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Subordinate-Supervisor Demographic And Perceived Value Similarity: Relationships To Subordinate Perceptions Of Organizational Justice

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**SUBORDINATE-SUPERVISOR DEMOGRAPHIC AND PERCEIVED VALUE
SIMILARITY: RELATIONSHIPS TO SUBORDINATE PERCEPTIONS OF
ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE**

by

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DISSERTATION

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Approved by:

Advisor

Date

DEDICATION

“I would like to dedicate my dissertation to my mother, father, and sister. The three of you never stopped believing in me, and it is greatly appreciated!”

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to acknowledge my mother, father, and sister for always being there for me throughout this process. I would also like to say thanks to my advisor Sebastiano Fisticaro, Ph.D for never stop believing in me, and providing me with support whenever it was needed. Finally, I would like to acknowledge all of my other family members and friends who have been there for me throughout while I pursued my goal of completing my doctoral program at Wayne State University.

PREFACE

The purpose of this study is to examine the empirical relationship between subordinate-supervisor demographic and value dissimilarity with subordinate perceptions of organizational justice using three structural equation models. The first model indicates that subordinate-supervisor demographic and value similarity are directly related to subordinate perceptions of organizational justice. The second model indicates that subordinates perceived value similarity with their supervisors mediates the relationship between the structural determinants and subordinate perceptions of organizational justice. The last model indicates subordinate perceived value similarity with their supervisor moderates the relationship between the structural determinants and subordinate perceptions of organizational justice.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The relationship between subordinates and their supervisors is a fundamental aspect of organizational life. Having positive subordinate-supervisor working relationships should allow organizations to reach their goals more easily than when those relationships are tumultuous. The success of these relationships is based on the way that subordinates perceive their supervisors' actions and attitudes while working (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). Supervisors represent the organization because they enforce rules, assign tasks, and communicate the goals of upper-level executives. Thus, it is imperative that subordinates perceive that they are treated fairly by their supervisors because the treatment by supervisors can affect how subordinates perceive the organization in which they work (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Therefore, organizations might be well advised to ensure that subordinates and supervisors have positive relationships.

Researchers have long recognized the importance of organizational justice. Moorman (1991) stated, "The belief of researchers who support the value of organizational justice is that if employees believe they are treated fairly, then they will be more likely to hold positive attitudes about their work, their work outcomes, and their supervisors" (pg. 845). Research also suggests the degree and type of communication between supervisors and subordinates is related to the degree of organizational justice that subordinates perceive (Aquino, Lewis, & Bradfield, 1996; Cropanzano, Prehar, & Chen, 2002; Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996). Communication appears to increase the familiarity between both parties, and when both parties become more familiar with the personal habits, values, and interests of each other, they are then better able to make an accurate assessment of whether they can co-exist in the same working environment. For example, subordinates are more likely to be satisfied and increase their performance when their

leaders provide feedback (Morran, Robinson, & Stockton, 1985), communicate cooperatively (Lee, 2001), and communicate direction (Mayfield, Mayfield, & Kopf, 1998). If these types of communication occur, subordinates and leaders are more likely to have a positive relationship, characterized by high levels of perceived justice (Lee, 2001). However, if their relationship does not allow this important communication and learning to occur, superiors are more likely to exhibit behaviors that are not acceptable to subordinates, which can leave subordinates with feelings of injustice.

Realizing that organizational justice perceptions can influence worker productivity and communication (Cohen-Charash&Spector, 2001), researchers began to examine possible factors that determine justice perceptions. Based on these efforts, numerous research studies have indicated that demographic differences between subordinates and their supervisors tend to influence subordinate justice perceptions (Cohen-Charash&Spector, 2001; Jeanquart-Barone, 1996; Ritter, Fischbein, & Lord, 2005; Wesolowski&Mossholder, 1997). The most prevalent demographic characteristics that have been shown to influence perceived justice are ethnicity, gender, and age (Jeanquart-Barone, 1996; Naumann& Bennett, 2000; Ritter et al. 2005; Sweeney &McFarlin, 1997; Wesolowski&Mossholder, 1997). Research has indicated that supervisors who are demographically similar to their subordinates tend to place their subordinates in their “in-group,” while those subordinates who are demographically dissimilar are likely to be placed in their “out-group” (Varma& Stroh, 2001). Importantly, subordinates placed in the in-group are more likely to be trusted by their leaders (Chattopadhyay, 1999), are provided with more positive communication (Tsui& O’Reilly, 1989), and have stronger loyalty to their supervisor (Epitropaki& Martin, 1999) than those placed in the out-group. In addition, in-group members are likely to receive more positive performance evaluations by leaders than out-group members

(Kraiger& Ford, 1985; Varma& Stroh, 2001), which provides in-group subordinates with more opportunities for career development and promotions. Based on the differences mentioned, it would seem that out-group members should be less likely to perceive organizational justice than in-group members.

Another area of research has examined whether justice perceptions are influenced by the similarity between subordinate and supervisor values. Erdogan, Kraimer, and Liden (2004) argued that value congruence is a significant form of person-organization fit because values are relatively enduring beliefs that form a standard for guiding action, developing attitudes, justifying a person's own actions, and judging others in organizational settings. Further, those subordinates whose values are dissimilar to their supervisors are more likely to leave their place of employment because their perceived dissimilarity may limit how well they integrate themselves into a working group, or may feel pressure to leave if they feel they are being perceived by others as poor workers (Jackson, Brett, Sessa, Cooper, Julin, & Peyronnin, 1991). Therefore, it is important for organizations to try to match the values of their subordinates with those of their supervisors in order to ensure that subordinates feel comfortable working with their supervisors, and most importantly, perceive that they are being rewarded fairly.

Although researchers have examined the direct relationships that exist between subordinate-supervisor demographic similarity and subordinate perceptions of organizational justice, in addition to subordinate-supervisor value similarity with subordinate perceptions of organizational justice, researchers have yet to examine the ways in which subordinate-supervisor demographic dissimilarity and value dissimilarity influence the three components of organizational justice (Distributive, Procedural, and Interactional) individually. Further, research has not examined how subordinate-supervisor demographic and value dissimilarity interact when

predicting organizational justice. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to empirically examine the relationship between subordinate-supervisor demographic and value dissimilarity with subordinate perceptions of organizational justice using three structural equation models. The first model indicates that subordinate-supervisor demographic and value similarity are directly related to subordinate perceptions of organizational justice. The second model indicates that subordinates perceived value similarity with their supervisors mediates the relationship between subordinate-supervisor demographic dissimilarity and subordinate perceptions of organizational justice. The third model indicates subordinate perceived value similarity with their supervisor moderates the relationship between subordinate supervisor demographic dissimilarity and subordinate perceptions of organizational justice.

CHAPTER 2

OVERVIEW OF ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE

Organizational justice was initially grounded in “Relative Deprivation Theory” (RDT; Stouffer et al., 1949). RDT refers to the emotions and feelings that result when people make comparisons to others and decide they have been unjustly deprived of something that they desire (Crosby, 1976). Based on a person feeling deprived of something that they feel they should possess, a person experiences relative deprivation, and a sense of anger may occur because they feel entitled to whatever it is they are missing.

To further explain this theory, Davis (1959) argued that, when people who are perceived as being similar to the evaluator possess something that is desired by the evaluator, the evaluator feels entitled to possess the desired thing; if they do not have it, they will feel deprived. Davis proposed that there are three determinants of felt deprivation. First, the individual who lacks the desired thing must perceive another person as having the thing that the individual desires. Second, the individual must also want what the similar person possesses. Finally, the individual must feel entitled to possess the desired thing.

Distributive Justice

Relative Deprivation Theory’s focus on considering one’s own and another’s possessions led to research on the social exchanges that exist among people. When examining whether exchanges were perceived as being either positive or negative, Homans (1961) suggested that the proportionality between the rewards, costs, and investments of these exchanges must be equal. Based on the distribution of those three factors to the overall proportion, Homans (1961) coined these exchanges, *distributive justice*, the first developed component of organizational justice. Distributive justice was defined by Neuman (2005) as, “Expectations among parties to a social

exchange relationship when (1) the reward of each will be proportional to the costs of each, and (2) the net rewards, or profits, will be proportional to the their investments” (p. 69). For example, a person may be more productive while working if they receive monetary compensation that is based on how much effort they put into the task. If the person feels that they are rewarded adequately, they will perceive the net reward (monetary compensation) as being proportional to their investments (effort). However, Homans (1961) also argued that, if people do not view the net reward as being proportional to their investment, they will develop feelings of distributive injustice.

Feelings of distributive injustice have been noted to cause not only feelings of anger if people feel that they are under-rewarded (Aquino et al., 1999), but also feelings of guilt if people are over-rewarded (Cohen-Charash&Spector, 2001). In addition, although feelings of distributive injustice occur, Homans (1961) noted that perceptions of injustice are different for every individual. Thus, further research was needed to determine the ways people formed perceptions about whether their rewards were adequately distributed based on their investments.

Adams (1963) developed *Equity Theory* in an attempt to articulate the processes by which perceptions of justice or injustice develop. Equity is defined as the process through which individuals evaluate their relationship in comparison to others by assessing the relation of their inputs to the outcomes that they receive from those inputs, and the inputs and outcomes that exist for those to whom they are comparing themselves. Walster et al. (1973) defined inputs as an individual’s contributions to exchanges, which entitle the individual to certain outcomes. An example of an input is an employee who performs manual labor for ten hours, and expects to be paid for the ten hours of work. They also defined outcomes as either a positive or negative consequence that a person receives based on their inputs. Positive outcomes may be referred to

as rewards (e.g., pay, promotion, etc.), while negative outcome are labeled as costs (e.g., not being recognized for their production). If employee ratios of inputs and outcomes are equal, equity exists, but if they are unequal, a perception of inequity will result.

If an inequitable relationship is perceived, Adams (1963) suggests that people might develop feelings of distress if under-rewarded and guilt if over-rewarded. In order for equity to be restored, employees must alter their inputs to attain more equitable outcomes or, alternatively, diminish the outputs. For instance, a person will perceive that they are over-rewarded if they receive a higher outcome for doing the same work as the referent other. Therefore, to restore equity, the over-rewarded worker might increase their level of input to ensure that they are being fairly rewarded for their performance. Another way the worker can restore equity is to diminish or derogate the other person's inputs to feel more justified in their own outcome. In addition, individuals who perceive themselves as receiving fewer outcomes for their inputs (under-rewarded) might either decrease their input or compare themselves to a different person who performs less or similarly.

