentic, communal, or both forms of gender role prescriptions.

However, a single event could be anomalous of managers' typical fairness actions and raises the question of whether subordinates may scrutinize female leaders' interpersonal justice behaviors more closely than male leaders. Thus, in Study 4, we conduct a weekly diary study over the span of 6 weeks, examining employee perceptions of interpersonal justice violations, perceptions of agentic and communal stereotype incongruence, and commitment and trust toward their manager during each week. This approach captures a broader array of justice-related events from managers, and allows us to examine how employees interpret interpersonal justice

violations from their manager during each week (i.e., within-person effects), as well as to examine their overarching interpretations of aggregate interpersonal justice violations (i.e., between-person effects) enacted by female as compared to male managers.

Figure 1

Theoretical Moderated Mediation Model



CHAPTER 3: STUDY 1

In Study 1, we used unpublished archival data from our laboratory as an initial test of H1 and H2. Data were compiled from cross-sectional surveys collected between 2015 and 2017. In these surveys, employees reported the demographic characteristics of their managers, perceptions of interpersonal justice, and their commitment and trust toward their manager. Given that statistical power can be a major concern for moderated multiple regression analyses (Aguinis & Gottfredson, 2010), we chose to combine the data across these surveys for a larger total sample size as well as a larger sample size within each manager gender subgroup.

Method

Participants and Procedure

Participants ($N = 455$) were working adults in the United States recruited via CrowdFlower¹, an online crowdsourcing platform. On average, participants were 32.6 years of age ($SD = 9.9$) and had been with their organization for 5.6 years ($SD = 5.4$). Most participants identified as male (62%), and White/Caucasian (73.8%; 9.3% as Hispanic/Latino, 6.2% as Native American, 4% as East Asian, 3.7% as Black/African, and 3% as other). Participants also reported the demographics of their direct manager, with 65% of participants having a male manager, who was, on average, 42.5 years of age ($SD = 10.0$). Moreover, participants had known their managers for, on average, 4.3 years ($SD = 4.9$).

Measures

Interpersonal Justice Violations. We used Colquitt et al.'s (2015) measure to assess employee perceptions of interpersonal justice violations from their manager (4 items; $\alpha = .91$). In

¹ CrowdFlower was rebranded as Figure Eight in April 2018 (<https://www.prnewswire.com/news-releases/crowdfLOWER-unveils-new-machine-learning-solutions-changes-name-to-figure-eight-300623582.html>), then acquired by Appen in March 2019: (<https://techcrunch.com/2019/03/10/appen-acquires-figure-eight/>)

these datasets, we also included items that measured interpersonal justice adherence (4 items; $\alpha = .73$). Conceptually, our main arguments center on the mismatch between justice *violations* and prescriptive gender stereotypes about women; therefore, perceptions of interpersonal justice violation are focal. However, as both violations and adherence were measured in our datasets, we chose to also include interpersonal justice adherence in our Study 1 analyses to isolate the effects of violations and to explore potential effects of adherence.

Participants indicated on a 7-point scale (1 = *to a very small extent*, 7 = *to a very large extent*) how their manager generally treats them when decision-making procedures are implemented. Sample item for violation: “Does he/she treat you in a rude manner?” Sample item for adherence: “Does he/she treat you in a polite manner?” (see Appendix A for study materials).

Commitment toward Manager. We used Cheng et al.’s (2003) 5-item scale ($\alpha = .90$) to measure the extent to which employees feel committed toward their manager. Participants responded using a 7-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*). Sample item: “I talk up my current supervisor to my friends as a great supervisor to work with.”

Trust in Manager. We used Roberts and O’Reilly’s (1974) 3-item scale ($\alpha = .86$) to measure the extent to which employees trust their manager. Participants responded using a 7-point scale (1 = *not at all*, 7 = *very much*). Sample item: “How free do you feel to discuss with your immediate supervisor the problems and difficulties in your job without jeopardizing your position or having it held against you later?”

Data Analyses

We analyzed our data using R version 3.6.2 “Dark and Stormy Night” (R Core Team, 2019). First, we conducted confirmatory factor analyses on measurement models, using the *lavaan* version 0.6-5 package (Rosseel, 2012), to verify the factor structure of our survey

measures. We then tested H1 and H2. Specifically, we conducted moderated multiple regression analyses to examine the moderating effect of manager gender on relationships between interpersonal justice violations and both commitment and trust toward one's manager. Given that interpersonal justice violations and interpersonal justice adherence were measured simultaneously in our datasets, we also included interpersonal justice adherence and its interaction with manager gender in our analyses to control for potential differential effects of justice versus injustice. Furthermore, given our focus on gender stereotypes, we also controlled for participant gender in all analyses². In these analyses, all continuous predictor variables (e.g., interpersonal justice violations) were mean-centered (Cohen et al., 2003).

Results

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

We tested a four-factor measurement model (i.e., interpersonal justice violations, interpersonal justice adherence, commitment toward manager, and trust in manager) with item-level indicators. Fit indices for this model were: $\chi^2(98) = 338.40$, $p < .01$, confirmatory fit index (CFI) = .95, root-mean-square error of approximation ($RMSEA$) = .07, standardized root mean square residual ($SRMR$) = .06. Overall, fit indices for this model met the acceptable goodness-of-fit criteria from Hair et al.'s (2006) recommendations ($CFI > .90$ and $RMSEA < .08$).

We compared the fit of this measurement model against four alternative models, including: (1) a three-factor model with interpersonal justice violations and adherence items loading onto the same factor; (2) a three-factor model with commitment and trust items loading onto the same factor; (3) a two-factor model with interpersonal justice violations and adherence

² Removing participant gender from analyses do not significantly alter interpretation of results, so we report results from analyses that include participant gender.

items loading onto the one factor, and commitment and trust items loading onto the other factor; and (4) an one-factor model with all items loading onto the same latent factor. Table 1 presents the comparative CFA results. Overall, results suggest that our theorized four-factor measurement model best fit our data, as evidenced by comparing fit indices against alternative measurement models and χ^2 difference tests. As such, we aggregated the measures into mean scores for our hypothesis tests.

Hypothesis Tests

Table 2 presents descriptive statistics and correlations for Study 1 variables. H1 was supported, as interpersonal justice violations were negatively correlated with both commitment toward manager ($r = -.26, p < .01$) and trust in manager ($r = -.43, p < .01$). Moreover, results from multiple regression analyses controlling for participant gender and interpersonal justice adherence also supported H1, as interpersonal justice violations negatively predicted both commitment ($b = -0.15, SE = .07, p = .03, 95\% CI [-0.28, -0.01]$) and trust ($b = -0.21, SE = .05, p < .01, 95\% CI [-0.32, -0.11]$).

We then examined whether employees differentially responded to interpersonal justice violations based on manager gender (see Table 3). In support of H2, manager gender moderated the relationship between interpersonal justice violations and commitment to manager ($b = -0.31, SE = .14, p = .03, 95\% CI [-0.59, -0.03]$). Simple slopes analysis indicated that this relationship was negative for employees with female managers ($b = -0.35, SE = .12, p < .01, 95\% CI [-0.58, -0.12]$), but attenuated for those with male managers ($b = -0.04, SE = .08, p = .59, 95\% CI [-0.21, 0.12]$; see Figure 2a). The same moderation effect was found for trust in manager ($b = -0.24, SE = .11, p = .03, 95\% CI [-0.46, -0.02]$). Simple slopes analysis revealed that the negative relationship between interpersonal justice violations and trust in manager was stronger for

employees with female managers ($b = -0.37, SE = .09, p < .01, 95\% CI [-0.55, -0.20]$) than for those with male managers ($b = -0.13, SE = .06, p = .04, 95\% CI [-0.26, -0.01]$); see Figure 2b).

Supplemental Findings

Although not hypothesized, manager gender also moderated the relationship between interpersonal justice adherence and commitment to manager ($b = -0.39, SE = .18, p = .03, 95\% CI [-0.75, -0.03]$); see Table 2). Follow-up simple slopes analysis showed that the positive relationship between interpersonal justice adherence and commitment to manager was stronger among employees with *male* managers ($b = 0.73, SE = .11, p < .01, 95\% CI [0.51, 0.95]$) than employees with *female* managers ($b = 0.34, SE = .15, p = .02, 95\% CI [0.05, 0.63]$); see Figure 3a). However, no moderation effect was observed for trust in manager ($b = -0.14, SE = .14, p = .32, 95\% CI [-0.42, 0.14]$).

Discussion

Study 1 provides initial support for our predictions that manager gender contextualizes the relational damage from interpersonal justice violations. We found that employees tend to be less committed and trusting toward female managers who violate interpersonal justice rules than those who adhere to the rules, whereas employees tend to be similarly committed and trusting toward male managers regardless of the extent to which they violate interpersonal justice rules. Additionally, our results support our arguments that the differential relational consequences for female versus male managers are primarily centered on interpersonal justice violations rather than interpersonal justice adherence.

Although our results suggest that manager gender could also affect the relationship between interpersonal justice adherence and employee commitment toward their manager, this exploratory finding did not hold for trust. Moreover, this moderation effect appears to be

different in form from the moderation effect on violations. The nature of this interaction is in line with some research suggesting that men can sometimes benefit from exhibiting high communality (e.g., for helping, Heilman & Chen, 2005; for taking parental leave, Krstic & Hideg, 2019), though this effect is likely nuanced as other research has found that men can also incur backlash for exhibiting high communality (e.g., Moss-Racusin et al., 2010). Thus, whether interpersonal justice adherence also yields differential relational consequences for male and female managers is beyond the scope of the current research, though we encourage future research to explore this possibility. In our subsequent studies, we focus on interpersonal justice violations.

Table 1

Study 1: Comparative Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Model	χ^2	<i>df</i>	$\Delta\chi^2$	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	AIC	BIC
4-factor	338.40	98	-	.95	.07	.06	19868.77	20090.07
3-factor ¹	756.30	101	417.90*	.86	.12	.09	20280.68	20489.69
3-factor ²	601.11	101	262.71*	.90	.11	.08	20125.49	20334.49
2-factor ³	997.19	103	658.79*	.81	.14	.11	20517.57	20718.37
1-factor ⁴	1887.67	104	1549.27*	.63	.20	.14	21406.05	21602.76

Note. $N = 455$. CFAs conducted using *lavaan-0.6-5* package in R Statistics 3.6.2 “Dark and Stormy Night”. AIC = Akaike Information Criterion (Akaike, 1987), BIC = Bayesian Information Criterion (Raftery, 1995). All $\Delta\chi^2$ tests compared 4-factor model against alternative models. 4-factor model: factor 1 = interpersonal justice (ITJ) violations, factor 2 = ITJ adherence, factor 3 = commitment, factor 4 = trust. All latent factors allowed to covary in all measurement models.

¹ 3 factors: F1 = ITJ violations & adherence, F2 = commitment, F3 = trust. ² 3 factors: F1 = ITJ violations, F2 = ITJ adherence, F3 = commitment & trust. ³ 2 factors: F1 = ITJ violations & adherence, F2 = commitment & trust. ⁴ 1 factor: all constructs from 4-factor model on the same factor.

* $p < .05$.

Table 2

Study 1: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among Variables

	\bar{M}	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Participant gender [†]	0.38	0.49	-					
2. Manager gender [†]	0.35	0.48	.25*	-				
3. ITJ adherence ^l	3.86	0.80	.07	.05	(.73)			
4. ITJ violations ^l	1.89	1.05	-.15*	-.11	-.53*	(.91)		
5. Commitment toward manager ^l	4.52	1.41	-.18*	-.05	.38*	-.26*	(.90)	
6. Trust in manager ^l	5.10	1.27	-.09	.02	.61*	-.43*	.69*	(.86)

Note. $N = 445$. Scale reliabilities (alphas) are reported on the diagonals. Higher scores on the variables reflect more of the construct. ITJ = interpersonal justice. [†] Gender was dummy-coded (0 = male, 1 = female). ^l Variables measured with 7-point scales.

* $p < .05$

CHAPTER 4: STUDY 2

As Study 1 made use of archival data, we collected additional data in Study 2 for purposes of replication. Additionally, we sought to reduce common method variance by using lagged surveys (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Finally, we also examined the divergent validity of our effects by examining whether the bias against unjust female managers is unique to interpersonal justice violations, relative to other forms of justice violations (i.e., distributive, procedural).

Method

Participants and Procedure

Participants were recruited from Amazon's Mechanical Turk via the TurkPrime data acquisition platform (Litman et al., 2017). Specifically, we recruited full-time working adults in the United States who reported to a direct manager. After determining eligibility and providing informed consent, participants ($N = 703$) completed the first survey in which they provided demographic information about themselves and their manager, and rated perceptions of interpersonal, distributive, and procedural justice violations from their manager. Four days after the initial survey, participants ($N = 420$; 59.7% retention³) completed the follow-up survey³, where they reported demographic characteristics of their manager again (for verification purposes), and completed measures of commitment and trust toward their manager. Upon completion, participants were thanked, debriefed, and paid \$4.00 USD as remuneration.

³ Compared to respondents who only completed the initial survey ($N = 283$ of 703), those who completed the follow-up survey ($N = 420$) were, on average, older ($\bar{M}_{diff} = 2.22$, $t(696) = 3.10$, $p < .01$) and reported lower levels of interpersonal justice violations from their managers ($\bar{M}_{diff} = -0.634$, $t(646) = 5.70$, $p < .01$), suggesting the presence of differential attrition bias. However, respondents who only completed the first survey did not differ from those who completed both surveys on their gender composition ($\chi^2(1) = 0.06$, $p = .80$), nor on the gender composition of their managers ($\chi^2(1) = 2.10$, $p = .10$). Moreover, given that we replicate the results of Study 1, in which attrition bias was not a concern, we do not view this threat as a plausible alternative interpretation of our results.

In line with best practices for ensuring data quality in survey data (Cheung et al., 2017), we excluded $n = 65$ participants based on data quality issues ($n = 17$ for failing attention checks; $n = 25$ for inconsistently reporting manager gender; $n = 23$ for inconsistently reporting manager race) and $n = 1$ for reporting their own gender as non-binary⁴. Thus, the final sample consisted of $N = 354$ participants. On average, participants were 36.3 years of age ($SD = 9.9$) and had been with their organization for 6.7 years ($SD = 5.0$). The majority of participants identified as male (59.9%) and White/Caucasian (74.3%; 9.9% as Black/African, 7.3% as Hispanic/Latino, 5.6% as East Asian, and 2.9% as other). For manager demographics, 61.5% of participants reported having a male manager; that their manager was, on average, 45.9 years old ($SD = 10.6$); and that they had known their manager for, on average, 4.7 years ($SD = 4.1$).