Procedural Justice

Thibault and Walker (1975) suggested that justice is determined, not only by the value of the rewards given, but also by the procedures utilized when determining the ways rewards are distributed (i.e., procedural justice). Thibaut and Walker (Thibaut & Walker, 1974; Walker, Latour, Lind, & Thibaut, 1974) examined the reactions of people to simulated dispute resolution procedures, which differed in the type of control that disputants had in the process. They investigated two types of control: (1) process control, which is the degree of control disputants had over the procedures used to settle their grievance, and (2) decision control, which is the degree of control disputants had over determining the outcomes directly. Specifically, Thibaut

and Walker examined two legal systems: (1) Adversary system, in which a judge controls the decision that is made, but the disputants are able to control the information that is presented to the judge in order to help sway the decision (low decision, high process), and (2) Inquisitorial system, in which the judge controls both the decision and the information that is presented (low decision, low process). Walker et al. (1974) found that people are more likely to have perceptions of injustice if organizations adopt a method that is similar to the inquisitorial system because employees will feel they have little control over or input into the types of decisions that organizations make about their well-being.

Interactional Justice

Further examination of procedural justice identified that the structure of organizational procedures and the way in which decisions were made failed to address the interpersonal factors that influenced the development of organizational procedures (Colquitt et al., 2005). Bies and Moag (1986) labeled this more interpersonal side of organizational justice as, *Interactional Justice*, which is defined as, “The quality of interpersonal treatment that people receive during the enactment of organizational procedures” (p. 44).

In an attempt to identify the principles of interactional justice, Bies (1985) conducted two studies in which he asked MBA students to identify the principles that organizational recruiters should abide by when recruiting potential job applicants. Bies identified four principles of interactional justice for organizational leaders to follow: (1) *Truthfulness*- When making decisions and implementing organizational policies, leaders should be both truthful and candid, and at the same time should avoid using deceptive tactics in order to try to make their decisions and policies acceptable,(2) *Respect*- Leaders should respect everyone when making their decisions, while at the same time should refrain from being rude or discourteous,(3) *Propriety of*

Questions- Leaders should refrain from asking improper questions or making prejudicial remarks on the basis of age, race, gender, or religion, and (4) *Justification-* Leaders should give a reasonable explanation when explaining their decisions, and the outcomes of those decisions.

Although procedural justice examines employee reactions to rules and procedures of organizational leaders, interactional justice is a result of how effectively organizational leaders communicate what they have implemented. For instance, if a leader engages in an unfavorable procedure. such as limiting the amount of time that employees can talk to one another, but has a good working relationship with subordinates and treats them well during the process, the subordinates are less likely to feel unfairly treated (Setton et al., 1996). Clearly, the interactions between organizational leaders and their subordinates are important to employees' perceptions of organizational injustice (Aquino et al., 1999; Masterson et al., 2000; Setton et al., 1996).

All three organizational justice components are vital to the success of organizations. Research suggests that, when employees have positive perceptions of organizational justice, they will not only be motivated to perform at a productive level (Konovsky&Cropanzano, 1991; Aquino et al., 1999), but will also engage in organizational citizenship behaviors (Lee, 2005). For instance, Konovsky and Cropanzo (1991) found that perceptions of procedural justice were positively related to performance, while Lee (2005) found that perceptions of procedural and distributive justice were positively related to an increase of in-role and extra-role behaviors. Therefore, in order for organizations to get the most effort from their employees, organizations must make sure that their employees perceive that they are being treated fairly.

Demographics and Organizational Justice Perceptions

Byrne's (1971) Similarity Attraction Paradigm suggests that people tend to be more attracted to others with whom they are similar, and less attracted to those who are dissimilar.

Within this paradigm, Byrne (1971) argues that people determine their similarity with others based on both the external (e.g., demographics) and internal (e.g., values, personality, etc.) characteristics that they have in common with each other. Applying this theory to the supervisor-subordinate relationship, much of the research suggests that supervisors classify their subordinates into either an “in” or an “out” group based on their demographic similarity (Pelled, Eisenhardt, & Xin, 1999; Tsui & O’Reilly, 1989), and these classifications are related to the degree and type of exchanges that occur between the two parties (Deluga, 1998; Lee, 2001). It has been found that the relationships between supervisors and their subordinates are more likely to be positive when the subordinate is demographically similar to their supervisor, and negative when they are dissimilar (Elsass & Graves, 1997). The quality of exchanges appear to increase the familiarity between both parties by allowing both parties to become more comfortable with the personal habits, values, and interests of one another. Therefore, it is imperative that supervisors understand that, by classifying their followers into out-groups, they are making it more difficult for their subordinates to succeed because their subordinates feel as if they are not being treated as fairly as those placed in the in-group.

When examining the relationship between subordinate organizational justice perceptions subordinate demographic similarity, researchers have only examined the following demographic characteristics: ethnicity, gender, and age. Therefore, the next section will discuss the relationship between subordinate-supervisor ethnicity, gender, and age similarity and their perceptions of organizational justice.

CHAPTER 3

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS AND ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE

PERCEPTIONS

Supervisors and their subordinates who are similar based on ethnicity, gender, or age, regardless of their expertise, status, or tenure in an organization, tend to have common non-work-related experiences. These commonalities are based on both parties sharing similar attitudes, interests, and beliefs. Further, demographic similarities influence communication because the more similar people are in ethnicity, gender, and age, the more likely they are to communicate with one another (Zenger & Lawrence, 1989). Research also suggests that demographic similarities can also influence subordinate perceptions of organizational justice (Gray-Little & Teddlie, 1978; Jeanquart-Barone, 1996; Ritter, Fischbein, & Lord, 2005; Wesolowski & Mossholder 1997). For instance, when Bedi (2000) examined the effect of relational demographic characteristics on the types of vertical exchanges between superiors and their subordinates, the results indicated that their ethnic similarity had an effect on the types of exchanges between the two parties. More specifically, superiors and subordinates who were ethnically similar tended to have more positive exchanges than those who were ethnically dissimilar.

Although this finding pertained to ethnicity, Livers and Caver (2003) would suggest that, when subordinates and their superiors are demographically similar, they are able to reciprocally understand the customs, beliefs, and experiences that are associated with the demographic characteristic in which they are similar. For example, pertaining to race, they noted that, in organizations where African-Americans are the minority ethnicity, African-American subordinates are more likely to have positive relationships with African-American superiors

because their superiors have a better understanding of what it is like being a minority within the organization, which allows the superior to more effectively help the subordinate accomplish the task at hand. Therefore, it can be assumed that the perceived demographic similarity of the superior and subordinate experiences may lead subordinates to feel as if they are being respected and treated fairly while working, which can influence subordinate perceptions of organizational justice.

In one of the first studies of the relationship between perceptions of organizational justice and ethnicity, Gray-Little and Teddlie (1978) examined the ethnic differences of elementary school boys in their response to an unfair distribution of rewards. The experimenters instructed the participants to perform a task, and informed the participants that everyone successfully completing the task would receive an award. All of the participants successfully completed the task. Using male African-American and Caucasian students, they separated the boys into one of three groups. One group distributed the rewards, another group was fairly rewarded, and the last group was unfairly rewarded. The authors discovered two major findings that are relevant to perceptions of distributive justice. The first finding suggested that the children who experienced inequity with their rewards experienced anger and a negative view of the person distributing the rewards when the person distributing the rewards was ethnically dissimilar, and experienced less anger when the parties were of the same ethnicity. Second, the children receiving the rewards worked harder to restore equity when the person distributing the rewards was of the same ethnicity than they did when there was ethnic dissimilarity. Extrapolating these findings to the work environment, these findings suggests that, if subordinates receive an inequitable reward from superiors who are ethnically similar, they are likely to perceive injustice, but are likely to intentionally increase their performance in order to restore the equity. However, if employees

receive an inequitable reward from people who are racially dissimilar, they are likely to perceive injustice, and instead of increasing their performance in an effort to restore their equity, they may intentionally decrease their performance to restore equitable justice perceptions.

In another study, Jeanquart-Barone (1996) examined the relationship of the ethnic similarity of subordinates with their supervisors in order to determine subordinate perceptions of procedural justice. In an organization that consisted primarily of minorities, supervisors and their subordinates completed questionnaires that assessed their perceptions of procedural justice and discrimination, in addition to other variables such as supervisory support and developmental opportunities. African-American subordinates reporting to Caucasian superiors perceived significantly lower levels of procedural justice and higher levels of discrimination than those who reported to African-American superiors.

In a more recent study, Ritter et al. (2005) examined the consequences of supervisor and subordinate racial differences on expectations of future treatment in organizations by assessing subordinate implicit organizational justice perceptions. Undergraduates working at least part-time viewed a videotape of either a White or Black male manager at a local organization. The manager instructed them to complete a task. After completing the task, participants completed an explicit measure of negative justice expectancies. Results indicated that minority participants who viewed a White manager were more likely to possess feelings of injustice than those who viewed a Black manager. Further, they found that minorities in general were more likely to possess feelings of injustice regardless of the ethnicity of their manager.

Wesolowski and Mossholder (1997) were one of the first researchers to examine the relationship between superior-subordinate ethnicity, gender, and age similarity and their perceptions of organizational justice. Using two service-oriented companies, presidents of the

companies sent surveys to their employees stating their participation was voluntary. The surveys contained an organizational procedural justice measure, and the demographics of subordinates and their supervisors were obtained from personnel records. The results of the study indicated that subordinates who were dissimilar to their superiors based on ethnicity, gender, or age, all perceived less procedural justice than those who were demographically similar to their superiors.

In another study that examined the relationship between superior-subordinate ethnicity, gender, and age similarity and subordinate procedural justice perceptions, Nauman and Bennett (2000) examined work-group demographic similarity and subordinate perceptions of organizational justice. They found a negative relationship between age group heterogeneity and perceptions of procedural justice. Although this study did not directly assess the superior-subordinate dyad based on their similarity, assessing procedural justice in work groups is adequate for this study because within work groups, leaders and superiors develop and lead the group in their mission.

Scott, Colquitt, and Zapata-Phelan (2007) conducted the most recent study pertaining to demographic supervisor-subordinate demographic similarity and subordinate perceptions of organizational justice. Using a field study of employees from a large national insurance company, participants indicated their age and gender, and also indicated their superior's age and gender. They also completed a measure assessing their perceptions of organizational justice. The researchers found a negative relationship between gender similarity and distributive justice.

In addition to the studies reported above, numerous other studies have found evidence to suggest negative relationships between superior-subordinate demographic similarity and organizational justice perceptions, but the results were not significant. For instance, Duffy and Ferrier (2003) explored the moderating role of supervisor-subordinate demographic dissimilarity

on the relationship between supervisor behaviors and employee outcomes among a sample of middle and upper-level managers. The managers completed a survey asking them to indicate their ethnicity and gender, in addition to their similarity with their superiors. The managers also completed a survey assessing their perceptions of procedural justice. Although they did not find significant results, they did find non-significant negative relationship between ethnic and gender dissimilarity and procedural justice perceptions. Further, Scott et al. (2007) found negative relationships between gender similarity and procedural justice, and between age similarity and procedural and distributive justice. Based on the findings of previous research, it can be assumed that subordinate perceptions of organizational justice is influenced by the relational ethnicity between subordinates and their supervisors.