Measures

Our focal measures were the same as those employed in Study 1. All our measures exhibited high reliability: interpersonal justice violations ($\alpha = .94$), commitment toward manager ($\alpha = .93$), and trust in manager ($\alpha = .92$). We included measures of distributive and procedural justice violations as additional control variables (see Appendix A for study materials).

Distributive and procedural justice violations. We used Colquitt et al.'s (2015) distributive (4 items; $\alpha = .87$) and procedural (4 items; $\alpha = .87$) justice violation scales. Participants reported the extent to which the outcomes they receive from their managers generally violate distributive justice rules, and the procedures their managers use to make decisions about them generally violate procedural justice rules, respectively. Participants responded using a 7-point scale (1 = *to a very small extent*, 7 = *to a very large extent*). Sample

⁴ Given our goal of replicating Study 1, which only included participants who identify as male or female, we decided *a priori* to exclude respondents who report their own gender as non-binary.

item for distributive justice violations: “[To what extent] are those outcomes insufficient, given the work you have completed?” Sample item for procedural justice violations: “[To what extent] do your views go unheard during those procedures?”

Data Analyses

In line with Study 1, we conducted all analyses in R version 3.6.2 “Dark and Stormy Night”. First, we verified our survey measures via confirmatory factor analyses in *lavaan* version 0.6-5. Then, we tested H1 and H2 using moderated multiple regression analyses to examine the interaction between manager gender and interpersonal justice violations on commitment toward and trust in one’s manager, while controlling for participant’s own gender. We also included interactive effects of manager gender with distributive and procedural justice violations on our relational outcomes in these analyses to determine if our predicted effects are unique to interpersonal justice violations. All continuous predictor variables were mean-centered prior to analyses (Cohen et al., 2003).

Results

Confirmatory Factor Analyses

We tested a five-factor measurement model (i.e., interpersonal justice violations, procedural justice violations, distributive justice violations, commitment toward manager, and trust in manager) with item-level indicators. Overall, fit indices for this model met recommended thresholds for acceptable goodness-of-fit criteria (Hair et al., 2006): $\chi^2(220) = 579.79, p < .01$, $CFI = .95$, $RMSEA = .07$, $SRMR = .05$. We then compared the fit of this measurement model against seven alternative models, including: (1) a four-factor model with interpersonal and procedural justice violation items loading onto the same factor; (2) a four-factor model with interpersonal and distributive justice violation items loading onto the same factor; (3) a four-

factor model with procedural and distributive justice violation items loading onto the same factor; (4) a four factor model with commitment and trust loading onto the same factor; (5) a three-factor model with interpersonal, procedural, and distributive justice violation items loading onto the same factor; (6) a two-factor model with interpersonal, procedural and distributive justice violation items loading onto one factor, and commitment and trust items loading onto the other factor; and (7) an one-factor model with all items loading onto the same factor.

Comparative CFA results, summarized in Table 4, suggest that, relative to all alternative measurement models, our theorized five-factor measurement model had the best fit to our data.

As such, we aggregated the corresponding items to mean scores for hypothesis tests.

Hypothesis Tests

Table 5 presents descriptive statistics and intercorrelations among study variables. Replicating Study 1 results, H1 was supported as there were negative correlations between interpersonal justice violations with commitment toward manager ($r = -.36, p < .01$) and trust in manager ($r = -.51, p < .01$). Moreover, results from multiple regression analyses, controlling for participant gender and other forms of justice violations partially supported H1, as interpersonal justice violations negatively predict trust ($b = -0.30, SE = .07, p < .01, 95\% CI [-0.43, -0.17]$), but not commitment ($b = -0.10, SE = .07, p = .18, 95\% CI [-0.24, 0.05]$).

We then tested H2 (see Table 3). Consistent with our predictions and replicating Study 1 results, manager gender moderated the relationship between interpersonal justice violations and commitment to manager ($b = -0.36, SE = .17, p = .04, 95\% CI [-0.70, -0.02]$). Simple slopes analysis revealed a negative relationship between interpersonal justice violations and commitment toward manager among employees with female managers ($b = -0.36, SE = .15, p = .02, 95\% CI [-0.66, -0.06]$), but not those with male managers ($b = 0.00, SE = .09, p = .97, 95\%$

CI [-0.17, 0.16]; see Figure 2c). Similarly, manager gender also moderated the relationship between interpersonal justice violations and trust in manager ($b = -0.36$, $SE = .16$, $p = .02$, 95% *CI* [-0.67, -0.05]), with simple slopes analysis revealing a stronger negative relationship between interpersonal justice violations and trust in manager among employees with female managers ($b = -0.57$, $SE = .14$, $p < .01$, 95% *CI* [-0.84, -0.30]) than employees with male managers ($b = -0.22$, $SE = .08$, $p = .01$, 95% *CI* [-0.37, -0.06]; see Figure 2d).

Supplemental Findings

Although not hypothesized, results from Table 3 also indicate that manager gender moderated the relationship between distributive justice violations and commitment toward manager ($b = 0.38$, $SE = .13$, $p = .01$, 95% *CI* [0.11, 0.64]; see Figure 3b), though not for trust in manager. Simple slopes analysis revealed that distributive justice violations negatively predict commitment among employees with *male* managers ($b = -0.32$, $SE = .08$, $p < .01$, 95% *CI* [-0.48, -0.16]), but not among employees with female managers ($b = 0.05$, $SE = .11$, $p = .62$, 95% *CI* [-0.16, 0.26]). These results are in line with emerging research which finds that observers react more negatively when male leaders fail to distribute resources based on principles of equity than when female leaders fail to do so (Caleo, 2018). Finally, we note that manager gender did not moderate relationships between procedural justice violations and the relational outcomes.

Discussion

Results from Study 2 replicate results from Study 1, providing further support for our predictions regarding the unequal relational damage from interpersonal injustice for female compared to male managers. Although interpersonal justice violations generally fracture the manager-subordinate relationship, the detrimental effects of such violations are stronger among employees with female managers than those with male managers. Additionally, these results

continued to hold even when controlling for distributive and procedural justice violations. Furthermore, as we speculated, female managers appear to suffer greater relational damage only for violating interpersonal justice rules, and not the other justice rules. As such, interpersonal justice rules likely overlap with gender role prescriptions. Given that employees often use gender stereotypes to evaluate the behaviors of their leaders (e.g., Caleo & Heilman, 2013; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Heilman, 2012), the additional penalty that female managers face may stem from employees interpreting interpersonal justice violations as being incongruent with how women are expected to behave. Thus, we investigate incongruence with prescriptive gender stereotypes as the underlying mechanisms in our subsequent studies.

Table 3

Study 1 & 2: Regression Analyses for Hypothesis Tests

Variable	Commitment toward manager			Trust in manager		
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	95% <i>CI</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	95% <i>CI</i>
Study 1						
(Intercept)	4.78**	.08	[4.61, 4.94]	5.24**	.06	[5.11, 5.37]
Participant gender	-0.63**	.13	[-0.88, -0.38]	-0.40**	.10	[-0.60, -0.21]
Manager gender	-0.07	.13	[-0.33, 0.18]	0.01	.10	[-0.18, 0.21]
ITJ adherence	0.73**	.11	[0.52, 0.95]	0.89**	.09	[0.72, 1.06]
ITJ violations	-0.04	.08	[-0.21, 0.12]	-0.13*	.06	[-0.26, -0.01]
ITJ adherence × manager gender	-0.39*	.18	[-0.75, -0.03]	-0.14	.14	[-0.42, 0.14]
ITJ violations × manager gender	-0.31*	.14	[-0.59, -0.03]	-0.24*	.11	[-0.46, -0.02]
<i>R</i> ²		.20			.41	
ΔR^2		.01*			.01*	
Study 2						
(Intercept)	4.50**	.10	[4.30, 4.70]	5.10**	.09	[4.93, 5.28]
Participant gender	-0.14	.15	[-0.43, 0.16]	-0.17	.14	[-0.43, 0.10]
Manager gender	-0.10	.15	[-0.40, 0.19]	-0.002	.14	[-0.27, 0.27]
DJ violations	-0.32**	.08	[-0.48, -0.16]	-0.14†	.07	[-0.28, 0.08]
PJ violations	-0.19	.10	[-0.39, 0.01]	-0.32**	.09	[-0.50, -0.14]
ITJ violations	-0.003	.09	[-0.17, 0.16]	-0.22**	.08	[-0.37, -0.06]
DJ violations × manager gender	0.38**	.13	[0.11, 0.64]	0.08	.12	[-0.16, 0.32]
PJ violations × manager gender	-0.28	.18	[-0.63, 0.07]	-0.04	.16	[-0.36, 0.28]
ITJ violations × manager gender	-0.36**	.17	[-0.70, -0.02]	-0.36*	.16	[-0.67, -0.05]
<i>R</i> ²		.25			.36	
ΔR^2		.01*			.01*	

Note. S1 *N* = 445, S2 *N* = 354. Higher scores on the variables reflect more of the construct. ITJ = interpersonal justice. All continuous predictor variables were mean-centered, and all gender variables were dummy-coded with 0 = male and 1 = female. ΔR^2 represents change in model *R*² after including focal ITJ violations × manager gender interaction.

† *p* < .10, * *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01

Table 4

Study 2: Comparative Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Model	χ^2	df	$\Delta\chi^2$	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	AIC	BIC
5-factor	579.79	220	-	.95	.07	.05	25232.09	25537.76
4-factor ¹	1215.76	224	635.97*	.83	.11	.09	25860.06	26150.25
4-factor ²	1086.17	224	506.38*	.85	.10	.09	25730.47	26020.66
4-factor ³	723.36	225	658.79*	.93	.08	.06	25367.66	25657.86
4-factor ⁴	842.419	224	579.79*	.91	.09	.06	25486.72	25776.92
3-factor ⁵	1461.743	227	881.95*	.79	.12	.07	26100.04	26378.63
2-factor ⁶	1718.07	229	1138.28*	.78	.14	.08	26352.37	26623.22
1-factor ⁷	2949.76	230	2369.97*	.59	.18	.12	27582.06	27849.04

Note. $N = 354$. CFAs conducted using *lavaan-0.6-5* package in R Statistics 3.6.2 “Dark and Stormy Night”. AIC = Akaike Information Criterion (Akaike, 1987), BIC = Bayesian Information Criterion (Raftery, 1995). All $\Delta\chi^2$ tests compared 5-factor model against alternative models. 5-factor model: factor 1 = interpersonal justice (ITJ) violations, factor 2 = procedural justice (PJ) violations, factor 3 = distributive justice (DJ) violations, factor 4 = commitment, factor 5 = trust. All latent factors allowed to covary in all measurement models.

¹ 4 factors: F1 = ITJ & PJ violations, F2 = DJ violations, F3 = commitment, F4 = trust. ² 4 factors: F1 = ITJ & DJ violations, F2 = PJ violations, F3 = commitment, F4 = trust. ³ 4 factors: F1 = ITJ violations, F2 = PJ & DJ violations, F3 = commitment, F4 = trust. ⁴ 4 factors: F1 = ITJ violations, F2 = PJ violations, F3 = DJ violations, F4 = commitment & trust. ⁵ 3 factors: F1 = ITJ & PJ & DJ violations, F2 = commitment, F3 = trust. ⁶ 2 factors: F1 = ITJ & PJ & DJ violations, F2 = commitment & = trust. ⁷ 1 factor: all constructs from 5-factor model on the same factor.

* $p < .05$.

Table 5

Study 2: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among Variables

	\bar{M}	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Participant gender [†]	0.40	0.49	-						
2. Manager gender [†]	0.38	0.49	.24*	-					
3. DJ violations ^l	2.75	1.62	-.01	-.04	(.87)				
4. PJ violations ^l	2.84	1.30	-.04	-.06	.71*	(.87)			
5. ITJ violations ^l	1.72	1.26	-.01	-.16*	.58*	.62*	(.94)		
6. Commitment toward manager ^l	4.44	1.52	-.02	.01	-.43*	-.46*	-.36*	(.93)	
7. Trust in manager ^l	5.07	1.49	-.03	.07	-.48*	-.55*	-.51*	.75*	(.92)

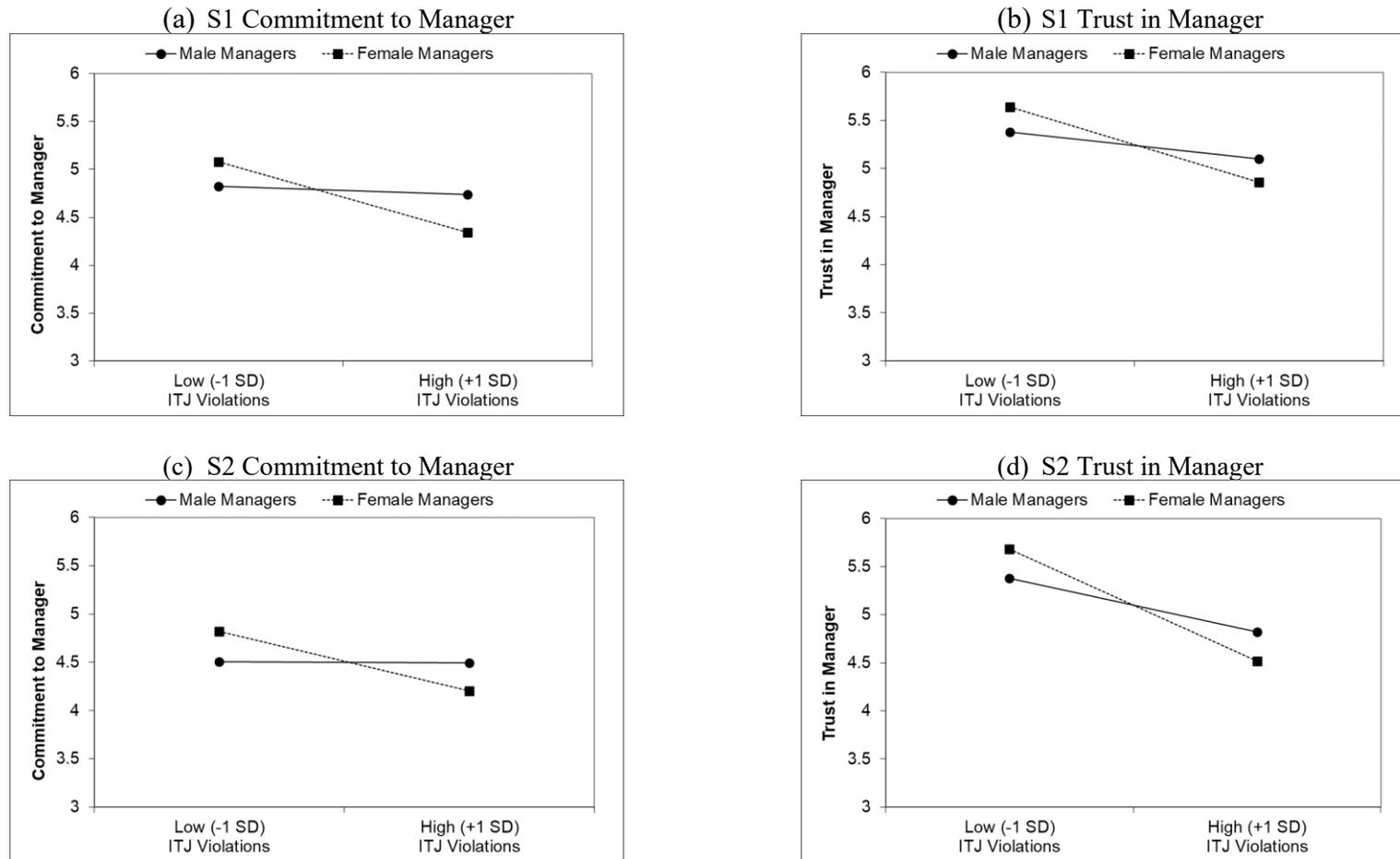
Note. $N = 354$. Scale reliabilities (alphas) are reported on the diagonals. Higher scores on the variables reflect more of the construct. DJ = distributive justice, PJ = procedural justice, ITJ = interpersonal justice.