Hypothesis 1: Subordinate-supervisor age similarity is positively related to subordinate perceptions of organizational justice (Procedural, Distributive, and Interactional).

Hypothesis 2: Subordinate-supervisor ethnic similarity is positively related to subordinate perceptions of organizational justice (Procedural, Distributive, and Interactional).

Hypothesis 3: Subordinate-supervisor gender similarity is positively related to subordinate perceptions of organizational justice (Procedural, Distributive, and Interactional).

CHAPTER 4

PERCEIVED VALUES AND ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE

Posner, Kouzes, and Schmidt (1985, p. 294) stated, “Our values comprise the things that are most important to us, and are the deep seated, pervasive standards that influence almost every aspect of our lives, our moral judgments, our responses to others, and our commitments to personal and organizational goals.” Essentially, our values guide our behavior, and are the most fundamental element in most definitions of organizational culture (Chatman, 1991). An accurate understanding of the job requirements and the organization’s values has been shown to enhance employees adjustment to their jobs, as well as their subsequent level of satisfaction and organizational commitment (Posner, 1992). Individuals are attracted to organizations they view as having values and situational norms they deem important (Turban &Keon, 1993).

Research has indicated that the values of the organization are reflected in upper-level management (Maxham&Netemeyer, 2003), and person-organization fit theory advocates that shared values between individuals and organizations lead to job satisfaction for the individual and favorable outcomes toward achieving organizational goals (Netemeyer, Boles, McKee, &McMurrian, 1997). Further, value congruence is a significant form of person-organization fit because values are relatively enduring beliefs that form a standard for guiding action, developing attitudes, justifying one’s own actions, and judging others (Erdogan, Kraimer, &Liden, 2004). When the fit of personal values to organizational values is high, employees are less likely to leave the organization, and have higher levels of satisfaction, commitment, and productivity (Schneider, Goldstein, & Smith, 1995).

Of particular relevance to the current study, it is important for organizations to have employees who have shared values with organizational leaders so they will feel as if they are

being treated fairly (Ogorman, 1979). Erdogan et al. (2004) suggested that subordinates whose values are congruent with their supervisors, tend to have higher levels of job satisfaction and perceived organizational support, which are both related to subordinate perceptions of fairness in the workplace. Erdogan et al. (2004) examined the relationship between leader-member exchanges and work value congruence. A sample of teachers from 30 high schools in Turkey completed a leader-member exchange (LMX) measure, and an individual and organizational values measure. Work value congruence was measured by correlating the responses from the individual and organizational value scales. Overall, they found a positive relationship between LMX and value congruence. This simply indicates that, when supervisors and their subordinates have similar values, their relationships are more positive than when values are dissimilar. Therefore, since those subordinates with similar values have positive relationships with their supervisors, and since research has suggested that subordinates who have high leader-member exchanges with their supervisors perceive organizational justice (Lee, 2001), it can be assumed that subordinates whose values are congruent with their supervisors will perceive positive levels of organizational justice (See Figure 1).

Hypothesis 4: Subordinate-supervisor perceived value similarity is positively related to subordinate perceptions of organizational justice (Procedural, Distributive, and Interactional).

Perceived Value Similarity and their Mediating/Moderating Roles

As already discussed, previous research has indicated that subordinates perceive significantly higher levels of organizational justice when they work with a supervisor who is demographically similar. However, research has also indicated that supervisors do not have to be demographically similar to their subordinates in order for successful working relationships to occur (Ensher& Murphy, 1997; Dreher& Cox, 1996). Dreher and Cox (1996) stated that

protégés and their mentors who differ in color can have positive working relationships because the protégé can take advantage of their mentor's network, which could serve to promote a progression in the protégé's career. In addition, although Ensher and Murphy (1997) found that protégés reported more career support when their mentors were of their same race, the race of their mentor did not influence their satisfaction with their mentors. Based on these findings, it can be assumed that subordinates and their supervisors do not necessarily have to be demographically similar in order for subordinates to perceive a positive relationship with their supervisors.

While previous research indicates the success of subordinate relationships with their mentors may be dependent on the demographic similarities they share with their supervisors (Cohen-Charash&Spector, 2001; Jeanquart-Barone, 1996; Ritter, Fischbein, & Lord, 2005; Wesolowski&Mossholder, 1997), research has also suggested that, over time, subordinates focus less on the demographic similarities, and more on the shared values they have with their supervisors (Harrison, Price, & Bell, 1998; Ortiz-Walters & Gilson, 2005). Harrison et al. (1998) indicated that, while external similarity characteristics are initially important, over time, perceived value similarities are more salient to relationships between subordinates and their supervisors. Ortiz-Walters and Gilson (2005) supported this finding when they assessed graduate student protégés of color and their relationships with their mentors. They found that, regardless of the racial similarity that existed between protégés and their mentors, protégés who perceived their mentors as being more similar with regard to values had more positive relationships with their mentors than those who did not.

Although there is research which suggests supervisor and subordinate shared values influence subordinate perceptions of justice, and that shared values lead to positive relationships

regardless of supervisor-subordinate demographic dissimilarity, research has yet to address whether subordinates will have positive perceptions of organizational justice if they have shared values with their supervisor, regardless of their demographic similarity. Further, since it has been shown that similar subordinate-supervisor values may override supervisor-subordinate demographic dissimilarity (Harrison et al., 1998; Ortiz-Walters & Gilson, 2005), it can be assumed that, if subordinate values are in line with their supervisors, they will perceive that they are being fairly treated while working, and are likely to have positive perceptions of organizational justice.

Researchers have begun to explore whether interpersonal similarity reduces feelings of tension between people, regardless of external characteristics (Silvia, 1992; Struch & Schwartz, 1989). Silvia (1992) suggested that liking another person based on their internal characteristics increases the person's tendency to like what the other person likes, and enhances the similar person's credibility. Further, Hovland, Janis, and Kelley (1953, p. 22) stated "An individual is likely to feel that persons with status, values, interests, and needs similar to his own see things as he does and judges them from the same point of view. Because of this, their assertions about matters of which the individual is ignorant but where he feels the viewpoint makes a difference will tend to carry special credibility." Based on this statement, it can be assumed that characteristics in which people are similar internally would override those that differ externally.

The belief congruence theory further supports the argument that internally similar characteristics will override externally dissimilar characteristics among people. In this theory, Rokeach (1960) suggests that the belief congruence theory is a theory of prejudice which is concerned with the degree of similarity between people based on the beliefs, values, and attitudes that individuals perceive to exist. Stuch and Schwarts (1989) would argue that the belief

congruence theory indicates that individuals perceiving similar beliefs and values have more of an impact on demographic discrimination than their actual demographics. Further, this theory suggests that demographic minorities are discriminated against, not because they belong to a particular demographic group, but because they are assumed to have different beliefs from those who are demographically different. Therefore, subordinates who are demographically dissimilar to their supervisors, but perceive their supervisors value hierarchy as similar, may constitute a stronger justification for ignoring demographic dissimilarities when assessing fairness in the workplace.

Value Similarity as a Mediator

To the author's knowledge, no studies have examined value similarity to determine if it mediates the relationship between demographic dissimilarity and perceived organizational justice. However, several studies have examined value similarity as a mediator of the relationship between other variables (Pilkington & Lydon, 1997; Silvia, 2005; Sturch & Schwartz, 1989). Sturch and Schwartz (1989) investigated predictors of aggression among group members, and their relationship to in-group member biases held toward the group. Israeli adults were given a questionnaire on perceived conflict and expressed aggression, and were asked to rate the measures based on their own religious group (in-group) and of the unorthodox Jewish group (out-group). They were also given a measure that assessed their value congruence with the out-group. They found that perceived value dissimilarity mediated the effect of religious group affiliation and perceived conflict on aggression.

In a study conducted by Pilkington and Lydon (1997), heterosexual male undergraduates rated the interpersonal attractiveness and perceived attitude similarity of heterosexual and homosexual targets who were either attitudinally similar, ambiguous (no-attitude-information

controls), or dissimilar to the participant. Low- and high-prejudice individuals completed a computer-administered attitude survey and were then randomly assigned to one of the three attitude conditions. Participants then rated the interpersonal attractiveness and perceived attitude similarity of one heterosexual and one homosexual target, each of whom was depicted as either attitudinally similar, ambiguous, or dissimilar to the participant. The results indicated that, across both low and high prejudice participants, attraction scores were mediated by perceptions of attitude similarity.

In a more recent study, Silvia (2005) examined whether the value similarity between a communicator and a reader would increase listener compliance and reduce resistance. Research participants were asked to read an opinionated threatening essay from a communicator who either had similar values, values that were similar but not as similar as in the first condition, or with no similarity. Participants were then asked to assess how much they liked the communicator, and how threatened they were by the message of the communicator. They found that, for those who possessed similar values with the communicator, there was a mediated effect of the threat of the message on how much the participants liked the communicator. Although in this study, value similarity is not the mediating variable, it does show how value similarity can be used to influence subordinate perceptions for the purposes of this study.

According to Silvia (2005), value similarity is a useful mediating variable because it helps reduce initial negative forces by influencing perceptions of the degree of an initial threat. Silvia (2005, p. 278) argues, "Value similarity can reduce the negative force toward resistance by fostering positive interpretations of the communicator's actions, particularly the degree of threat in the message." Based on Silvia's (2005) rationale, it can be assumed that value similarity as a mediator will reduce negative subordinate perceptions of organizational justice if their supervisor

is demographically dissimilar. Based on the evidence that supports value similarity as an effective mediator, the following hypotheses were derived (see Figure 2):

Hypothesis 5: Subordinate-supervisor perceived value similarity mediates the association between subordinate-supervisor age similarity and subordinate perceptions of organizational justice (Procedural, Distributive, and Interactional).

Hypothesis 6: Subordinate-supervisor perceived value similarity mediates the association between subordinate-supervisor ethnic similarity and subordinate perceptions of organizational justice (Procedural, Distributive, and Interactional).

Hypothesis 7: Subordinate-supervisor perceived value similarity mediates the association between subordinate-supervisor gender similarity and subordinate perceptions of organizational justice (Procedural, Distributive, and Interactional).

Value Similarity as a Moderator

In addition to value similarity being viewed as a mediator, it has also been viewed as a moderator in previous research, assessing its potential moderating relationship with numerous variables other than the variables that are included in the current study (demographic similarity and organizational justice). For example, Fisher (1998) proposed that value similarity moderated the effects of attractiveness on identification with participants' favorite sports team. They argued that a person's value similarity with a team is the most important factor leading to them identifying with a team. Undergraduate students were asked to identify their favorite sports team, and then in relation to their answer, they were then asked to complete a survey assessing how much they identified with the team, how attractive the team was, and how much their values were similar to the team. However, the results indicated that value similarity did not moderate the relationship between team attractiveness and identification with the team.