[†] Gender was dummy-coded (0 = male, 1 = female). ^l Variables measured with 7-point scales.

* $p < .05$

Figure 2

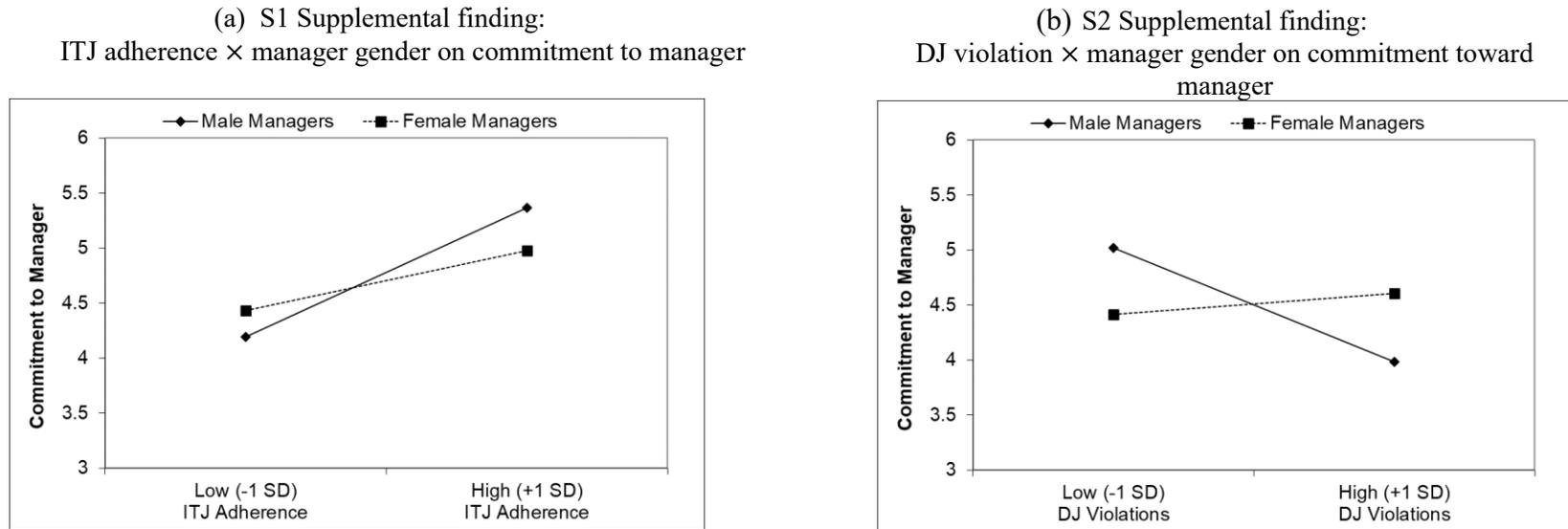
Study 1 & 2: Regression Analyses for Hypothesis Tests Predicting Commitment Toward and Trust in Manager



Note. (a) Study 1 interaction between interpersonal justice (ITJ) violations and manager gender on commitment to manager. (b) Study 1 interaction between ITJ violations and manager gender on trust in manager. (c) Study 2 interaction between ITJ violations and manager gender on commitment to manager. (d) Study 2 interaction between ITJ violations and manager gender on trust in manager.

Figure 3

Study 1 & 2: Supplemental Findings from Regression Analysis Predicting Commitment Toward and Trust in Manager



Note. (a) Study 1 supplemental finding of interaction between interpersonal justice (ITJ) *adherence* and manager gender on commitment to manager. (b) Study 2 supplemental finding of interaction between distributive justice (DJ) violations and manager gender on trust in manager.

CHAPTER 5: STUDY 3

In Study 3, we begin to dive into the mechanisms that may underlie the moderating effect of manager gender on the relational consequences of interpersonal justice violations by testing H3, H4, and H5. To do this effectively, we used an event recall methodology, asking employees to recall a recent interaction in which their manager behaved in an interpersonally unfair manner. We chose to focus on a single behavioral episode because it should be easier for participants to report on how they evaluate the actions of their manager during concrete or specific events, thus providing us greater insight into their cognitive processes (Kahneman et al., 2004). In keeping with our focus on a particular behavioral episode of an interpersonal justice violation, we asked participants to report the degree to which their managers' actions *during the recalled event* violated interpersonal justice rules.

Method

Participants and Procedure

Participants ($N = 312$) were recruited from Amazon's Mechanical Turk via the TurkPrime data acquisition platform (Litman et al., 2017). For recruitment, we targeted full-time working adults in the United States who reported experiencing an interpersonal justice violation from their direct manager within the past three months, and who had not participated in prior studies. After determining eligibility and providing informed consent, participants were asked to recall an event in which their manager violated interpersonal justice rules within the past three months. Specifically, participants were first shown the definition of interpersonal justice violations (i.e., “manager treating you in a rude manner, in a derogatory manner, treating you with disregard, or making insulting remarks or comments” during decision-making procedures). Participants were then asked to visualize the event, recall their thoughts and feelings during and after the

interaction, and describe the event as accurately as possible. Next, participants completed measures assessing their perceptions of interpersonal justice violation, agentic and communal incongruence, and commitment and trust toward their manager. Then, participants provided their demographic and employment information, and the demographic characteristics of their manager. Finally, participants were thanked, debriefed, and paid \$2.50 USD as remuneration.

We excluded $n = 44$ participants for failing attention checks and $n = 1$ participant who reported their gender as non-binary from analyses. The final sample consisted of $N = 267$ participants, each reporting one interpersonal justice violation episode. On average, participants were 35.1 years of age ($SD = 9.6$) and had been with their organization for 5.2 years ($SD = 4.8$). The majority of participants identified as female (52.1%) and White/Caucasian (74.2%; 8.2% as Black/African, 7.1% as Hispanic/Latino, 3.7% as East Asian, and 6.8% as other). For manager demographics, 64% of participants reported having a male manager, who was, on average, 45.6 years old ($SD = 9.7$), and whom they had known for, on average, 3.7 years ($SD = 4.0$).

Measures

Our focal measures used the same items as those employed in Study 2, but using 5-point scales instead of 7-point scales. These items explicitly referred to the event recalled by participants. Interpersonal justice violation ($\alpha = .81$) referred to the extent to which managers violated interpersonal justice rules during the event, whereas commitment toward manager ($\alpha = .92$) and trust in manager ($\alpha = .85$) referred to attitudes toward the manager since the event occurred. We also measured the extent to which the manager's actions were perceived to be incongruent with agentic and communal prescriptions (see Appendix A for study materials).

Agentic and communal incongruence. To capture the extent to which the manager's actions deviated from agentic and communal prescriptions, we adapted items commonly used to

measure agentic and communal traits (e.g., Carli et al., 2016; Ramsey, 2017). Specifically, we assessed participants' expectations for how their managers *should have acted*, relative to how they actually acted, during the event. Participants responded on 5-point bipolar scales regarding the degree to which their manager should have been more agentic or communal during the decision-making event described (1 = *much less*, 3 = *about the same*, 5 = *much more*).

Conceptually, this approach aligns with the definition of prescriptive stereotypes, as respondents reported their expectations about how their managers should behave. Moreover, this approach allowed us to assess both positive and negative deviations from stereotypical prescriptions.

Specifically, we used 5-items each to measure agentic incongruence (“dominant”, “assertive”, “authoritative”, “direct”, “confident”; $\alpha = .76$) and communal incongruence “considerate”, “kind”, “understanding”, “helpful”, “sympathetic”; $\alpha = .88$), respectively.

Given that women are expected to exhibit low agency (e.g., Abele & Wojciszke, 2007; Carli et al., 2016; Prentice & Carranza, 2002), we reverse-scored agentic incongruence items such that higher scores represent beliefs that the manager should have been *less* agentic after violating interpersonal justice rules. As women are also supposed to exhibit high communality (e.g., Carli et al., 2016; Prentice & Carranza, 2002), higher scores on the communal incongruence items represent beliefs that the manager should have been *more* communal after violating interpersonal justice rules.

Event characteristics. To rule out alternative explanations for differential reactions to female and male managers' perceived degree of interpersonal justice violation, we also used single items to measure how severe participants thought their managers' actions were during the event (1 = *not at all severe*, 5 = *extremely severe*), how often their manager displayed similar

behaviors toward them in the past (1 = *never*, 6 = *very often*), and how often their manager displays similar behaviors toward others (1 = *never*, 6 = *very often*).

Data Analyses

First, we verified the factor structure of our agentic and communal incongruence measures via confirmatory factor analyses as we adapted prior measures to assess these constructs. Then, just as in prior studies, we verified the factor structure of all our measures via confirmatory factor analyses. Finally, we used a regression based moderated path-analytic framework (Edwards & Lambert, 2007; Preacher et al., 2007) to test H3, H4, and H5⁵. Specifically, we examined four multiple regression models in a two-stage process. First, to test H3, manager gender, degree of interpersonal justice violation during the event, and their interaction were regressed on agentic incongruence (Model 1) and communal incongruence (Model 2). Then, our focal predictor variables and interaction terms, along with our mediator variables, were regressed on commitment toward manager (Model 3) and trust in manager (Model 4). In addition to the focal variables, all models included participants' own gender and event characteristics described above (i.e., severity, frequency, and typicality) as control variables. To test H4 and H5, conditional indirect effects for our moderated mediation model (see Figure 1) were generated using a product-of-coefficients approach (Preacher et al., 2007), with statistical significance tested via confidence intervals that were constructed by bootstrapping estimates 10,000 times (MacKinnon et al., 2007). We also computed the index of moderated mediation to test the equality of conditional indirect effects across female and male

⁵ Although our main goal in Study 3 was to examine agentic and communal incongruence as mechanisms underlying the moderating effect of manager gender on the relational consequences of interpersonal justice violations, we also explored whether manager gender directly moderates the relationship between perceptions of interpersonal justice violations during a single behavioral episode and employees' commitment and trust toward their manager (i.e., H2). Results of these supplemental analyses are reported in Appendix C.

managers (Hayes, 2015). All analyses were conducted using the *lavaan* version 0.6-5 package in R version 3.6.2 “Dark and Stormy Night”. Regression parameters were estimated using maximum likelihood estimation, and continuous predictor variables were mean-centered prior to analyses (Cohen et al., 2003).

Results

Confirmatory Factor Analyses

We first verified the factor structure of our agentic and communal incongruence measures by comparing a two-factor measurement model with item-level indicators against a one-factor measurement model in which all items were loading onto a single latent factor. The fit indices for the two-factor model met recommended thresholds for acceptable goodness-of-fit criteria (Hair et al., 2006): $\chi^2(34) = 105.42, p < .01, CFI = .94, RMSEA = .09, SRMR = .07$. Moreover, comparing fit indices of the two-factor model against fit indices for the one-factor model ($\chi^2(35) = 327.67, p < .01, CFI = .74, RMSEA = .18, SRMR = .12$) indicates the two-factor model fit the data better than the one-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = 222.2, p < .01$). Thus, CFA results provide initial evidence for the psychometric properties of our stereotype incongruence measures.

We then tested measurement of all our measures by testing a five-factor measurement model (i.e., interpersonal justice violations during the event, agentic incongruence, communal incongruence, commitment toward manager, and trust in manager) with item-level indicators. Overall, fit indices for this model met recommended thresholds for acceptable goodness-of-fit criteria (Hair et al., 2006): $\chi^2(199) = 403.77, p < .01, CFI = .94, RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .06$. We then compared the fit of this measurement model against nine alternative models, including: (1) a four-factor model with agentic and communal incongruence items loading onto the same factor; (2) a four-factor model with commitment and trust loading onto the same factor; (3) a four-factor

model with interpersonal justice violation and agentic incongruence items loading onto the same factor; (4) a four-factor model with interpersonal justice violation and communal incongruence items loading onto the same factor; (5) a three-factor model with interpersonal justice violation, agentic incongruence, and communal incongruence items loading onto the same factor; (6) a three-factor model with agentic incongruence, commitment, and trust items loading onto the same factor; (7) a three-factor model with communal incongruence, commitment, and trust loading onto the same factor; (8) a two-factor model with interpersonal justice violation, agentic incongruence, and communal incongruence items loading onto the same factor, and commitment and trust loading onto the same factor; and (9) a one-factor model with all items loading onto the same factor. Comparative CFA results, summarized in Table 6, suggest that our posited five-factor measurement model fit the data better than all alternative models. Thus, we aggregated our measures into mean scores for hypothesis tests.