Although Fisher (1998) indicated that value similarity did not play a moderating role, a study by Jehn, Northcraft, and Neale (1999) suggests otherwise. The researchers wanted to determine if the effects of informational diversity on work-group performance would be

moderated by value diversity within a working group. Using a sample of teams in an organization, all team members completed a survey assessing their perceived value diversity among team members, workgroup performance, and informational diversity (heterogeneity of education, functional area in the firm, and position in the firm). They found that value diversity moderated the relationship between informational diversity and work-group performance within the group, such that when value diversity was high, informational diversity increased workgroup performance more than when value diversity was low. Although in this study, value diversity seemed to have more of an influence than value similarity (value diversity low), it proves that value dissimilarity can be used as an effective moderating variable.

In another study, Lee, Lee, and Suh (2006) surveyed United States importers who purchased from foreign exporters to determine whether the effect of the importer's relationship satisfaction on benevolence is moderated by their value similarity with the exporter. They argued that, when importers share similar values to exporters, importers tend to be empathetic toward exporters. They hypothesized that the influence of an importer's satisfaction on its benevolence is stronger when value similarity between exchange partners is high, than low. Their results indicated that satisfaction did not have a significant influence on the importer's benevolence when the importer's value similarity was low or when the importer's value similarity was high.

More recently, Dick, Knippenberg, Hagele, Guillaume, and Brodbeck (2008) predicted that the relationship between subjective diversity (participants in diverse groups feeling that group members are similar) and group identification would be moderated by diversity beliefs such that their relationship would be positive for individuals holding pro-diversity beliefs compared with individuals who did not hold pro-diversity beliefs. Using business school

students, participants were allocated into small project work teams in which they worked together over a semester. Participants were asked to complete a questionnaire in week 1 and 3 of their project, and were assessed on how much diversity they felt that their work group had, how much they identified with their group, and how much they valued diversity (pro-diversity beliefs). The results indicated that subjective diversity was positively related to group identification for students with high pro-diversity beliefs, and subjective diversity was negatively related to group identification for students with low pro-diversity beliefs. Specifically, it can be assumed that, when members of diverse groups possess high diversity beliefs, they will perceive their group members as being less diverse because they will feel that they share similar beliefs with their group members.

Although the studies reported in this section did not directly assess the moderating effect of subordinate-supervisor value congruence on the relationship between demographic similarity and organizational justice perceptions, they did indicate that value similarity should be explored as a moderating variable. Value similarity is a useful moderating variable because it facilitates social integration and empathy amongst people (Lee et al. 2006). When value similarities exist between the exchange partners, regardless of other factors, it results in partners communicating more closely and frequently, and they tend to have a better understanding of each other's goals and objectives (Lee et al. 2006). Therefore, it can be argued, when subordinates who share more similar values with their supervisors than subordinates who do not, subordinates sharing more similar values may more likely ignore the demographic differences that exist with their supervisor, which may lead those subordinate to have higher levels of perceived organizational justice, than those subordinates who do not share similar values with their supervisor. Based on these considerations, the following hypotheses were derived (see Figure 3):

Hypothesis 8: Subordinate perceived value similarity with their supervisor moderates the association between subordinate-supervisor age similarity and subordinate perceptions of organizational justice (Procedural, Distributive, and Interactional).

Hypothesis 8a: Specifically, at lower levels of perceived value similarity there is no association between subordinate-supervisor age similarity and perceived organizational justice (Procedural, Distributive, and Interactional).

Hypothesis 8b: Specifically, at higher levels of perceived value similarity there is a positive association between subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity and perceived organizational justice (Procedural, Distributive, and Interactional).

Hypothesis 9: Subordinate perceived value similarity with their supervisor moderates the association between subordinate-supervisor ethnic similarity and subordinate perceptions of organizational justice (Procedural, Distributive, and Interactional).

Hypothesis 9a: Specifically, at lower levels of perceived value similarity there is no association between subordinate-supervisor ethnic similarity and perceived organizational justice (Procedural, Distributive, and Interactional).

Hypothesis 9b: Specifically, at higher levels of perceived value similarity there is a negative association between subordinate-supervisor ethnic similarity and perceived organizational justice (Procedural, Distributive, and Interactional).

Hypothesis 10: Subordinate perceived value similarity with their supervisor moderates the association between subordinate-supervisor gender similarity and subordinate perceptions of organizational justice (Procedural, Distributive, and Interactional).

Hypothesis 10a: Specifically, at lower levels of perceived value similarity there is no association between subordinate-supervisor gender similarity and perceived organizational justice (Procedural, Distributive, and Interactional).

Hypothesis 10b: Specifically, at higher levels of perceived value similarity there is a negative association between subordinate-supervisor gender similarity and perceived organizational justice (Procedural, Distributive, and Interactional).

CHAPTER 5

METHOD

Participants

Barrett (2007) indicated that there are no routine ways of determining the statistical power for structural equation model (SEM) analyses. He recommended that sample sizes be at least 200 to adequately capture the population from which a sample is drawn. Undergraduates ($n = 464$) attending an urban university received extra credit in courses for voluntarily completing a self-report survey. They were naïve with respect to the purpose of the investigation, but were debriefed after completing the survey.

Of the 464 participants, 294 (63.36%) were Caucasian, 118 (25.43%) were African-American, 26 (5.56%) were Asian, 12 (2.59%) were Arabic, 10 (2.16%) were Hispanic, and 4 (.86%) were Native American. Of the Caucasian participants, 258 (87.76%) had ethnically similar supervisors and 36 (12.24%) had ethnically different (Table 1). Of the African-American participants, 46 (38.98%) reported having ethnically similar supervisors, while 72 (61.02%) had supervisors who were ethnically dissimilar (Table 1). Of the Asian participants, 5 (19.23%) reported having ethnically similar supervisors, while 21 (80.77%) had ethnically dissimilar supervisors (Table 1). Of the Native American participants, none reported having ethnically similar supervisors, while 4 (100%) reported having ethnically dissimilar supervisors (Table 1). Of the Arabic participants, 7 (58.33%) reported having ethnically similar supervisors, while 5 (41.67%) had ethnically different supervisors (Table 1).

Regarding gender, 332 (71.55%) were women and 132 (28.45%) were men. Of the male participants, 89 (67.42%) reported having male supervisors, while 43 (32.58%) reported having

female supervisors (Table 2). Of the female participants, 194 (58.43%) reported having female supervisors, while 138 (41.57%) reported having male supervisors (Table 2).

Regarding age, the mean was 24.45 years (SD = 4.11), with 363 (78.23%) in the 20-29 age range, 52 (11.21%) in the 30-39 age range, 47 (10.13%) in the 18-19 age range, and 2 (.43%) over the age of 40. Of the participants, 49 (10.56%) reported working for similar age supervisors, while 415 (89.44%) reported working for supervisors who were dissimilar in age.

Measures

Demographic Questionnaire. A 3-item questionnaire was used to obtain each participant's age, ethnicity, and gender (see Appendix A).

Perceived Distributive Justice. The level of distributive justice that each participant perceived from their supervisor was assessed using the Netemeyer et al. (1997) 4-item Distributive Justice scale, with responses ranging from 1 (Very Little) to 5 (Very Much) (see Appendix B). Coefficient alpha for this scale was .90.

Perceived Procedural Justice. The level of procedural justice that each participant perceived from their supervisor was assessed using the Maxham and Netemeyer (2003) 4-item Procedural Justice scale, with responses ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) (see Appendix C). Coefficient alpha for this scale was .83.

Perceived Interactional Justice. The level of interactional justice that each participant perceived from their supervisor was assessed using the Maxham and Netemeyer (2003) 4-item Interactional Justice scale, with responses ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) (see Appendix D). Coefficient alpha for this scale was .94.

Shared Values. Each participant's perceived level of shared values with their supervisor was measured using the Maxham and Netemeyer (2003) 3-item Shared Values scale, with

responses ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) (see Appendix E). Coefficient alpha for this scale was .94.

Supervisor Demographic Similarity. A 4-item questionnaire was used to assess the demographic similarity of participants and their supervisors. The first item asked participants to indicate the age of their current or most recent supervisor. The second item assessed participant-supervisor age similarity. The third and fourth items asked participants to indicate the ethnicity and gender, respectively, of their current or most recent supervisor (see Appendix F).

Procedure

Data were collected online. First, participants read an information sheet (see Appendix G). They then agreed to participate in the study by reading the instructions. Next, participants completed the demographic questionnaire. Then, participants completed the organizational justice questionnaire. Next, participants completed the shared values measure. Participants then completed the supervisor demographic similarity questionnaire. Finally, participants read the debriefing statement (see Appendix H).

CHAPTER 6

DATA ANALYSIS

Descriptive Statistics

The means and standard deviations of each variable are displayed in Table 3.

Preliminary Analyses

Participant ethnic similarity and gender similarity with their supervisors were operationalized using dummy coding, with 0 indicating “same” and 1 indicating “different.” Age similarity was operationalized by subtracting the participant’s age from the supervisor’s age. Then the absolute values of the differences between the participant’s age and supervisor’s age were derived.

To further validate the self-report measures, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to assess the dimensionality of the measures used in this study. The hypothesized 7-factor measurement models were tested by entering the covariance matrix of the items into LISREL 8.80 (Joreskog&Sorbom, 2006). The fit indices used in each confirmatory factor analysis included the chi-square goodness of fit statistic (χ^2), the non-normed fit index (NNFI), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and the comparative fit index (CFI). Raykov and Marcoulides (2000) indicated that a model has good fit when the chi-square goodness-of-fit statistic is statistically significant, the NNFI is above .90, the RMSEA is below .08, and the CFI is above .90.

The first confirmatory factor analysis was a 7-factor model, in which the indicators were allowed to load only on their respective measure. Overall, the model did have adequate fit, $\chi^2(134) = 113.83, p > .05$, NNFI = .99, RMSEA = .00, CFI = 1.00, and all of the items significantly loaded on their respective measure. Ordinarily, Raykov and Marcoulides (2000) would suggest

that a 1-factor model be conducted next but, because there are single-item indicators, a 1-factor model could not be analyzed.

Model Evaluation

To determine whether the hypothesized models fit the data, various fit indices were calculated using LISREL 8.80 (Joreskog&Sorbom, 2006). Maximum likelihood was used to estimate and test the models based the covariance matrix. The fit indices used included the chi-square goodness-of-fit statistic (χ^2), the non-normed fit index (NNFI), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and the comparative fit index (CFI). Raykov and Marcoulides (2000) indicated that a model has good fit when the chi-square goodness-of-fit statistic is statistically significant, the NNFI is above .90, the RMSEA is below .08, and the CFI is above .90. However, a model with good fit does not necessarily need to have significant pathways between variables. Therefore, even when a model displays good fit, pathways between variables should be tested for statistical significance do not have to be significant with a model that has good fit.