Hypothesis Tests

Table 7 presents descriptive statistics and intercorrelations among study variables. H1 was supported again as we observed significant negative correlations between degree of interpersonal justice violation during the event with commitment ($r = -.24, p < .01$) and trust in manager ($r = -.34, p < .01$). Moreover, we did not observe significant correlations between manager gender and event characteristics, suggesting that male and female managers in this sample were equivalent in the perceived severity of their interpersonally unjust actions, frequency of similar behaviors in the past, and frequency of similar behaviors toward others.

Direct effects on stereotype incongruence. Results from Model 1 provide support for H3a (see Table 8). Specifically, manager gender moderated the relationship between degree of interpersonal justice violation during the event and perceptions of agentic incongruence ($b =$

0.19, $SE = .10$, $p = .05$, 95% $CI [0.004, 0.38]$). Simple slopes analysis indicated a significant positive relationship between interpersonal justice violation and agentic incongruence among employees with female managers ($b = 0.28$, $SE = .09$, $p < .01$, 95% $CI [0.08, 0.45]$), but not among those with male managers ($b = 0.09$, $SE = .08$, $p = .26$, 95% $CI [-0.07, 0.23]$; see Figure 4a). In other words, the more a female manager was perceived as rude or disrespectful during the recalled event, the more the subordinate perceived that her actions were incongruent with agentic prescriptions for women as she should have acted *less* agentially.

In contrast, results from Model 2 did not support H3b (see Table 8). Namely, manager gender did not significantly moderate the relationship between degree of interpersonal justice violation and perceptions of communal incongruence ($b = -0.03$, $SE = .10$, $p = .74$, 95% $CI [-0.22, 0.16]$). Interestingly, we also did not observe a direct relationship between degree of interpersonal justice violation and communal incongruence ($b = 0.04$, $SE = .07$, $p = .53$, 95% $CI [-0.09, 0.18]$). In other words, even when managers (regardless of gender) were perceived to be more rude or disrespectful during the recalled event, subordinates generally did not think the manager should have been nicer or kinder.

Indirect effects on relational consequences. Results from the moderated mediation analysis (see Table 8) provide support for the mediating role of agentic incongruence (H4a) on commitment toward managers, but not communal incongruence (H4b). Specifically, the conditional indirect effect of interpersonal justice violation on commitment via agentic incongruence was significant among employees with female managers ($IDE = -0.10$, $SE = .04$, 95% $CI [-0.19, -0.04]$), but not among those with male managers ($IDE = -0.03$, $SE = .03$, 95% $CI [-0.09, 0.02]$). Furthermore, the indirect effects differed between female and male managers, as shown by the index of moderated mediation ($index = -0.07$, $SE = .04$, 95% $CI [-0.17, -0.001]$).

Similarly, for trust in managers, results from the moderated mediation analysis (see Table 8) provide support for the mediating role of agentic incongruence (H5a), but not communal incongruence (H5b). The conditional indirect effect of interpersonal justice violation on trust in manager via agentic incongruence was significant among employees with female managers ($IDE = -0.07, SE = .03, 95\% CI [-0.15, -0.02]$), but not employees with male managers ($IDE = -0.02, SE = .02, 95\% CI [-0.07, 0.01]$). Moreover, the indirect effects were significantly different across the two groups, as shown by the index of moderated mediation ($index = -0.05, SE = .03, 95\% CI [-0.37, -0.003]$). Overall, results from moderated mediation analyses supported our predictions regarding the mediating role of agentic incongruence, but not communal incongruence.

Supplemental Analysis

Although our main goal in Study 3 was to examine agentic and communal incongruence as the mechanisms underlying the moderating effect of manager gender on the relational consequences of interpersonal justice violations, we also explored whether manager gender directly moderates the relationship between interpersonal justice violations and relational outcomes in an effort to corroborate H2 results from Study 1 and 2. Specifically, we took the same approach using moderated multiple regression analyses to examine our hypotheses as in Study 1 and 2. Further we continue to control for participant gender and event characteristics.

Consistent with Study 1 and Study 2, results revealed that the degree of interpersonal justice violation during the recalled event was negatively correlated with both commitment and trust (see Table 7). However, manager gender did not significantly moderate the relationship between degree of interpersonal justice violation during the recalled event and commitment toward manager ($b = -0.05, SE = .12, p = .68, 95\% CI [-0.29, 0.19]$; see Table 8). Similarly,

manager gender also did not significantly moderate the relationship between interpersonal justice violation and trust in manager ($b = -0.06$, $SE = .12$, $p = .62$, $95\% CI [-0.29, 0.17]$).

These results suggest that when recalling a single interpersonal justice violation, manager gender may not directly influence the relationship between interpersonal justice violation and relational outcomes. Instead, taken together with our main analyses, manager gender appears to indirectly influence the relationship between interpersonal justice violation and relational outcomes by moderating the effect of interpersonal justice violation during the recalled events on perceptions of agentic incongruence. These differences in H2 results may stem from differences in how interpersonal justice violations were measured across the studies. We measured generalized person-level perceptions (i.e., “in general, my manager treats me rudely”) in Study 1 and 2, whereas we measured event-based perceptions (i.e., “during the event, my manager treated me in a rude manner”). Namely, these differential effects are in line with some scholars theorizing that relational outcomes (e.g., commitment, trust) are more closely tied to person-level judgements, whereas immediate reactions toward the enactor of (in)justice are more closely tied to views of particular events (e.g., Rupp et al., 2017). We discuss explanations for the differences in H2 results, as well as the implications of these differences, in greater detail in Appendix C.

Discussion

Results from Study 3 point to agentic incongruence as the mediating mechanism explaining why the relational damage from interpersonal justice violations may be more severe for female managers as compared to male managers. When experiencing an interpersonal justice violation, employees with female managers report their managers’ actions as being incongruent with the low agency expected of women, which is then associated with them reporting lower commitment and trust after experiencing the violation. Given that women are typically expected

to refrain from exhibiting high agency (e.g., Caleo & Heilman, 2013), employees view female managers who violate interpersonal justice rules to be breaching both justice rules and gender norms. Consequently, employees are more eager to cool relations with female managers.

It is interesting that we failed to find support for communal incongruence as a mediating mechanism because it has been presumed to be the mechanism in prior research (e.g., Caleo, 2016). Perhaps employees, as the direct recipients of unfair treatment (vs. neutral observers who are not the targets of unfair treatment), view interpersonal justice violations as going beyond the scope of managers being “not nice enough,” and into the realm of being “too aggressive.” Thus, only agentic prescriptions may be salient in the context of long-term workplace relationships. In Study 4, we include both agentic and communal incongruence to replicate these findings.

Table 6

Study 3: Comparative Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Model	χ^2	df	$\Delta\chi^2$	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	AIC	BIC
5-factor	403.77	199	-	.94	.06	.06	14763.98	15036.61
4-factor ¹	644.83	203	241.06*	.87	.09	.09	14997.04	15255.32
4-factor ²	476.56	203	72.79*	.92	.07	.07	14828.76	15087.04
4-factor ³	795.47	203	391.70*	.82	.11	.14	15147.68	15405.96
4-factor ⁴	1124.46	203	720.69*	.72	.13	.16	15476.66	15734.95
3-factor ⁵	1036.53	206	632.76*	.75	.12	.12	15382.74	15630.26
3-factor ⁶	753.98	206	350.21*	.83	.10	.10	15100.18	15347.70
3-factor ⁷	1069.00	206	665.23*	.74	.13	.12	15415.20	15662.72
2-factor ⁸	1098.57	208	694.80*	.73	.13	.12	15440.77	15681.11
1-factor ⁹	1637.06	209	1233.29*	.56	.16	.14	15977.26	16214.02

Note. $N = 267$. CFAs conducted using *lavaan*-0.6-5 package in R Statistics 3.6.2 “Dark and Stormy Night”. AIC = Akaike Information Criterion (Akaike, 1987), BIC = Bayesian Information Criterion (Raftery, 1995). All $\Delta\chi^2$ tests compared 5-factor model against alternative models. 5-factor model: factor 1 = perception of interpersonal justice (ITJ) violation during recalled event, factor 2 = agentic incongruence, factor 3 = communal incongruence, factor 4 = commitment, factor 5 = trust. All latent factors allowed to covary in all measurement models.

¹ 4 factors: F1 = ITJ violation, F2 = agentic & communal incongruence, F3 = commitment, F4 = trust. ² 4 factors: F1 = ITJ violation, F2 = agentic incongruence, F3 = communal incongruence, F4 = commitment & trust. ³ 4 factors: F1 = ITJ violation & agentic incongruence, F2 = communal incongruence, F3 = commitment, F4 = trust. ⁴ 4 factors: F1 = ITJ violation & communal incongruence, F2 = agentic incongruence, F3 = commitment, F4 = trust. ⁵ 3 factors: F1 = ITJ violation & agentic & communal incongruence, F2 = commitment, F3 = trust. ⁶ 3 factors: F1 = ITJ violation, F2 = agentic incongruence & commitment & trust, F3 = communal incongruence. ⁷ 3 factors: F1 = ITJ violation, F2 = communal incongruence & commitment & trust, F3 = agentic incongruence. ⁸ 2 factors: F1 = ITJ violation & agentic & communal incongruence, F2 = commitment & trust. ⁹ 1 factor: all constructs from 5-factor model on the same factor.

* $p < .05$.

Table 7

Study 3: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among Variables

	\bar{M}	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Participant gender [†]	0.52	0.50	-									
2. Manager gender [†]	0.36	0.48	.25*	-								
3. Event severity ¹	3.31	0.95	-.03	-.07	-							
4. Event history ²	2.28	1.09	.07	.08	.15	-						
5. Event for others ²	2.50	1.17	.03	.08	.17	.54*	-					
6. Event ITJ violation ¹	3.24	1.01	.06	-.03	.59*	.25*	.26*	(.81)				
7. Agentic incongruence ¹	3.50	0.78	.13	.08	-.02	.03	.01	.12	(.76)			
8. Communal incongruence ¹	4.23	0.78	.09	.00	.07	-.05	.03	.07	.35*	(.88)		
9. Commitment toward manager ¹	2.14	0.99	-.08	-.08	-.27*	-.07	-.14	-.24*	-.37*	-.33*	(.85)	
10. Trust in manager ¹	2.27	0.99	-.07	-.07	-.34*	-.20*	-.18	-.34*	-.30*	-.32*	.77*	(.92)

Note. $N = 267$. Scale reliabilities (alphas) are reported on the diagonals. Higher scores on the variables reflect more of the construct. Event severity = severity of manager's actions during event, Event history = frequency of manager engaging in similar behaviors in the past, Event for others = frequency of manager engaging in similar behaviors toward others, Event ITJ violation = extent to which managers violated interpersonal justice rules during the event. [†] Gender was dummy-coded (0 = male, 1 = female). ¹ Variables measured with 5-point scales. ² Variables measured with 6-point scales.

* $p < .05$

Table 8

Study 3: Primary Regression Models for Hypothesis Tests

Mediators	Model 1:			Model 2:		
	Agentic incongruence			Communal incongruence		
Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>95% CI</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>95% CI</i>
(Intercept)	3.79**	.24	[3.31, 4.26]	4.09**	.25	[3.61, 4.57]
Participant gender	0.15	.10	[-0.04, 0.34]	0.16	.10	[-0.03, 0.35]
Event severity	-0.11 [†]	.06	[-0.23, 0.01]	0.04	.06	[-0.08, 0.16]
Event history	0.02	.05	[-0.09, 0.12]	-0.08	.05	[-0.18, 0.02]
Event for others	-0.02	.05	[-0.11, 0.07]	0.05	.05	[-0.05, 0.14]
Manager gender	0.09	.10	[-0.11, 0.28]	-0.03	.10	[-0.23, 0.17]
Event ITJ violation	0.09	.07	[-0.05, 0.22]	0.04	.07	[-0.09, 0.18]
Event ITJ violation × manager gender	0.19*	.10	[0.004, 0.38]	-0.03	.10	[-0.22, 0.16]
<i>R</i> ²		.03			-.002	
ΔR^2		.01*			.003	

DVs	Model 3:			Model 4:		
	Commitment toward manager			Trust in manager		
Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>95% CI</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>95% CI</i>
<i>Direct Effects:</i>						
(Intercept)	5.72**	.42	[4.89, 6.54]	5.56**	.42	[4.74, 6.37]
Participant gender	-0.002	.10	[-0.21, 0.21]	-0.001	.11	[-0.21, 0.21]
Event severity	-0.24**	.07	[-0.37, -0.11]	-0.25**	.07	[-0.38, -0.12]
Event history	-0.11 [†]	.06	[-0.22, 0.01]	-0.11 [†]	.06	[-0.22, 0.003]
Event for others	-0.01	.05	[-0.12, 0.09]	-0.02	.05	[-0.12, 0.08]
Manager gender	-0.14	.11	[-0.35, 0.08]	-0.14	.11	[-0.35, 0.08]
Event ITJ violation	-0.03	.08	[-0.18, 0.12]	-0.12	.08	[-0.27, 0.03]
Event ITJ violation × manager gender	0.01	.11	[-0.20, 0.22]	-0.02	.11	[-0.23, 0.19]
Agentic incong.	-0.37**	.07	[-0.51, -0.23]	-0.25**	.07	[-0.39, -0.11]
Communal incong.	-0.28**	.07	[-0.42, -0.14]	-0.30**	.07	[-0.44, -0.16]
<i>Indirect Effects: Event ITJ violation →</i>						
Agentic incong. (<i>male manager</i>)	-0.03	.03	[-0.09, 0.02]	-0.02	.02	[-0.07, 0.01]
Agentic incong. (<i>female manager</i>)	-0.10*	.04	[-0.19, -0.04]	-0.07*	.03	[-0.15, -0.02]
Communal incong. (<i>male manager</i>)	-0.01	.02	[-0.06, 0.03]	-0.01	.02	[-0.06, 0.03]
Communal incong. (<i>female manager</i>)	-0.003	.03	[-0.06, 0.08]	-0.004	.04	[-0.06, 0.08]

Note. *N* = 267. Higher scores on the variables reflect more of the construct. ITJ = interpersonal justice; incong. = incongruence. Event ITJ violation was mean-centered, and all gender variables were dummy-coded with 0 = male and 1 = female. ΔR^2 represents change in model *R*² after including focal ITJ violations × manager gender interaction. Conditional indirect effects were generated using a product-of-coefficients approach with statistical significance tested via 95% confidence intervals constructed by bootstrapping estimates 10,000 times. [†]*p* < .10, **p* < .05, ***p* < .01

CHAPTER 6: STUDY 4

Results from Study 3 provide initial evidence of the mediating role of agentic incongruence. In Study 4, we sought to replicate and expand on these findings using a complementary methodology that had several additional strengths. Given that Study 3 relied on participants' retrospective recall, with some over a relatively substantial period of time (i.e., up to 3 months), participants could have relied more heavily on stereotypes to "fill in the gaps" and retrospectively re-evaluate their managers due to hazy memories (Sheman & Bessenoff, 1999). Additionally, as participants only recalled a single instance of interpersonal justice violation in Study 3, they could have recalled events that were more unfair than is typical for their managers. To minimize potential retrospective memory biases and to capture a more representative set of decision-making events, we employed a weekly diary design spanning across six weeks. Specifically, we assessed the extent to which employees perceived their manager to violate interpersonal justice rules and gender role prescriptions during decision-making events as they occurred each week, along with their attitudes toward their manager (i.e., trust and commitment).

In addition to methodological strengths, this weekly diary design allowed us to explore whether our hypothesized effects also occur at the within-person level of analysis. Specifically, cross-level interactive effects between interpersonal justice violations and manager gender would indicate that within-person variation in interpersonal justice behaviors from female managers is scrutinized more by employees than similar variation in behaviors from male managers. In other words, it would suggest that employees perceive greater gender stereotype incongruence when female managers treat them more unjustly than usual, but not when male managers treat them more unjustly than usual. In contrast, between-person effects would indicate that female managers who violate interpersonal justice rules to a greater extent across decision-making

events than other female managers are scrutinized more by employees, compared to male managers who act similarly. Said differently, within-person effects indicate that female (vs. male) managers are punished more severely when they “stray” and are perceived to be more interpersonally unjust than usual, whereas between-person effects indicate that female managers who violate interpersonal justice rules are punished more severely than male managers who do the same.

Method

Participants and Procedure

Data collection for this study was part of a larger data collection effort. Participants were recruited from Amazon's Mechanical Turk via the TurkPrime data acquisition platform (Litman et al., 2017). Specifically, we recruited full-time working adults in the United States who interacted with their direct manager at least 3-4 times per week, who were able to complete weekly surveys over the next six work weeks, and who had not participated in our prior studies. Recruits first completed an eligibility questionnaire, resulting in $N = 1238$ eligible recruits. Two days later, eligible recruits completed a baseline survey asking them to provide their demographic and employment information, demographic characteristics of their direct manager, and to complete a battery of additional trait measures for other studies.⁶ A total of $N = 460$ participants completed the baseline survey and were invited to subsequent weekly surveys.

After completing the baseline survey, we sent participants a weekly survey at the end of each work week (on Friday) for six consecutive weeks. We decided on a weekly interval—rather than a daily interval—to increase the likelihood that participants would experience interpersonal

⁶ Other measures include: trait justice sensitivity (Schmitt et al., 2010); implicit personality beliefs (Levy et al., 1998); agreeableness, neuroticism, and conscientiousness from Big-5 personality facets (Goldberg, 1992); and trait fairness propensity (Colquitt et al., 2018).

justice violations during each measurement period (for a similar methodology, see Matta et al., 2019). In each weekly survey, participants first provided the demographic characteristics of their manager for verification purposes. Then, participants reflected on decision-making events over the past week, and completed measures assessing the extent to which their managers committed interpersonal justice violations and whether their managers' actions constituted agentic or communal incongruence during these events. Finally, participants reported their current commitment and trust in their manager. At the end of the final (sixth) weekly survey, participants also completed probes about whether they were away from their job and whether they experienced any major changes in their job (e.g., changes in responsibilities, manager, etc.) during the duration of the study. In appreciation of their time, participants received up to \$12.00 USD as remuneration—\$3.00 for the baseline survey, \$1.00 for each weekly survey (up to \$6.00 maximum), and \$3.00 as bonus if they completed all weekly surveys.

From our initial pool of $N = 460$ participants who completed the baseline survey, $N = 433$ completed weekly surveys. Given our interest in aggregating weekly surveys to examine between-person effects, we required participants to complete at least three weekly surveys to ensure stable between-person estimates (Bliese, 2000). Thus, we excluded $n = 45$ participants from analyses for completing less than three weekly surveys. We also excluded $n = 4$ participants who experienced major changes to their jobs over the course of the study (e.g., changed managers, locations, work hours) and $n = 41$ participants for failing to complete the final survey as we were unable to ascertain if they experienced any major changes in their jobs during the study. We also excluded $n = 116$ participants for data quality issues ($n = 47$ for consistently failing attention checks, $n = 40$ for inconsistently reporting manager gender, $n = 29$ for

inconsistently reporting manager race), and $n = 3$ participants for reporting their own gender as non-binary.

The final sample consisted of $N = 224$ participants⁷, who completed 1239 out of 1344 weekly surveys (92% response rate; mean surveys = 5.5). Participants were, on average, 35.1 years of age ($SD = 10.0$), and had worked at their organization for 6.0 years ($SD = 6.3$). Most participants identified as male (54.9%) and White/Caucasian (76.3%; 7.5% as Black/African, 7.1% as Hispanic/Latino, 3.6% as East Asian, 2.2% as South Asian, and 3.3% as other). The majority (57.6%) of participants had a male manager, who was, on average, 45.6 years old ($SD = 10.1$). On average, participants had worked with their manager for 3.5 years ($SD = 4.8$).

Measures

Our focal measures were generally the same as those employed in Study 3, but on 7-point scales. For interpersonal justice violations, participants were asked the extent to which the actions of their manager during decision-making events over the past week violated interpersonal justice rules (e.g., manager treated them in a rude or derogatory manner; 4 items; 1 = *to a very small extent* to 7 = *to a very large extent*; $\alpha = .90-.95$). (See Appendix B for study materials.)

Agentic and communal incongruence. participants were asked to reflect on how their managers treated them during decision-making events over the past week, and to report how their manager should have acted toward them, relative to how their manager actually acted. We reverse-scored agentic incongruence again, such that higher scores represent beliefs that the

⁷ We did not find statistical differences between participants who were excluded from analyses ($N = 236$ of the initial 460) and the final sample of participants ($N = 224$) on age ($t(455) = -1.50, p = .14$), tenure ($t(433) = -1.23, p = .22$), their own gender composition ($\chi^2(2) = 5.01, p = .08$), gender composition of their managers ($\chi^2(1) = 1.05, p = .31$), or years managed by their manager ($t(417) = -0.81, p = .42$).

manager should have been *less* agentic ($\alpha = .73-.85$), whereas higher scores on communal incongruence represent that the manager should have been *more* communal ($\alpha = .91-.94$).

Relational outcomes. For commitment toward manager, we used the same Cheng et al. (2003) measure as our previous studies, asking participants to report current levels of commitment at the end of the work week ($\alpha = .90-.92$). For trust, we diverge from our previous studies and used Yang et al.'s (2009) 10-item measure, asking participants to report current levels of trust in their managers (1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*; $\alpha = .96-.97$). This measure is more commonly used in justice and leadership research (e.g., Yang et al., 2009; Holtz, 2013; Colquitt et al., 2014), and allows us to test the generalizability of our predicted effects. Sample items include: “I can depend on my supervisor to meet his/her responsibilities” and “I feel secure with my supervisor because of his/her sincerity.”

Data Analyses

We first verified the factor structure of our measures via multilevel confirmatory factor analyses (MCFAs; Hox, 2010; Huang, 2018). Given our interest in examining whether our predicted effects are homologous across levels of analysis, we then conducted two sets of analyses: within-person and between-person. Consistent with Study 3, we used a regression-based path analytic framework (Edwards & Lambert, 2007; Preacher et al., 2007) to test H3, H4, and H5 via the same process and models for both sets of analyses⁸. For our within-person analyses, we conducted multilevel regression analyses on nested data (Gelman & Hill, 2007), using the *lme4* version 1.1.21 (Bates et al., 2015) and *lmerTest* version 3.1.0 packages

⁸ Similar to Study 3, we also conducted supplemental analyses to explore H2 at the between-person level of analysis. Specifically, we explored whether manager gender directly moderates the relationship between aggregated perceptions of interpersonal justice violations and aggregated commitment and trust toward manager. Details are discussed in Appendix C.

(Kuznetsova et al., 2017) in R version 3.6.2 “Dark and Stormy Night”. Following best practices in modeling data from diary studies (e.g., Iida et al., 2012), we used random slopes and random intercepts to model the hypothesized level 1 (within-person) relationships. The level 1 variables in these multilevel models consisted of weekly perceptions of interpersonal justice violations, agentic and communal incongruence, and commitment and trust in manager. Note that the predictor variable was person-mean-centered in analyses (e.g., Enders & Tofighi, 2007; Hofmann & Gavin, 1998). Additionally, we modeled manager gender and participant gender (i.e., control variable) as level 2 variables. For our between-person analyses, we aggregated all level 1 variables by computing the mean of each construct across all available measurement points for each participant.

Results

Multilevel Confirmatory Factor Analyses

For MCFAs, we followed the full maximum likelihood estimation approach recommended by Hox (2010), in which measurement models were decomposed into within- and between-person levels of analyses by examining both within- and between-person covariance matrices simultaneously.

Just as in Study 3, we first verified the factor structure of our stereotype incongruence measures by comparing a two-factor within-person and two-factor between-person measurement model (i.e., agentic and communal incongruence as distinct latent factors at both within- and between-person levels) against a one-factor within-person and one-factor between-person measurement model (i.e., agentic and communal incongruence items loading onto one latent factor at within-person level and one latent factor at between-person level). Most fit indices for the two-factor measurement model reached thresholds of acceptable goodness-of-fit

recommendations from Hox (2010; i.e., $CFI > .90$, $RMSEA < .08$, $SRMR < .08$): $\chi^2(68) = 534.12$, $p < .01$, $CFI = .91$, $RMSEA = .07$, $SRMR = .29$. Moreover, compared to fit indices from the one-factor model ($\chi^2(70) = 1457.26$, $p < .01$, $CFI = .74$, $RMSEA = .13$, $SRMR = .58$), the two-factor measurement model appears to fit the data better ($\Delta\chi^2(2) = 923.1$, $p < .01$). Thus, CFA results provide additional evidence for the psychometric properties of these measures and that participants made distinctions between agentic and communal incongruence.

For within-person analyses, we tested a five-factor within-person and five-factor between-person measurement model (i.e., interpersonal justice violations, agentic incongruence, communal incongruence, commitment toward manager, and trust in manager as latent factors at both within- and between-person levels). Model fit indices were: $\chi^2(734) = 3848.43$, $p < .01$, $CFI = .84$, $RMSEA = .06$, $SRMR = .17$. Some model fit indices were below recommended thresholds of acceptable goodness-of-fit recommendations from Hox (2010; i.e., $CFI > .90$, $RMSEA < .08$, $SRMR < .08$).

Nonetheless, comparative MCFAs results, summarized in Table 9, suggest that the five-factor within-person and five-factor between-person measurement model fit the data better than six alternative models, including: (1) a four-factor within-person and five-factor between-person model with agentic and communal incongruence items loading onto the same factor at the within-person level; (2) a four-factor within-person and four-factor between-person model with agentic and communal incongruence items loading onto the same factor at both levels; (3) a four-factor within-person and five factor between-person model with commitment and trust items loading onto the same factor at the within-person level; (4) a four-factor within-person and four-factor between-person model with commitment and trust items loading onto the same factor at both levels; (5) a three-factor within-person and five-factor between-person model with

interpersonal justice violation, agentic incongruence, and communal incongruence items loading onto the same factor at the within-person level; and (6) a three-factor within-person and three-factor between-person model with interpersonal justice violation, agentic incongruence, and communal incongruence items loading onto the same factor at both levels. As such, we choose to retain the five-factor within-person and five-factor between-person measurement model.

Moreover, when we examined model fit of the within-person portion of the model by specifying a saturated model for the between-person level (i.e., allowing covariances between all variables at the between-person so lack of fit can only stem from the within-person level; Hox, 2010), met recommended thresholds for acceptable MCFA goodness-of-fit criteria: $\chi^2(388) = 1542.00, p < .01, CFI = .94, RMSEA = .05, SRMR_{within} = .06$. Thus, we aggregated our within-person measures into weekly mean scores for the within-person analyses.

Given our interest in conducting between-person analyses, we also examined fit of a pure five-factor between-person measurement models by specifying saturated models for the within-person level. Overall, fit indices for this measurement model met recommended thresholds for acceptable MCFA goodness-of-fit criteria (Hox, 2010): $\chi^2(388) = 1996.91, p < .01, CFI = .92, RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .17$. Furthermore, comparative CFA results suggest that this model fit the data better than the same alternative measurement models specified in Study 3 (see Table 10).

Within-Person Results

Variance components. First, we estimated null models to partition between-person and within-person variance for level 1 variables. As shown in Table 11, the within-person component accounted for a considerable variance in some variables (e.g., 47% and 51% for agentic and communal incongruence, respectively), but less in other variables (e.g., 15% and 13% in commitment and trust toward managers, respectively). These results suggest that participants

vary in their perceptions of interpersonal justice violations, agentic and communal incongruence, and commitment and trust in their manager (albeit to a lesser degree) from one week to the next. As such, a multilevel modeling approach to analyzing this data was appropriate.

Hypotheses tests. Table 12 presents descriptive statistics and intercorrelations among variables for within-person analyses. H1 was supported as we observed significant and negative within-person correlations between interpersonal justice violations and both commitment toward ($r = -.39, p < .01$) and trust in manager ($r = -.54, p < .01$) during each week.

Multilevel regression results are reported in Table 13. Contrary to H3a, manager gender did not significantly moderate the within-person relationship between interpersonal justice violations and agentic incongruence ($\gamma = -0.11, SE = .11, p = .32, 95\%CI [-0.32, 0.11]$). Moreover, H3b was also not supported as manager gender also did not significantly moderate the relationship between interpersonal justice violations and communal incongruence ($\gamma = 0.13, SE = .13, p = .31, 95\%CI [-0.12, 0.38]$). Given that our predicted moderated mediation effects for H4 and H5 rely on the first stage moderated predicted in H3, we did not test these hypotheses.

Supplemental analyses. In addition to examining our mediating mechanisms at the within-person level of analyses, we also examined the moderating effect of manager gender on within-person relationships between interpersonal justice violations and our relational outcomes of interest. Results revealed that manager gender did not significantly moderate the within-person relationships between interpersonal justice violations and commitment ($\gamma = 0.03, SE = .10, p = .80, 95\%CI [-0.18, 0.23]$) or trust ($\gamma = 0.001, SE = .11, p = .99, 95\%CI [-0.22, 0.21]$; see Table 13). Thus, none of our predicted effects were found at the within-person level of analysis.