Hypotheses 1-4

The results of the structural equation model for hypotheses 1 thru 4 (See Figure 4) did demonstrate adequate fit, $\chi^2 (143) = 137.26, p > .05$, NNFI = .99, RMSEA = .00, CFI = .99. Hypothesis 1 proposed that subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity is negatively related to subordinate perceptions of organizational justice (procedural, distributive, and interactional). Hypothesis 1 was not supported because there was no relationship between subordinate age dissimilarity with their supervisor and distributive justice (standardized estimate = .00, $p > .05$), procedural justice (standardized estimate = .00, $p > .05$), and interactional justice (standardized estimate = .00, $p > .05$). Hypothesis 2 proposed that subordinate-supervisor racial dissimilarity is

negatively related to subordinate perceptions of organizational justice (procedural, distributive, and interactional). Hypothesis 2 was not supported because there was no relationship between subordinate racial dissimilarity with their supervisor and distributive justice (standardized estimate = .03, $p > .05$), procedural justice (standardized estimate = -.04, $p > .05$), and interactional justice (standardized estimate = .04, $p > .05$). Hypothesis 3 proposed that subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity is negatively related to subordinate perceptions of organizational justice (procedural, distributive, and interactional). Hypothesis 3 was not supported because there was no relationship between subordinate gender dissimilarity with their supervisor and distributive justice (standardized estimate = -.02, $p > .05$), procedural justice (standardized estimate = -.02, $p > .05$), and interactional justice (standardized estimate = .00, $p > .05$). Although the data did not support hypotheses 1 - 3, hypothesis 4 was supported. There was a significant positive relationship between subordinate-supervisor value similarity and subordinate perceptions of distributive justice (standardized estimate = .70, $p < .05$), procedural justice (standardized estimate = .75, $p < .05$), and interactional justice (standardized estimate = .86, $p < .05$).

Overall the results indicate that subordinate perceptions of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice were not influenced by their age, racial, or gender dissimilarity with their supervisor. However, subordinate perceptions of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice were positively related to their perceptions of shared values with their supervisors.

Hypotheses 5-7

Hypotheses 5, 6, and 7 proposed that subordinate-supervisor value similarity mediates the negative association between subordinate-supervisor age, race, and gender dissimilarity respectively, with subordinate perceptions of organizational justice (procedural, distributive, and

interactional). The method suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986) was used to test this hypothesis. When testing for mediation, a model was developed to test the direct and indirect effects of subordinate-supervisor demographic dissimilarity on subordinate perceptions of organizational justice (See Figure 5).

First, the fit indices of the overall theoretical model were assessed and indicated that the model did have adequate fit, $\chi^2(140) = 133.78, p > .05$, NNFI = .99, RMSEA = .00, CFI = .99. Next, the direct and indirect effects between subordinate-supervisor demographic and value dissimilarity with subordinate perceptions of organizational justice were assessed. The direct standardized relationships between subordinate-supervisor demographic dissimilarity and perceptions of distributive justice were not significant (age dissimilarity = .01, $p > .05$; racial dissimilarity = .04, $p > .05$; and gender dissimilarity = .00, $p > .05$). The direct standardized relationships between subordinate-supervisor demographic dissimilarity and perceptions of procedural justice were not significant (age dissimilarity = .01, $p > .05$; racial dissimilarity = -.03, $p > .05$; and gender dissimilarity = .00, $p > .05$). The direct relationships between subordinate-supervisor demographic dissimilarity and perceptions of Interactional Justice were not significant (age dissimilarity = .01, $p > .05$; racial dissimilarity = .05, $p > .05$; and gender dissimilarity = .03, $p > .05$).

The direct relationships between subordinate-supervisor demographic dissimilarity and subordinate supervisor value dissimilarity were not significant (age dissimilarity = .04, $p > .05$; racial dissimilarity = .06, $p > .05$; and gender dissimilarity = .14, $p > .05$). However, there was a significant direct standardized relationship between subordinate-supervisor value similarity with their supervisor and subordinate perceptions of organizational justice (distributive justice = .70, $p < .05$; procedural justice = .75, $p < .05$; and interactional justice = .87, $p < .05$).

Next, in order for the hypotheses 5 - 7 to be supported, the direct relationship between the subordinate-supervisor demographic dissimilarity variables and organizational justice variables has to decrease when the mediator, subordinate-supervisor value dissimilarity, was added to the model (See Figure 5). Value similarity did not mediate the relationship between subordinate-supervisor demographic dissimilarity and perceptions of distributive justice because the pathways were not significant (age dissimilarity = .00, $p > .05$; racial dissimilarity = .03, $p > .05$; and gender dissimilarity = -.02, $p > .05$). In addition, value similarity did not mediate the relationship between subordinate-supervisor demographic dissimilarity and perceptions of procedural justice because the pathways were not significant (age dissimilarity = .00, $p > .05$; racial dissimilarity = -.04, $p > .05$; and gender dissimilarity = -.02, $p > .05$). Finally, value similarity also did not mediate the relationship between subordinate-supervisor demographic dissimilarity and perceptions of interactional justice because the pathways were not significant (age dissimilarity = .00, $p > .05$; racial dissimilarity = .40, $p > .05$; and gender dissimilarity = .00, $p > .05$).

Hypotheses 8-10

Hypotheses 8 - 10 stated that subordinate-supervisor value similarity moderates the associations between subordinate-supervisor demographic dissimilarity (age, race, and gender) and subordinate perceptions of organizational justice (procedural, distributive, and interactional). Hypotheses 8-10 were tested using hierarchical multiple regression analyses, and a separate analysis was conducted for each demographic variable (age, race, and gender) and its relationship to each organizational justice variable (distributive, procedural, and interactional).

Hypothesis 8

When assessing whether subordinates perceived value similarity with their supervisor moderated the association between subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity and subordinate perceptions of distributive justice, subordinate age difference was calculated by subtracting subordinate age from their supervisor's age. First, subordinate perceptions of distributive justice was regressed on subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity, subordinate supervisor ethnic dissimilarity, subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity, value similarity, and the 2-way products of the interactions that were not being tested (subordinate-supervisor racial dissimilarity X subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity; subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity X subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity; subordinate-supervisor racial dissimilarity X value similarity; subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity X value similarity; and subordinate-supervisor racial dissimilarity X subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity). The R^2 for this step was .304. Next, the 2-way product for the 2-way interaction that was being tested (subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity X value similarity) was added to the model. The incremental variance accounted for was minimal (R^2 increase = .000), and was not significant, $F(1, 453) = .12, p > .05$. Therefore, the 2-way interaction between participant subordinate-supervisor age and value similarity on distributive justice was not significant.

Next, subordinate perception of procedural justice was regressed on subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity, subordinate supervisor ethnic dissimilarity, subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity, value similarity, and the 2-way products of the interactions that were not being tested (subordinate-supervisor racialdissimilarity X subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity; subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity X subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity; subordinate-supervisor racial dissimilarity X value similarity; subordinate-

supervisor gender dissimilarity X value similarity; and subordinate-supervisor racial dissimilarity X subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity). The R^2 for this step was .362. Next, the 2-way product for the two-way interaction that was being tested (subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity X value similarity) was added to the model. The incremental variance accounted for was minimal (R^2 increase = .000), and was not significant, $F(1, 453) = .32, p > .05$. Therefore, the 2-way interaction between participant subordinate-supervisor age and value similarity on procedural justice was not significant.

Finally, subordinate perceptions of interactional justice was regressed on subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity, subordinate supervisor ethnic dissimilarity, subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity, value similarity, and the 2-way products of the interactions that were not being tested (subordinate-supervisor racial dissimilarity X subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity; subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity X subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity; subordinate-supervisor racial dissimilarity X value similarity; subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity X value similarity; and subordinate-supervisor racial dissimilarity X subordinate-supervisor gender similarity). The R^2 for this step was .613. Next, the 2-way product for the two-way interaction that was being tested (subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity X value similarity) was added to the model. The incremental variance accounted for was minimal (R^2 increase = .000), and was not significant, $F(1, 453) = .01, p > .05$. Therefore, the 2-way interaction between participant subordinate-supervisor age and value similarity on interactional justice was not significant. Further, since none of the three, 2-way interactions were significant between subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity and subordinate-supervisor value similarity across the three levels of organizational justice (distributive, procedural, and interactional), hypothesis 8 was not supported.

Hypothesis 9

First, subordinate perception of distributive justice was regressed on subordinate-supervisor racial dissimilarity, subordinate supervisor age dissimilarity, subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity, value similarity, and the 2-way products of the interactions that were not being tested (subordinate-supervisor racial dissimilarity X subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity; subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity X subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity; subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity X value similarity; subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity X value similarity; and subordinate-supervisor racial dissimilarity X subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity). The R^2 for this step was .302. Next, the 2-way product for the two-way interaction that was being tested (subordinate-supervisor racial dissimilarity X value similarity) was added to the model. The incremental variance accounted for was minimal (R^2 increase = .002), and was not significant, $F(1, 453) = 1.03, p > .05$. Therefore, the 2-way interaction between participant subordinate-supervisor racial and value similarity on distributive justice was not significant.

Next, subordinate perception of procedural justice was regressed on subordinate-supervisor racial dissimilarity, subordinate supervisor age dissimilarity, subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity, value similarity, and the 2-way products of the interactions that were not being tested (subordinate-supervisor racial dissimilarity X subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity; subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity X subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity; subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity X value similarity; subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity X value similarity; and subordinate-supervisor racial dissimilarity X subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity). The R^2 for this step was .363. Next, the 2-way product for the two-way interaction that was being tested (subordinate-supervisor racial

dissimilarity X value similarity) was added to the model. The incremental variance accounted for was minimal (R^2 increase = .000), and was not significant, $F(1, 453) = .07, p > .05$. Therefore, the 2-way interaction between participant subordinate-supervisor racial and value similarity on procedural justice was not significant.

Last, subordinate perception of interactional justice was regressed on subordinate-supervisor racial dissimilarity, subordinate supervisor age dissimilarity, subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity, value similarity, and the 2-way products of the interactions that were not being tested (subordinate-supervisor racial dissimilarity X subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity; subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity X subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity; subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity X value similarity; subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity X value similarity; and subordinate-supervisor racial dissimilarity X subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity). The R^2 for this step was .613. Next, the 2-way product for the two-way interaction that was being tested (subordinate-supervisor racial dissimilarity X value similarity) was added to the model. The incremental variance accounted for was minimal (R^2 increase = .000), and was not significant, $F(1, 453) = .02, p > .05$. Therefore, the 2-way interaction between participant subordinate-supervisor racial and value similarity, on interactional justice was not significant. Further, since neither of the three, 2-way interactions were significant between subordinate-supervisor racial dissimilarity and subordinate-supervisor value similarity across the three levels of organizational justice (distributive, procedural, interactional), hypothesis 9 was not supported.

Hypothesis 10

First, subordinate perception of distributive justice was regressed on subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity, subordinate supervisor age dissimilarity, subordinate-supervisor

racial dissimilarity, value similarity, and the 2-way products of the interactions that were not being tested (subordinate-supervisor racial dissimilarity X subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity; subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity X subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity; subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity X value similarity; subordinate-supervisor racial dissimilarity X value similarity; and subordinate-supervisor racial dissimilarity X subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity). The R^2 for this step was .301. Next, the 2-way product for the two-way interaction that was being tested (subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity X value similarity) was added to the model. The incremental variance accounted for was minimal (R^2 increase = .002), and was not significant, $F(1, 453) = 1.55, p > .05$. Therefore, the 2-way interaction between participant subordinate-supervisor racial and value similarity on distributive justice was not significant.

Next, subordinate perception of procedural justice was regressed on subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity, subordinate supervisor age dissimilarity, subordinate-supervisor racial dissimilarity, value similarity, and the 2-way products of the interactions that were not being tested (subordinate-supervisor racial dissimilarity X subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity; subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity X subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity; subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity X value similarity; subordinate-supervisor racial dissimilarity X value similarity; and subordinate-supervisor racial dissimilarity X subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity). The R^2 for this step was .362. Next, the 2-way product for the two-way interaction that was being tested (subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity X value similarity) was added to the model. The incremental variance accounted for was minimal (R^2 increase = .001), and was not significant, $F(1, 453) = .76, p > .05$. Therefore,

the 2-way interaction between participant subordinate-supervisor racial and value similarity on distributive justice was not significant.

Last, subordinate perception of interactional justice was regressed on subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity, subordinate supervisor age dissimilarity, subordinate-supervisor racial dissimilarity, value similarity, and the 2-way products of the interactions that were not being tested (subordinate-supervisor racial dissimilarity X subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity; subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity X subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity; subordinate-supervisor age dissimilarity X value similarity; subordinate-supervisor racial dissimilarity X value similarity; and subordinate-supervisor racial dissimilarity X subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity). The R^2 for this step was .612. Next, the 2-way product for the two-way interaction that was being tested (subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity X value similarity) was added to the model. The incremental variance accounted for was minimal (R^2 increase = .001), and was not significant, $F(1, 453) = .97, p > .05$. Therefore, the 2-way interaction between participant subordinate-supervisor racial and value similarity on distributive justice was not significant. Further, since neither of the three, 2-way interactions were significant between subordinate-supervisor gender dissimilarity and subordinate-supervisor value similarity across the three levels of organizational justice (distributive, procedural, interactional), hypothesis 10 was not supported.

CHAPTER 7

DISCUSSION

The primary purpose of the current study was to investigate the nature of the relationship between subordinate-supervisor demographic similarity, subordinate perceived value similarity with their supervisor, and subordinate perceptions of organizational justice. Three different structural equation models were examined. The first model predicted subordinate-supervisor demographic similarity and subordinate perceived value similarity with their supervisor are directly related to subordinate perceptions of organizational justice (Direct Model). The second model predicted that subordinate perceived value similarity with their supervisor mediates the relationship between subordinate-supervisor demographic similarity and subordinate perceptions of organizational justice (Mediator Model). The third model predicted that subordinate perceived value similarity with their supervisor moderates the relationship between subordinate-supervisor demographic similarity and subordinate perceptions of organizational justice (Moderator Model).

The results of this study did not support either the mediator or moderator models. However, the direct model was partially supported in that, (a) subordinate-supervisor value similarity was positively related to subordinate perceptions of distributive, procedural, and interactional organizational justice, but (b) subordinate-supervisor age, ethnic, and gender similarity were not related to subordinate perceptions of distributive, procedural, or interactional organizational justice.

Direct Model

Although prior research indicated that subordinate-supervisor demographic similarity is related to perceptions of organizational justice (Gray-Little & Teddlie, 1978; Jeanquart-Barone, 1996; Nauman & Bennett, 2000; Scott, Colquitt, & Zapata-Phelan, 2007;

Wesolowski&Mossholder, 1997), the results of this study did not support those findings. However, assessing prior literature, it appears that, over time, the importance that was placed on subordinate-supervisor demographic differences is not as significant as it once was. For instance, when assessing subordinate-supervisor racial similarity and subordinate perceptions of organizational justice, Gray-Little and Teddlie (1978) found that race does influence subordinate perceptions of organizational justice, and similar findings were found by Jeanquart-Barone (1996). But, in a more recent study conducted by Ritter et al. (2005), they found subordinate-supervisor racial similarity did not predict subordinate perceptions of fairness in the workplace. Further, more recent studies indicated that subordinate-supervisor gender similarity did not predict subordinate perceptions of fairness in the workplace as well (Duffy & Ferrier, 2003; Scott, Colquitt, & Zapata-Phelan, 2007; Wesolowski&Mossholder, 1997). However, recent research suggests that subordinate-supervisor age similarity does predict subordinate perceptions of fairness in the workplace (Scott et al., 2007). It should be noted that in the 1970's when the Gray-Little and Teddlie (1978) study was conducted, there was more prejudice and discrimination among people who were demographically different, then when the more recent studies were conducted (Twenge, 1997). Therefore, it can be assumed that people were likely to place more of an emphasis on demographic differences in the 1970's, than more recently.

In addition, since the current study did not find a direct relationship between subordinate-supervisor demographic similarity and subordinate perceptions of organizational justice, it may be attributed to the notion that with the growing diversity of the American population in the workforce (Lichtenthal&Tellesfen, 2001), people are likely to become less sensitive to demographic differences. Research has shown that employees who work in groups that are demographically diverse are more likely to work well together (Hamilton, Nickerson, &Owan,

2003), and have innovative ideas (Van derVegt&Janssen, 2003) than those working in non-diverse groups.

Although prior research has examined shared values as a predictor (Erdogan et al., 2004; Lee, 2001), this research has never explored the direct relationship that shared values have on the factors of organizational justice. Erdogan et al. (2004) found that subordinates-supervisors who share similar values have positive leader member exchanges with their supervisors, and Lee (2001) found that subordinates who have high leader-member exchanges with their supervisors tend to possess higher levels of perceived organizational justice, than those with low leader-member exchanges. Therefore, since there was a positive relationship between subordinate-supervisor shared values on all three factors of organizational justice perceptions, the current study contributes to the shared values literature by arguing that subordinates who share similar values with their supervisor, leads to subordinates feeling as if they are being fairly treated by their supervisors.

Due to the fact that the importance placed on subordinate-supervisor demographic dissimilarity appears to have become less of a factor in predicting subordinate fairness, subordinates may be placing more importance on their value similarity with their supervisor. Research suggests that values comprise the traits that are most important to humans (Pozner et al., 1992), and shared values between people tend to result in better communication and eliminate uncertainty (Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989). In all likelihood subordinates and their supervisors have better relationships because they communicate more frequently and empathically, and both parties feel as if they will have the support of the other in times of uncertainty. This could result in subordinates feeling as if their supervisors have their best interest at heart, and will treat them fairly.

Mediated Model

Value similarity has been viewed as a useful mediating variable because it reduces initial negative forces by influencing perceptions of the degree of an initial threat (Silvia, 2005). It was expected that value similarity would mediate the relationship between subordinate-supervisor demographic similarity and subordinate perceptions of organizational justice in the current study. Although previous research found that value similarity does serve as a useful mediator between variables (Pilkington & Lydon, 1997; Silvia, 2005; Sturch & Schwartz, 1989), and other variables have mediated the relationship between subordinate-supervisor demographic similarity and other outcome variables (Goldberg, 2005), for this study, it appears that value similarity is not an effective mediator between subordinate-supervisor demographic similarity and subordinate perceptions of organizational justice.

Moderated Model

Although shared values were hypothesized to be a significant moderator, shared values did not moderate the relationship between subordinate-supervisor demographic differences and subordinate perceptions of organizational justice. Among other variables outside of demographic similarities, prior research has indicated that shared values do not moderate the relationship between other variables that were studied (Fisher, 1998; Lee, Lee, & Suh, 2006). For instance, when assessing other variables, Fisher (1998) found that value similarity did not moderate the relationship between team attractiveness and identification with the team. However, this study was conducted because prior research has also indicated that value similarity does influence the relationship between variables (Lee et al., 2006). Although the results of this study did not support shared values as being a moderator; between subordinate-supervisor demographic dissimilarity and subordinate perceptions of organizational justice, the results of

this study may provide evidence that employees are no longer placing importance on demographic differences.

Limitations and Future Research

One potential limitation of this study is that the sample was drawn from a diverse population. In this instance, participants who are drawn from a diverse population may already be sensitized to interacting with people of different ethnicities. Therefore, future research could examine participants who are from a less diverse population to determine whether the diversity of the population would have an influence on subordinate perceptions of organizational justice.

Another limitation of this study is that it may have included participants who were not currently employed, but all participants had prior experience working as a subordinate to a supervisor. Since participants were asked about their previous or most recent supervisor, it may be assumed that for those who were not currently employed at the time the data were collected, participants may not have made accurate assumptions about their shared values or perceptions of organizational justice because they were not presently working with their supervisor at the time of the study. Therefore, a future study should be conducted in an organization where all employees are referring to their current supervisor.

Another limitation is that the current study did not address the length of time for which employees worked for their supervisor. Research suggests that the length of time group members work together weakens the effects of surface-level diversity (demographic differences), and strengthens the effects of deep-level diversity (value similarity) as group members have the opportunity to engage in meaningful interactions (Harrison, Price, & Bell, 1998). Prior research suggests that relationships tend to change over time (Harrison et al., 1998; Ortiz-Walters & Gilson, 2005), and there is a chance that relationships that are originally negative, are likely to

change to positive over time (Turban, Dougherty, & Lee, 2002). Therefore, for those participants who have longer tenures working for their supervisor, there could have been a point in time where demographic dissimilarity was important, but is less relevant now. Further, if there was a significantly larger number of participants with longer tenures working with their supervisors than, shorter tenures, it could have influenced the results of this study to show that intrinsic factors (shared values) ruled out surface level factors (demographic dissimilarity). Therefore, future research has assess whether there are subordinate-supervisor demographic differences influence subordinate perceptions of organizational just across subordinates who have both shorter and longer term relationships with their supervisors.