Between-Person Results

Consistency in Weekly Responses. An important consideration for aggregating within-person scores is the relative consistency or reliability of responses across different measurement periods (Bliese, 2000). ICC₁ values, summarized in Table 6, reveal that there is substantial between-person variance for study variables, ranging from 49% (for agentic incongruence) to 87% (for trust in manager). Additionally, ICC₂ values, which provide an estimate of the reliability of the aggregated person-level means (Bliese, 2000), suggest that participants' responses to our focal measures were relatively consistent across measurement periods. Thus, aggregating our data into person-level mean scores was also an appropriate analytic decision.

Hypotheses Tests. Table 9 presents descriptive statistics and intercorrelations among variables for the between-person analyses. H1 was supported as we observed significant and negative between-person correlations between average levels of interpersonal justice violations with commitment toward ($r = -.46, p < .01$) and trust in manager ($r = -.62, p < .01$).

Direct effects on stereotype incongruence. Regression results are summarized in Table 10. In support of H3a (see Model 1 in Table 10), manager gender moderated the relationship between average levels of interpersonal justice violations and agentic incongruence ($b = 0.24, SE = .09, p = .01, 95\% CI [0.06, 0.42]$). Simple slopes analysis revealed a significant positive relationship between interpersonal justice violations and agentic incongruence among employees with female managers ($b = 0.27, SE = .06, p < .01, 95\% CI [0.15, 0.40]$), but not among employees with male managers ($b = 0.03, SE = .07, p = .60, 95\% CI [-0.09, 0.16]$); see Figure 3b). Thus, the more a female manager was perceived as rude or disrespectful across decision-making events during the six weeks, the more her subordinate believed that she was excessively agentic and should have acted *less* agentially.

In contrast, H3b was not supported as manager gender did not significantly moderate the relationship between average levels of interpersonal justice violations and communal incongruence ($b = -0.02$, $SE = .09$, $p = .81$, $95\% CI [-0.20, 0.16]$). However, unlike in Study 3, we observed a significant main effect of interpersonal justice violations on communal incongruence. Regardless of gender, the more managers were perceived to be rude or disrespectful across decision-making events during the study, the more subordinates believed that they should have acted *more* communally.

Indirect effects on relational consequences. We did not find support for the mediating roles of agentic incongruence (H4a) or communal incongruence (H4b) on commitment toward manager (see Table 10). Specifically, the conditional indirect effect of interpersonal justice violation on commitment via agentic incongruence was not significant among employees with female ($IDE = -0.08$, $SE = .06$, $95\% CI [-0.22, 0.03]$) or male ($IDE = -0.01$, $SE = .04$, $95\% CI [-0.15, 0.04]$) managers, and the index of moderated mediation was also not significant ($index = -0.07$, $SE = .09$, $95\% CI [-0.29, 0.02]$).

In contrast, we found support for the mediating role of agentic incongruence (H5a), but not communal incongruence (H5b), on trust in manager. The conditional indirect effect of interpersonal justice violations on trust in manager via agentic incongruence was significant among employees with female managers ($IDE = -0.10$, $SE = .06$, $95\% CI [-0.23, -0.001]$), but not those with male managers ($IDE = -0.01$, $SE = .05$, $95\% CI [-0.14, 0.06]$). The index of moderated mediation for this effect did nevertheless just include zero ($index = -0.08$, $SE = .07$, $95\% CI [-0.30, 0.01]$), such that we cannot definitively conclude that the two conditional indirect effects are different from each other.

Taken together, the results support an aggregate or person-based phenomenon. Among female managers, those who were, on average, more interpersonally unjust were perceived to be acting more agentially compared to those who were less unjust, resulting in less trust from subordinates. In contrast, among male managers, those who were, on average, more unjust were not seen as violating gender role prescriptions more so than those who were less unjust. Thus, unjust male versus female managers did not incur relational damage to the same degree.

Supplemental Analysis. Using the same approach taken in Study 3, we again explored whether manager gender directly moderates the relationship between interpersonal justice violations and relational outcomes to corroborate H2 results from Study 1 and 2. Consistent with results of our supplemental analysis for Study 3, manager gender did not significantly moderate the between-person relationship between aggregated interpersonal justice violations and aggregated commitment ($b = -0.20, SE = .21, p = .32, 95\% CI [-0.62, 0.21]$) or aggregated trust ($b = -0.21, SE = .18, p = .24, 95\% CI [-0.56, 0.14]$; see Table 15). As such, in Study 3 and 4, the moderating effect of manager gender on relational consequences of interpersonal justice violations appear to work indirectly through agentic incongruence.

In addition to the conceptual arguments regarding differences between person-level and event-based judgements articulated in Study 3 between Studies 1 and 2 versus Studies 3 and 4, another potential explanation for these differences across studies is statistical power. Prior simulation studies indicate that given typical sample sizes in psychological research, it is not unusual for there to sometimes be sufficient power to detect indirect effects, but not direct effects (e.g., Kenny & Judd, 2014; Rucker et al., 2011). We further discuss the implications of such differences in H2 results in Appendix C.

Discussion

Study 4 helps to mitigate potential retrospective recall biases by incorporating a broader sample of decision-making events from each manager. Corroborating Study 3 findings, between-person analyses in Study 4 also supports agentic incongruence, rather than communal incongruence, as the mediating mechanism explaining why female managers incur greater relational damage from interpersonal justice violations than male managers.

Our design also allowed us to test whether our predictions generalize to the within-person level of analysis. Although we observed negative within-person correlations between interpersonal justice violations and stereotype incongruence, such that employees believed that their manager should have been less agentic and more communal on weeks when their manager engaged in higher than typical levels of interpersonal injustice violations, these associations surprisingly did not differ across employees with female versus male managers. Therefore, employees do not appear to be differentially attentive to fluctuations in interpersonal justice behaviors from female compared to male managers. Rather, the bias in reactions occurs at the between-person level of analysis. Specifically, employees generally disengage more from female managers who violate interpersonal justice rules more compared to female managers who violate the rules less, whereas the same is not true among male managers.

Although we did not find support for our predictions at within-person level of analysis in the present data, we encourage future research to continue investigating cross-level interactions between manager gender and interpersonal justice violations on relational outcomes. Interestingly, the lack of within-person effects is consistent with some theorizing which suggests that gender stereotypes are expectations about person-level traits (e.g., kind, caring, aggressive, dominant; Biernat, 2018). Specifically, evaluators tend to penalize women who consistently

display stereotype-incongruent *behavioral tendencies*, such as women in leadership roles (Heilman, 2001; Eagly & Karau, 2002), rather than women who display isolated stereotype-incongruent behaviors. Consistent with this idea, in the current research, we found that the female managers do not appear to suffer greater relational damage than male leaders when they engaged in higher than typical levels of interpersonal injustice violations. Rather, unequal relational damage, and differential perceptions of stereotype incongruence, were observed only when comparing the behavioral tendencies (i.e., aggregate interpersonal justice violations) across female and male managers. Thus, our findings suggest that penalties for displaying stereotype-incongruence may primarily occur at the between-person level because stereotypes are expectations about traits or behavioral tendencies.

Table 9

Study 4: Comparative Multilevel Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Model	χ^2	<i>df</i>	$\Delta\chi^2$	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	AIC	BIC
5F L1, 5F L2	3848.42	734	-	.84	.06	.17	76397.14	77241.75
4F L1, 5F L2 ¹	4536.22	738	687.80*	.81	.07	.19	77076.93	77901.06
4F L1, 4F L2 ²	4839.59	742	991.17*	.79	.07	.28	77372.31	78175.96
4F L1, 5F L2 ³	4218.53	738	370.11*	.82	.06	.18	76759.25	77583.38
4F L1, 4F L2 ⁴	4430.42	742	582.00*	.81	.06	.18	76963.14	77766.80
3F L1, 5F L2 ⁵	5970.17	741	2121.75*	.73	.08	.22	78504.88	79313.66
3F L1, 3F L2 ⁶	6881.70	748	3033.28*	.69	.08	.27	79402.41	80175.35

Note. Level 1 $N = 1239$ weekly surveys nested within level 2 $N = 224$ participants. CFAs conducted using *lavaan*-0.6-5 package in R Statistics 3.6.2 “Dark and Stormy Night”. AIC = Akaike Information Criterion (Akaike, 1987), BIC = Bayesian Information Criterion Raftery, 1995). L1 = level 1/within-person level, L2 = level 2/between-person level. All $\Delta\chi^2$ tests compared 5F L1 & 5F L2 model against alternative models. 5F L1 & 5F L2 model: (for both L1 & L2) F1 = weekly interpersonal justice (ITJ) violations during week, F2 = weekly agentic incongruence, F3 = weekly communal incongruence, F4 = weekly commitment, F5 = weekly trust. All latent factors allowed to covary in all measurement models. ¹ 4F L1 & 5F L2 model: L1 F1 = ITJ violations, L1 F2 = agentic & communal incongruence, L1 F3 = commitment, L1 F4 = trust. ² 4F L1 & L2 model: (for both L1 & L2) F1 = ITJ violations, F2 = agentic & communal incongruence, F3 = commitment, F4 = trust. ³ 4F L1 & 5F L2 model: L1 F1 = ITJ violations, F2 = agentic incongruence, F3 = communal incongruence, F4 = commitment & trust. ⁴ 4F L1 & L2 model: (for both L1 & L2) F1 = ITJ violations, F2 = agentic incongruence, F3 = communal incongruence, F4 = commitment & trust. ⁵ 3F L1 & 5F L2 model: L1 F1 = ITJ violations & agentic & communal incongruence, L1 F2 = commitment, L1 F3 = trust. ⁶ 3F L1 & L2 model: (for both L1 & L2) F1 = ITJ violations & agentic & communal incongruence, F2 = commitment, F3 = trust.

* $p < .05$.

Table 10

Study 4: Comparative Confirmatory Factor Analyses for Between-Person Level of Analysis

Model	χ^2	df	$\Delta\chi^2$	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	AIC	BIC
5-factor	1996.91	388	-	.92	.06	.17	75237.62	77853.34
4-factor ¹	2290.33	392	293.42*	.90	.06	.22	75523.04	78118.28
4-factor ²	2164.73	392	167.82*	.91	.06	.17	75397.45	77992.69
4-factor ³	2362.72	392	365.81*	.90	.06	.19	75595.43	78190.67
4-factor ⁴	2220.17	392	223.26*	.91	.06	.22	75452.89	78048.13
3-factor ⁵	2588.15	395	591.24*	.89	.07	.24	75814.86	78394.75
3-factor ⁶	2516.32	395	519.41*	.89	.07	.18	75743.03	78322.93
3-factor ⁷	2402.64	395	405.73*	.90	.06	.25	75629.35	78209.24
2-factor ⁸	2756.09	397	759.18*	.88	.07	.25	75978.80	78548.45
1-factor ⁹	3158.62	398	1161.71*	.86	.08	.32	76379.33	78943.86

Note. $N = 224$. CFAs conducted using *lavaan*-0.6-5 package in R Statistics 3.6.2 “Dark and Stormy Night”. AIC = Akaike Information Criterion (Akaike, 1987), BIC = Bayesian Information Criterion (Raftery, 1995). All $\Delta\chi^2$ tests compared 5-factor model against alternative models. 5-factor model: factor 1 = aggregate interpersonal justice (ITJ) violations, factor 2 = aggregate agentic incongruence, factor 3 = aggregate communal incongruence, factor 4 = aggregate commitment, factor 5 = aggregate trust. All latent factors allowed to covary in all measurement models.

¹ 4 factors: F1 = ITJ violations, F2 = agentic & communal incongruence, F3 = commitment, F4 = trust. ² 4 factors: F1 = ITJ violations, F2 = agentic incongruence, F3 = communal incongruence, F4 = commitment & trust. ³ 4 factors: F1 = ITJ violations & agentic incongruence, F2 = communal incongruence, F3 = commitment, F4 = trust. ⁴ 4 factors: F1 = ITJ violations & communal incongruence, F2 = agentic incongruence, F3 = commitment, F4 = trust. ⁵ 3 factors: F1 = ITJ violations & agentic & communal incongruence, F2 = commitment, F3 = trust. ⁶ 3 factors: F1 = ITJ violations, F2 = agentic incongruence & commitment & trust, F3 = communal incongruence. ⁷ 3 factors: F1 = ITJ violations, F2 = communal incongruence & commitment & trust, F3 = agentic incongruence. ⁸ 2 factors: F1 = ITJ violations & agentic & communal incongruence, F2 = commitment & trust. ⁹ 1 factor: all constructs from 5-factor model on the same factor.

* $p < .05$.

Table 11

Study 4: Variance Components of Null Models for Within-Person Analyses

Variable	Proportion of between-person variance (ICC ₁)	Proportion of within-person variance (1 – ICC ₁)	Reliability of aggregated means (ICC ₂)
Interpersonal justice violations	.68	.32	.92
Agentic incongruence	.53	.47	.86
Communal incongruence	.49	.51	.84
Commitment toward manager	.85	.15	.97
Trust in manager	.87	.13	.98

Note. ICC = intraclass correlation. ICC₁ values were computed as $\tau_{00}/(\tau_{00} + \sigma^2)$, where τ_{00} represents between-person variance and σ^2 represents within-person variance (Bliese, 2000). ICC₂ values represent the overall reliability of the mean scores when averaging across all measurement points in the study.

Table 12

*Study 4: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations Among Multilevel Variables for Within-Person**Analyses*

	\bar{M}	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<i>Level 1 variables</i>									
1. ITJ violations ^l	1.36	0.86	(.93)						
2. Agentic incongruence ^l	3.95	0.69	.15*	(.81)					
3. Communal incongruence ^l	4.40	0.77	.37*	.02	(.92)				
4. Commitment toward manager ^l	4.40	1.43	-.39*	-.19*	.25*	(.92)			
5. Trust in manager ^l	5.23	1.35	-.54*	-.22*	-.31*	.81*	(.97)		
<i>Level 2 variables</i>									
6. Participant gender [†]	0.45	0.50	.00	.15	-.06	-.11	-.10	-	
7. Manager gender [†]	0.42	0.40	.02	-.09	.04	.06	.01	-.37*	-

Note. Level 1 $N = 1239$ weekly surveys nested within level 2 $N = 224$ participants. Within-person means and standard deviations are reported for level 1 variables, Between-person means and standard deviations are reported for level 2 variables. Scale reliabilities (alphas) are reported on the diagonals. Higher scores on the variables reflect more of the construct. ITJ = interpersonal justice. [†] Gender was dummy-coded (0 = male, 1 = female). ^l Variables measured with 7-point scales.

* $p < .05$

Table 13

Study 4: Multilevel Regression Models for Within-Person Analyses

Variable	Model 1: Agentic incongruence			Model 2: Communal incongruence		
	γ	<i>SE</i>	95% <i>CI</i>	γ	<i>SE</i>	95% <i>CI</i>
<i>Level 1 Predictors</i>						
(Intercept)	3.86**	.05	[3.76, 3.96]	4.44**	.06	[4.33, 4.56]
ITJ violations	0.02	.07	[-0.11, 0.16]	0.11	.08	[-0.06, 0.28]
<i>Level 2 Predictors</i>						
Participant gender	0.16*	.08	[0.01, 0.31]	-0.06	.08	[-0.23, 0.10]
Manager gender	0.04	.08	[-0.12, 0.19]	-0.03	.09	[-0.20, 0.14]
<i>Cross-Level Interaction</i>						
ITJ violations × manager gender	-0.11	.11	[-0.32, 0.10]	0.13	.13	[-0.12, 0.38]
Variable	Supplemental analysis: Commitment to manager			Supplemental analysis: Trust in manager		
	γ	<i>SE</i>	95% <i>CI</i>	γ	<i>SE</i>	95% <i>CI</i>
<i>Level 1 Predictors</i>						
(Intercept)	4.54**	.13	[4.28, 4.80]	5.33**	.12	[5.08, 5.57]
ITJ violations	-0.06	.19	[-0.21, 0.09]	-0.28**	.07	[-0.45, -0.12]
<i>Level 2 Predictors</i>						
Participant gender	-0.30	.19	[-0.68, 0.08]	-0.32†	.18	[-0.68, 0.04]
Manager gender	-0.05	.19	[-0.43, 0.34]	0.07	.19	[-0.30, 0.43]
<i>Cross-Level Interaction</i>						
ITJ violations × manager gender	0.03	.10	[-0.18, 0.23]	0.001	.11	[-0.22, 0.21]

Note. Level 1 $N = 1239$ weekly surveys nested within level 2 $N = 224$ participants. Higher scores on the variables reflect more of the construct. ITJ = interpersonal justice. The level 1 ITJ violations variable was person-mean-centered, and all gender variables were dummy-coded with 0 = male and 1 = female.

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 14

*Study 4: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among Aggregated Variables for Between-**Person Analyses*

	\bar{M}	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. ITJ violations ^l	1.37	0.76	(.93)						
2. Agentic incongruence ^l	3.96	0.55	.21*	(.81)					
3. Communal incongruence ^l	4.39	0.58	.46*	.06	(.92)				
4. Commitment toward manager ^l	4.39	1.34	-.46*	-.23*	-.33*	(.92)			
5. Trust in manager ^l	5.21	1.29	-.62*	-.29*	.42*	.86*	(.97)		
6. Participant gender [†]	0.45	0.50	.00	.15	-.06	-.11	-.10	-	
7. Manager gender [†]	0.42	0.40	.02	-.09	.04	.06	.01	-.37*	-

Note. $N = 224$. All continuous variables are mean scores averaged across six weeks of data collection. Scale reliabilities (alphas) are reported on the diagonals. Higher scores on the variables reflect more of the construct. ITJ = interpersonal justice. [†] Gender was dummy coded (0 = male, 1 = female). ^l Variables measured with 7-point scales.

* $p < .05$

Table 15

Study 4: Regression Models for Between-Person Analyses

Mediators	Model 1: Agentic incongruence			Model 2: Communal incongruence		
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	95% <i>CI</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	95% <i>CI</i>
Variable						
(Intercept)	3.86**	.05	[3.31, 4.26]	4.42**	.25	[3.61, 4.57]
Participant gender	0.13	.08	[-0.02, 0.28]	-0.26	.17	[-0.59, 0.07]
Manager gender	0.06	.08	[-0.09, 0.21]	-0.01	.08	[-0.16, 0.14]
ITJ violations	0.03	.07	[-0.09, 0.16]	0.36**	.07	[0.23, 0.49]
ITJ violations × manager gender	0.24**	.09	[0.06, 0.42]	-0.02	.09	[-0.20, 0.16]
<i>R</i> ²		.08			.20	
Δ^2		.02*			-.004	

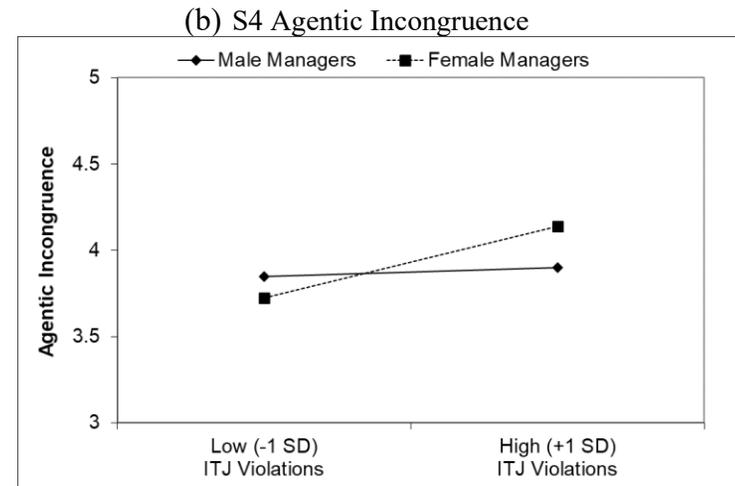
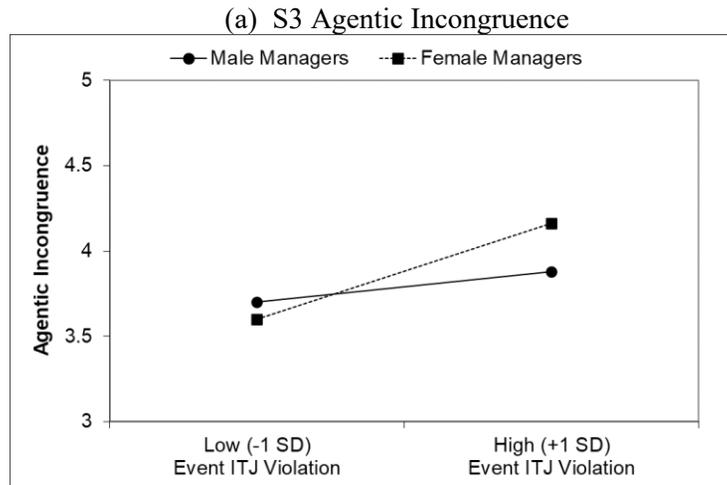
DVs	Model 3: Commitment toward manager			Model 4: Trust in manager		
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	95% <i>CI</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	95% <i>CI</i>
Variable						
<i>Direct Effects:</i>						
(Intercept)	7.39**	.90	[5.63, 9.15]	8.45**	.75	[6.99, 9.91]
Participant gender	-0.26	.17	[-0.59, 0.07]	-0.25	.14	[-0.52, 0.03]
Manager gender	-0.06	.17	[-0.39, 0.27]	0.05	.14	[-0.22, 0.33]
ITJ violations	-0.56**	.16	[-0.86, -0.25]	-0.78**	.13	[-1.04, -0.53]
ITJ violations × manager gender	-0.14	.21	[-0.55, 0.26]	-0.13	.17	[-0.47, 0.20]
Agentic incong.	-0.28 [†]	.15	[-0.57, 0.01]	-0.35**	.12	[-0.59, -0.11]
Communal incong.	-0.40**	.15	[-0.69, -0.10]	-0.40**	.13	[-0.65, -0.16]
<i>Indirect Effects: Event ITJ violation →</i>						
Agentic incong. (<i>male manager</i>)	-0.01	.04	[-0.15, 0.04]	-0.01	.05	[-0.14, 0.06]
Agentic incong. (<i>female manager</i>)	-0.08	.06	[-0.22, 0.03]	-0.10*	.06	[-0.23, -0.01]
Communal incong. (<i>male manager</i>)	-0.14*	.10	[-0.37, -0.01]	-0.14*	.08	[-0.33, -0.04]
Communal incong. (<i>female manager</i>)	-0.13	.11	[-0.42, 0.01]	-0.14*	.09	[-0.37, -0.001]

Note. *N* = 224. All continuous variables are mean scores averaged across six weeks of data collection. ITJ = interpersonal justice, incong. = incongruence. The ITJ violations variable was mean-centered, and all gender variables were dummy-coded with 0 = male and 1 = female. ΔR^2 represents change in model *R*² after including focal ITJ violations × manager gender interaction. Conditional indirect effects were generated using a product-of-coefficients approach with statistical significance tested via 95% confidence intervals constructed by bootstrapping estimates 10,000 times (Preacher et al., 2007; MacKinnon et al., 2007).

[†] *p* < .10, * *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01

Figure 4

Study 3 & 4: Regression Analyses for Hypothesis Tests Predicting Agentic Incongruence



- (a) Study 3 interaction between degree of interpersonal justice (ITJ) violation during recalled event and manager gender on agentic incongruence.
(b) Study 4 interaction between ITJ violations and manager gender on agentic incongruence from between-person analyses.

CHAPTER 7: GENERAL DISCUSSION

A large body of justice research substantiates that justice violations are detrimental to manager-subordinate relationships (e.g., Colquitt et al., 2013, Rupp et al., 2014). Yet, it is implicitly assumed that employees have similar reactions to the unjust treatment that they receive, regardless of who might be committing these violations. In the present research, we challenge this assumption by demonstrating that the relational damage from interpersonal justice violations is often exacerbated for female managers relative to male managers due to employees' perceptions that these violations are incongruent with prescriptive gender stereotypes for women.

Across four studies, our findings broadly suggest that employees tend to distance themselves – either directly or indirectly – from female managers who were generally more apt to violate interpersonal justice rules when decisions are being made or implemented, but not from male managers who did the same. Moreover, our results indicate that such unequal relational damage can occur even when accounting for interpersonal justice adherence or other types of justice violations (i.e., distributive and procedural). Most tellingly, our results reveal that employees react more negatively to interpersonal justice violations from female managers because they are perceived as exhibiting excessive agency (e.g., too dominant and authoritative) rather than as acting with insufficient communality (e.g., not considerate enough)—the former being incongruent with the low agency prescribed for women (e.g., Caleo & Heilman, 2013; Heilman, 2012; Johnson et al., 2008). Taken together, our research makes several theoretical and practical contributions to the organizational justice literature, which we discuss below.

Theoretical Contributions

One of the most frequently used theoretical frameworks for understanding the consequences of organizational justice is social exchange theory (Colquitt, 2012). Within a social

exchange framework, employees are said to reciprocate unfair actions from their managers by disengaging from the exchange relationship (Colquitt et al., 2013, 2015). In the current research, we add nuance to exchange-based justice theorizing by demonstrating that the process by which justice recipients (i.e., employees) reciprocate unfair actions could differ based on the gender of justice agents (i.e., managers). In other words, employees appear to apply different standards when evaluating and responding to the interpersonal justice violations of male and female managers. Thus, the norm of reciprocity discussed in much of the exchange-based justice theorizing may be applied more stringently to some managers than to others.

Our research aligns with other emerging work suggesting that reactions to injustice vary due to stereotypical prescriptions that are applied to justice agents. Prior research suggests that the race of justice agents can impact employee reactions to their managers' justice-relevant behaviors due to racial stereotypes (Zapata et al., 2016). Together with our findings, this growing body of work indicates that when employees evaluate justice-relevant behaviors enacted by their managers, they consider not only whether their managers violate justice rules, but also whether their behaviors are congruent with stereotypical expectations based on salient social categories (e.g., gender and race). Moreover, both streams of research demonstrate that stereotypes persistently influence how employees evaluate their managers within long-term working relationships, despite some scholars having argued that the impact of stereotypes should dissipate once other individuating information becomes available (e.g., Landy, 2008). Thus, future justice research should account for stereotypical prescriptions based on salient social category membership of justice agents, such as manager gender and race, to explain the relational consequences of justice violations more fully.

Our research also contributes to the growing body of literature demonstrating that the effects of organizational justice violations may differ from organizational justice adherence (Colquitt et al., 2015). Results across our studies suggest that interpersonal justice violations damage manager-subordinate relationships among employees with female managers, but not among employees with male managers. Moreover, although not hypothesized, Study 1 provided some evidence to suggest that manager gender may also moderate the effects of interpersonal justice adherence on relational outcomes, with employees demonstrating higher levels of commitment to male managers who more strongly adhere to interpersonal justice rules than female managers who do the same. As a whole then, our findings suggest that employees reciprocate *unfair* interpersonal treatment from female managers, whereas employees may reciprocate *fair* interpersonal treatment from male managers. Such effects are consistent with research demonstrating that female leaders often do not reap the benefits of engaging in prosocial behaviors because such behaviors are expected from women (e.g., Chen, 2008; Heilman & Chen, 2005). Thus, future justice theorizing should attempt to account for the differential effects of interpersonal justice violations versus adherence for female and male managers.

Practical Implications

Our research also has a number of practical implications. In examining how the gender of justice agents influences the reactions of justice recipients, our results indicate that justice recipients view interpersonal justice violations from female managers as a form of agentic incongruence. As such, the relational damage that occurs for more interpersonally unjust female managers is in line with prior research that demonstrates backlash effects against agentic women (e.g., Eagly et al., 1992; Williams & Tiedens, 2016). Of note, in our studies, employees do not report that female managers commit more interpersonal justice violations than male managers.

Nevertheless, employees are more likely to cool relations with interpersonally unjust female managers as compared to interpersonally unjust male managers. This form of backlash can be particularly insidious as the bias against female managers is only evident when examining the consequences of interpersonal justice violations.

Unfortunately, such backlash effects may be difficult for female managers to mitigate. Busy managers often prioritize other tasks over enacting fairness (Sherf et al., 2019), suggesting that unfairness may be difficult to avoid in practice. Even if female managers can avoid interpersonal justice violations, it seems unlikely (and undesirable) for them to avoid all agentic behaviors at work. Fortunately, some research has found that evaluators are less likely to use gender stereotypes when evaluating managerial behaviors if they are prompted to engage in deliberative causal reasoning (Keck & Babcock, 2017). Thus, organizations could help mitigate the disparity in backlash against interpersonally unjust female relative to male leaders by encouraging employees to reflect on why their manager may have acted unfairly. For example, employees could be encouraged to consider time pressure, stress, and other situational factors as potential causes for their managers' unjust actions. Doing so should reduce the influence of gender stereotypes on employees' responses to the unfair actions of their managers. Moreover, organizations could provide justice-related training to all managers to minimize the occurrence of justice violations more generally (Skarlicki & Latham, 2005).