Conclusion

Latelyscholars have tended to argue that, in the workplace, less emphasis is being placed on demographic differences; and more emphasis is being placed on internal characteristics when assessing relationships among employees (Harrison et al. 1998). The present study provides empirical support of that notion because the results of this study indicate that employee biases are more likely to be influenced by internal factors (shared values), rather than external characteristics (demographic differences). Further, since subordinate perceptions of organizational justice were not influenced by the demographic dissimilarity that exists with his/her supervisor, this research exhibited that demographically different people are capable of working well together if they share similar values. In sum, the results of this study provide evidence that, moving forward organizations should place less emphasis on subordinate-supervisor demographic differences, and more of an emphasis on ensuring that subordinates are paired with supervisors who share similar values.

Table 1
 Statistics of Subordinate-Supervisor Racial Similarity

Participant Ethnicity	Subordinate-Supervisor Ethnic Dissimilarity	
	Similar	Dissimilar
Caucasian	258	36
African-American	46	72
Hispanic	2	8
Asian	5	21
Native American	0	4
Arabic	7	5

Table 2
 Statistics of Subordinate-Supervisor Gender Similarity

Participant Gender	Subordinate-Supervisor Gender Dissimilarity	
	Similar	Dissimilar
Male	89	43
Female	194	138

Table 3
Descriptive Statistics and Correlations Among Measures

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Ethnic Dissimilarity	1.31	.47	1.00						
2. Gender Dissimilarity	1.39	.49	0	1.00					
3. Age Dissimilarity	1.89	.31	-.04	-0.03	1.00				
4. Perceived Value Similarity	3.26	1.09	.06	.13**	.02	1.00			
5. Perceived Distributive Justice	2.91	1.01	0	-.09	0	.54**	1.00		
6. Perceived Procedural Justice	3.09	.90	-.08	-.09	-.01	.60**	.49**	1.00	
7. Perceived Interactional Justice	3.58	1.01	.02	-.08	-.01	.78**	.62**	.60**	1.00

Note. $n = 464$.

** $p < .01$.

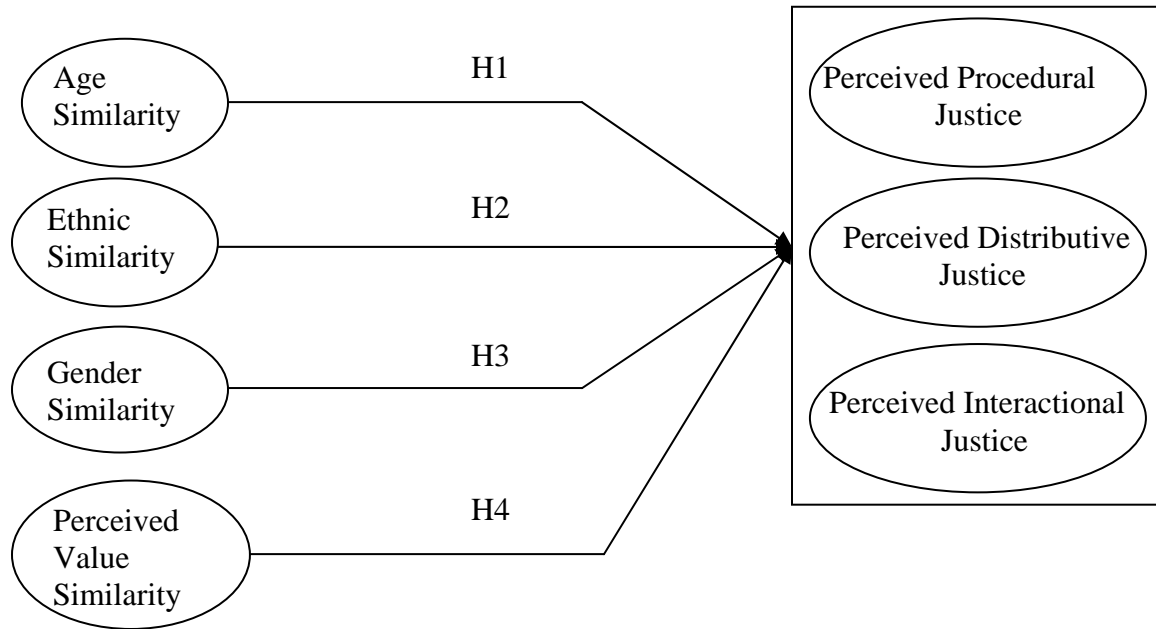


Figure 1. Relationship between structural determinants and organizational justice components.

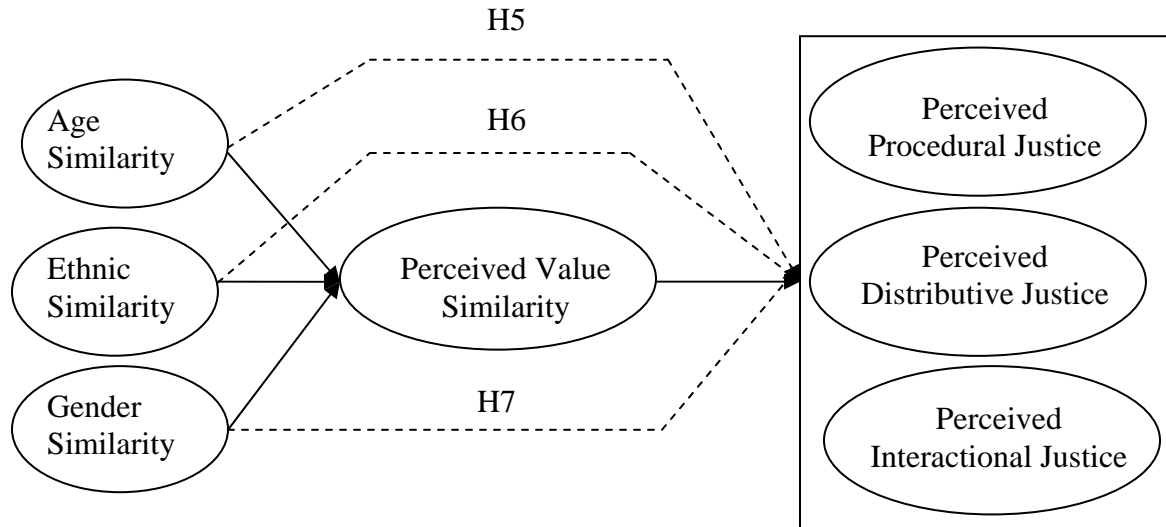


Figure 2. The proposed mediation model. *Note.* Dashed lines are possible direct effects that are expected to decrease during tests for mediation.

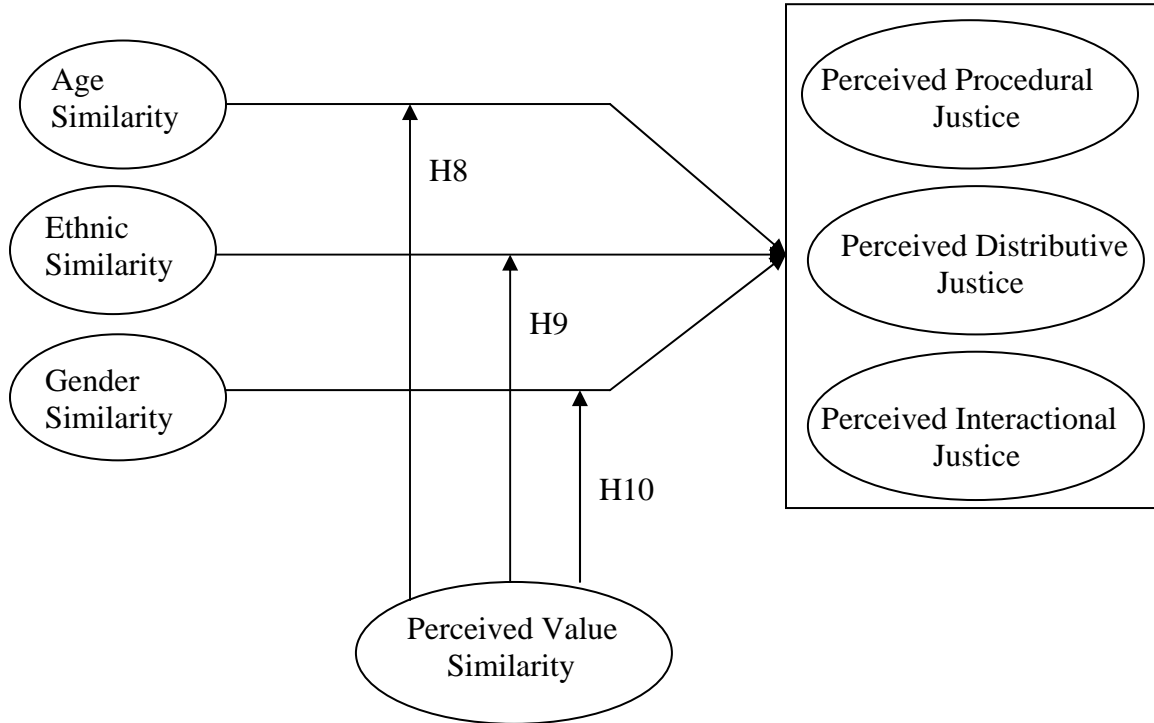


Figure 3. The proposed moderation model.