Our results also have implications for assessing the leadership performance of managers. Although having positive exchange relationships with subordinates is likely a desirable outcome for all managers (e.g., Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Cropanzano & Rupp, 2008; Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004), our findings suggest that it may be more difficult for female managers to maintain positive relationships with their subordinates than for male managers, given that

employees are more willing to disengage from female managers who violate justice rules. As such, incorporating relationship quality with subordinates (e.g., trust, commitment) as a criterion in leadership performance assessments could inadvertently disadvantage female managers.

Ultimately, organizations that use such assessments to evaluate managers, such as those that use 360-degree appraisal systems (e.g., Antonioni, 1996), should attempt to detect and account for the differential relational consequences of justice violations for female and male managers.

Limitations and Future Directions

Despite contributing to a novel area of study, our findings are qualified by a few limitations. Although we employed different study designs (e.g., cross-sectional, event recall, weekly diary) to triangulate our results, all our studies utilized self-report data from one source (i.e., the subordinate), which can inflate common method variance and produce spurious findings (Podsakoff et al., 2003). However, given the subjective nature of the constructs in our studies, we believe self-report to be a valid data collection method. Moreover, given our main interest in detecting interaction effects, common method variance is unlikely to have significant impact on our results (e.g., Siemsen et al., 2010). We also attempted to offset common method variance by collecting temporally separated or longitudinal data in Study 2 and 4. Future research could employ multi-source designs, such as collecting other-reports of employee trust and commitment (e.g., manager or co-worker reports). However, employees may be motivated to hide their distrust of their leader from others, particularly their own managers.

Although agentic incongruence explains why female managers incur greater relational harm for interpersonal justice violations as compared to male managers, our studies did not explore the underlying motives for why employees seek to differentially distance themselves. On the one hand, employees may simply be motivated to protect themselves from the ire of female

managers who they perceive as overly aggressive. On the other hand, employees could be attempting to punish interpersonally unjust female managers so they will “fall back in line,” as is often the case with backlash against agentic women (e.g., Phelan & Rudman, 2010). Thus, we encourage future research to unpack employee motivations for why they are more willing to distance themselves from unfair female managers relative to unfair male managers.

In the current study, our focus on comparing evaluations of female versus male managers prompted us to adopt a binary view of gender, which does not reflect the diverse and fluid nature of gender identity (e.g., Frable, 1997). However, we focused on a binary conceptualization of gender because the majority of gender stereotype research is based on this simplified binary of men and women (e.g., Eagly et al., 2020). We encourage future organizational research to examine gender effects from a more fluid and continuous perspective.

We also focused only on manager gender in the current research. That is, we did not consider potential intersectional effects between gender and other social category information, such as race or age, which can merge to elicit specific stereotypes about subgroups. Such stereotypes may further shape employee responses to managerial fairness. For example, employee reactions to interpersonal justice violations from Black female managers may differ from White female managers given the prevalence of the “angry Black woman” stereotype (e.g., Ashley, 2014; Rosette, et al., 2016). Consequently, the relational damage from interpersonal justice violations may be less severe for Black female managers compared to White female managers, as employees may not expect low agency from them. As another example, East Asians are typically stereotyped as lacking in agency in North American society (e.g., shy, reserved; Berdahl & Min, 2012; Lin et al., 2005). Thus, perhaps East Asian male managers may not get the same “pass” that White male managers appear to receive when they violate

interpersonal justice rules. Future studies that examine intersectional effects would provide a more comprehensive understanding of how manager social category memberships shape employee reactions to the justice-related actions of their managers.

Another promising avenue for future research is to examine if the process of reconciling relational damage from injustice (for reviews, see Okimoto & Wenzel, 2014; Palanski, 2012) differs for female and male managers. Given that interpersonal justice violations result in greater relational damage for female than male managers, employees may be less likely to engage in conciliatory actions toward unfair female managers. Even if female managers attempt to reconcile by being kinder and more considerate, such efforts are typically expected of women (Heilman & Chen, 2005), and thus may be seen as insufficient for atoning for prior injustices. As such, reconciling the relational damage of injustice may be more difficult for female managers than for male managers. We encourage future research that explores these possibilities.

Conclusion

Justice research has consistently demonstrated that justice violations damage relationships between managers and their subordinates, as employees tend to withdraw from relations with unfair managers. In the current work, we find that the relational consequences of interpersonal justice violations are exacerbated for female as compared to male managers. Moreover, this is because employees perceive such violations to be incongruent with the stereotypical expectation that women, but not men, should refrain from exhibiting high agency. Thus, our work substantiates that gender stereotypes exert significant negative effects within long-term workplace relationships and contribute to the bias experienced by female leaders.

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APPENDIX A: STUDY 1-3 MATERIALS

Common Measures Across All Studies

Interpersonal Justice

(Adapted from Colquitt et al., 2015)

The questions below refer to the interactions you have with your supervisor as decision-making procedures (about pay, rewards, evaluations, promotions, and so forth) are implemented. To what extent:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To a very small extent			To a moderate extent			To a very large extent

[Interpersonal justice violations]

1. Does [he/she] treat you in a rude manner?
2. Does [he/she] treat you in a derogatory manner?
3. Does [he/she] treat you with disregard?
4. Does [he/she] use insulting remarks or comments?

[Interpersonal justice adherence]

1. Does [he/she] treat you in a polite manner?
2. Does [he/she] treat you with dignity?
3. Does [he/she] treat you with respect?
4. Does [he/she] refrain from improper remarks or comments?

Commitment to Manager

(Adapted from Cheng et al., 2003)

Please think about your relationship with your supervisor, and indicate your agreement with the following statements:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

1. I talk up [supervisor name] to my friends as a great supervisor to work with.
2. When someone praises [supervisor name], it feels like a personal compliment.
3. [supervisor name]'s successes are my successes.
4. Since starting this job, my personal values and those of [supervisor name] have become more similar.
5. The reason I prefer [supervisor name] to other supervisors is because of what [he/she] stands for, that is [his/her] values.

To a very
small
extent

To a
moderate
extent

To a very
large
extent

1. Do your views go unheard during those procedures?
2. Do the decisions arrived at by those procedures lack your input?
3. Are those procedures applied unevenly?
4. Are those procedures one-sided?
5. Are those procedures based on faulty information?
6. Are the decisions arrived at by those procedures “set in stone”?
7. Are those procedures unprincipled or wrong?

Study 3 Additional Materials

Event Recall Prompt

(Adapted from Kahneman et al., 2004)

In this section, we would like you to think about a time *within the last 3 months* in which your *current* supervisor has treated you unfairly during decision-making procedures (e.g., about pay, rewards, evaluations, promotions, etc.). This might have included treating you in a *rude* (impolite) *manner*, in a derogatory *manner* (with lack of dignity), treating you with *disregard* (lack of respect), or making *insulting remarks or comments*.

Please take a moment to recall the situation and visualize the events. Consider what happened, what you thought, and how you felt at the time. Afterwards, please respond to the following questions:

1. When did this situation first begin?
 - i. This week
 - ii. Within the last month
 - iii. Within the last 6 months
 - iv. Within the last year
 - v. Over a year ago
2. What day of the week was it?
 - i. Monday
 - ii. Tuesday
 - iii. Wednesday
 - iv. Thursday
 - v. Friday
 - vi. Saturday
 - vii. Sunday
 - viii. Don't remember
3. What time of day was it?
 - i. Morning
 - ii. Afternoon

- iii. Evening
- iv. Don't remember

Please describe the event as accurately as possible below.

Interpersonal Justice Violation

(Adapted from Colquitt et al., 2015)

This section of the survey contains questions about your thoughts, feelings, attitudes, and behaviors about the specific events you've just described. Your data is very important to our research, so please be as accurate as possible.

Please indicate the extent to which [supervisor name] has exhibited the following behaviors during the event.

- | | | | | |
|------------|-------------------|----------------------|-------------------|------------------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Not at all | To a small extent | To a moderate extent | To a large extent | To an extremely large extent |

1. Treated you in a rude manner.
2. Treated you in a derogatory manner.
3. Treated you with disregard.
4. Used insulting remarks or comments.

Event Characteristics

How severe were [supervisor name]'s actions?

- | | | | | |
|-------------------|---|-------------------|---|------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Not at all severe | | Moderately Severe | | Extremely Severe |

Prior to this specific event, how often has [supervisor name] displayed similar behaviors toward you?

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|

Never	Rarely (once in a couple of weeks)	Sometimes (once or twice per week)	Moderately (3- 4 times per week)	Often (at least once per day)	Very Often (multiple times per day)
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Prior to this specific event, how often *have you observed your supervisor displaying* similar behaviors toward *others*?

1	2	3	4	5	6
Never	Rarely (once in a couple of weeks)	Sometimes (once or twice per week)	Moderately (3- 4 times per week)	Often (at least once per day)	Very Often (multiple times per day)

Agentic and Communal Incongruence

(Adapted from Abele, 2003; Carli et al., 2016; Ramsey, 2017)

With the event in mind, please rate the degree to which your supervisor should have acted in the following ways compared to how [he/she] actually acted:

1	2	3	4	5
Much Less		About the Same		Much More

[Agentic incongruence]

1. Dominant
2. Assertive
3. Authoritative
4. Direct
5. Confident

[Communal incongruence]

1. Considerate
2. Kind
3. Understanding
4. Helpful
5. Sympathetic

APPENDIX B: STUDY 4 MATERIALS

Weekly Interpersonal Justice Violation Perceptions

(Adapted from Colquitt et al., 2015)

Take a moment to think about your supervisor's actions during decision-making events over the past work week. To what extent:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To a very small extent	To a small extent	To a mild extent	To a moderate extent	To a significant extent	To a large extent	To a very large extent

1. Did [he/she] treat you in a rude manner?
2. Did [he/she] treat you in a derogatory manner?
3. Did [he/she] treat you with disregard?
4. Did [he/she] use insulting remarks or comments?

Weekly Agentic and Communal Incongruence

People often have expectations about how others *should* treat them. Considering how your supervisor treated you over the past work week, rate the extent to which [he/she] *should have acted*.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Much less	Less	Slightly less	About the same	Slightly more	More	Much more

[Agentic incongruence]

1. Dominant
2. Assertive
3. Authoritative
4. Direct
5. Confident

[Communal incongruence]

1. Considerate
2. Kind
3. Understanding
4. Helpful
5. Sympathetic

Weekly Commitment to Manager

(Adapted from Cheng et al., 2003)

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements based on how you feel at this moment:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

1. I would talk up my supervisor to my friends as a great supervisor to work with.
2. When someone praises supervisor, it feels like a personal compliment.
3. My supervisor's successes are my successes.
4. My personal values and those of my supervisor have become more similar.
5. The reason I prefer my supervisor to other supervisors is because of what [he/she] stands for, that is [his/her] values.

Weekly Trust in Manager

(Adapted from Yang et al., 2009)

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

1. I can depend on my supervisor to meet [his/her] responsibilities.
2. I can rely on my supervisor to do what is best at work.
3. My supervisor follows through with commitments [he/she] makes.
4. Given my supervisor's track record, I see no reason to doubt [his/her] competence.
5. I'm confident in my supervisor because [he/she] approaches work with professionalism.
6. I'm confident that my supervisor will always care about my personal needs at work.
7. If I shared my problems with my supervisor, I know [he/she] would respond with care.
8. I'm confident that I could share my work difficulties with my supervisor.
9. I'm sure I could openly communicate my feelings to my supervisor.
10. I feel secure with my supervisor because of [his/her] sincerity.

APPENDIX C: DIFFERENCES IN H2 ACROSS STUDIES

In the current research, one of our main interests was to investigate whether manager gender moderates the relationship between interpersonal justice violations and relational outcomes (i.e., H2). This was target of the focal analyses in Study 1 and 2. Interestingly, our supplemental analysis for Study 3 and 4 did not replicate H2 findings from Study 1 and 2, as manager gender did not appear to directly moderate the relational consequences of interpersonal justice violations. One potential explanation is statistical power. Specifically, the samples in Study 3 and 4 ($N = 267$ and 224) were smaller than the samples in Study 1 and Study 2 ($N = 455$ and 354). Lack of statistical power can make interactive effects more difficult to detect (Aguinis & Gottfredson, 2010). Further, prior simulation studies demonstrate, given typical sample sizes in psychological research, that it is fairly common for there to be sufficient power to detect indirect effects, but not direct effects (e.g., Kenny & Judd, 2014; Rucker et al., 2011).

Another key difference between our earlier studies and our later studies is the nature of interpersonal justice violations measurements. In Study 1 and 2, we used a person-based approach in which participants reported on overall levels of interpersonal justice violations from their managers across a wide variety of decision-making events. In Study 3 and 4, we adopted an event-based approach in which participants reported on degree of interpersonal justice violation during a single interaction with their manager (Study 3) or during multiple interactions with their manager within a given work week (Study 4). Justice scholars have often theorized about differences in using person- or entity-based paradigms versus event-based paradigms to study justice phenomena (for reviews, see Cropanzano et al., 2001; Colquitt & Rodell, 2015).

Specifically, person-based paradigms focus on global justice perceptions about the propensity of a social entity (e.g., a given manager) to engage in fair or unfair behaviors, whereas

event-based paradigms focus on state-like justice perceptions that are circumscribed by a specific time and situation (e.g., a manager's actions during a particular week). Some scholars have speculated that relational outcomes (e.g., commitment, trust) are more proximal to entity-based justice perceptions, whereas immediate reactions toward the justice enactor (e.g., evaluation of manager's actions) are more proximal to event-based justice perceptions (e.g., Rupp et al., 2017), suggesting that event-based justice perceptions could have less influence on relational outcomes than entity-based justice perceptions. Thus, although using the event-based approach to measure interpersonal justice violations in Study 3 and 4 allowed us greater insight into how employees interpret interpersonally unjust actions from their managers, such an approach may have also shifted commitment and trust toward manager to more distal outcomes. As a result, the moderating effect of manager gender on the relationship between justice perceptions and relational outcomes may be more difficult to detect (or weaker) when employing event-based approaches relative to person-level approaches. Given these possibilities, we encourage future research to further investigate the interplay between manager gender and the relational consequences of interpersonal justice violations.