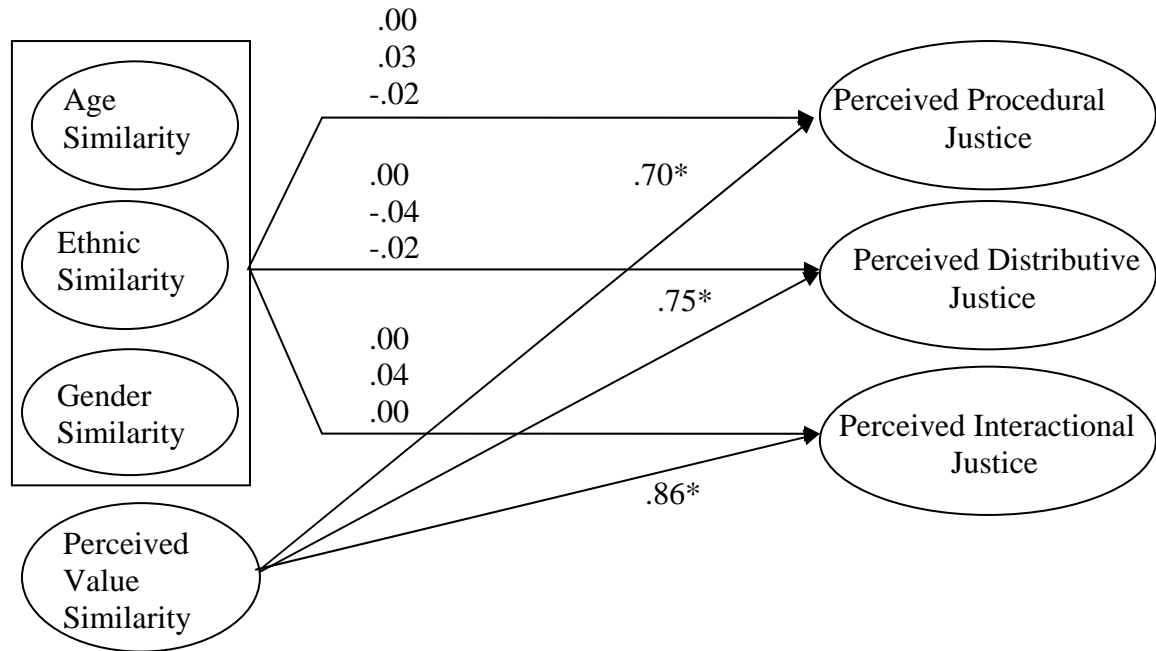


Figure 4. Hypotheses 1 - 4. For the three demographic dissimilarity variables, the upper number is for “Age Similarity,” the middle number is for “Ethnic Similarity,” and the lower number is for “Gender Similarity.”

* $p < .05$.

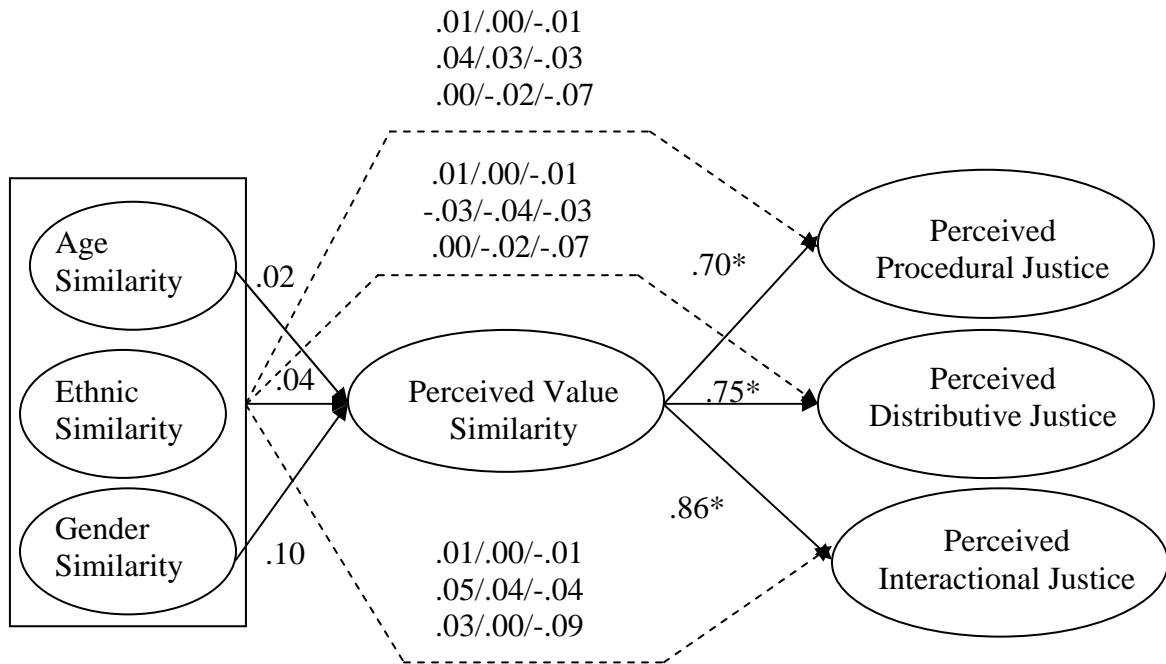


Figure 5. Hypotheses 5 - 7. For each of the three dashed lines, the first column is the direct estimate between the three demographic similarity variables to the organizational justice variables, the second column is the mediated estimate, and the third is the indirect estimate. For the demographic similarity variables, the upper number is for “Age Dissimilarity,” the middle number is for “Racial Dissimilarity,” and the lower number is for “Gender Dissimilarity.”
 * p < .05.

APPENDIX A**DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE**

1. Age: _____ (Years)
2. Ethnicity (Select One)
 - a. White, Caucasian, European, not Hispanic
 - b. Black, African-American, not Hispanic
 - c. Hispanic or Latino
 - d. Asian, Asian-American, or Oriental
 - e. Native American or American Indian
 - f. Other (write in): _____
3. Gender (Select One)
 - a. Male
 - b. Female

APPENDIX B

PERCEIVED DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE SCALE

I am interested in understanding employees' relationships with their supervisor. In this survey, there are a number of questions that ask about your supervisor based on your experiences working with that person. For the purposes of this survey, please think of your **current or most recent supervisor** and answer these questions in reference to them specifically.

Use the numbers given below to indicate your response. In the space provided, please indicate your response next to each item.

1: Very Little 2: Little 3: Neutral 4: Much 5: Very Much

1. To what extent did your supervisor fairly reward you for the amount of experience you have?

2. To what extent did your supervisor fairly reward you for the stresses and strains of your job?

3. To what extent did your supervisor fairly reward you for the amount of effort you put forth?

4. To what extent did your supervisor fairly reward you for the work you have performed well?

APPENDIX C**PERCEIVED PROCEDURAL JUSTICE SCALE**

Use the numbers given below to indicate how much you agree or disagree with each item.

In the space provided, please indicate your response next to each item.

1: Strongly Disagree 2: Disagree 3: Neutral 4: Agree 5: Strongly Agree

1. When decisions about employees are made at my job, complete information is collected for making those decisions. _____
2. When decisions about employees are made at my job, all sides affected by the decisions are represented. _____
3. When decisions about employees are made at my job, the decisions are made in a timely fashion. _____
4. When decisions about employees are made at my job, useful feedback about the decisions and their implementation is provided. _____

APPENDIX D**PERCEIVED INTERACTIONAL JUSTICE SCALE**

Use the numbers given below to indicate how much you agree or disagree with each item.

In the space provided, please indicate your response next to each item.

1: Strongly Disagree 2: Disagree 3: Neutral 4: Agree 5: Strongly Agree

1. When decisions are made about me at my job, my supervisor deals with me in a truthful and ethical manner. _____
2. When decisions are made about me at my job, my supervisor treats me with respect and dignity. _____
3. When decisions are made about me at my job, my supervisor works very hard to be fair. _____
4. When decisions are made about me at my job, my supervisor shows concern for my rights as an employee. _____
5. When decisions are made about me at my job, my supervisor is courteous. _____

APPENDIX E**SHARED VALUES SCALE**

Use the numbers given below to indicate how much you agree or disagree with each item.

In the space provided, please indicate your response next to each item.

1: Strongly Disagree 2: Disagree 3: Neutral 4: Agree 5: Strongly Agree

1. My supervisor has the same values as I do with regard to concern for others. _____
2. In general, my values and the values held by my supervisor are very similar. _____
3. I believe in the same values held and promoted by my supervisor. _____

APPENDIX F**SUPERVISOR DEMOGRAPHICS QUESTIONNAIRE**

Below are questions regarding your current or most recent immediate supervisor:

1. Indicate the age of your current or most immediate supervisor (If you do not know, make a guess): _____ (Years)

2. In comparison to your age, is your current or most recent immediate supervisor (Select One):
 - a. Younger
 - b. Similar Age
 - c. Older

3. What is the ethnicity of your current or most recent immediate supervisor (Select One):
 - a. White, Caucasian, European, not Hispanic
 - b. Black, African-American, not Hispanic
 - c. Hispanic
 - d. Asian, Asian-American, or Oriental
 - e. Native American or American Indian
 - f. Other (write in): _____
 - g. Don't know

4. What is the gender of your current or most recent immediate supervisor (Select One)
 - a. Male
 - b. Female

APPENDIX G
INFORMATION SHEET

Research Information Sheet

Title of Study: Subordinate-Supervisor Demographic and Perceived Value Similarity:
Relationships to Subordinate Perceptions of Organizational Justice

Principal Investigator (PI): Charles Levi Wells, IV
Department of Psychology
214-207-6282

Purpose

You are being asked to be in a research study to assess your opinions of your current or most recent supervisor, and also the organization in which you work or have worked. This study is being conducted at Wayne State University.

Study Procedures

If you take part in the study, you will be asked to complete five survey questionnaires. Your participation in this study will last no longer than 30 minutes, and you will be completing surveys for the majority of this time. The surveys assess your relationship with your supervisor, and how you feel about your organization. Your name will not be used for research records, and you will be given a code that will be used as your identification.

Benefits

The possible benefits to you for taking part in this research study are allowing you to reflect on your relationship with your supervisor. You can use this information to determine the factors that led you to have a positive or negative working relationship.

Risks

There are no known risks at this time to participation in this study.

Costs

Participation in this study will be of no cost to you.

Compensation

For taking part in this research study, you will be paid for your time in the form of extra credit, if extra credit is allowed in a course in which you are currently enrolled.

Confidentiality

You will be identified in the research records by a code name or number. Information that identifies you personally will not be released without your written permission. When the results of this research are published or discussed in conferences, no information will be included that would reveal your identity.

Voluntary Participation /Withdrawal

Taking part in this study is voluntary. You are free to not answer any questions or withdraw at any time. Your decision will not change any present or future relationships with Wayne State University or its affiliates.

Questions

If you have any questions about this study now or in the future, you may contact Charles Wells at cwells@wayne.edu or Dr. SebastianoFisicaro at fisicaro@wayne.edu. If you have questions or concerns about your rights as a research participant, the Chair of the Human Investigation Committee can be contacted at (313) 577-1628. If you are unable to contact the research staff, or if you want to talk to someone other than the research staff, you may also call (313) 577-1628 to ask questions or voice concerns or complaints.

Participation

By completing the questionnaire you are agreeing to participate in this study.

APPENDIX H

DEBRIEFING STATEMENT

Thank you for your participation in this research assessing subordinate perceptions of their supervisors and the organization in which they work or have worked.

Purpose

The purpose of this research is to examine whether the demographic and value similarity between subordinates and their supervisors influences subordinate perceptions of fairness in the workplace. It is expected that subordinates who are demographically dissimilar to their supervisors based on age, race, and gender, while also having dissimilar values, are more likely to perceive that they are being treated unfairly while working. In addition, it is also proposed that subordinates who perceive that they have similar values with their supervisors will perceive that they are treated fairly while working, regardless of their demographic dissimilarity.

Confidentiality

Your name will not be used for research records. You will be given a code that will be used as your identification.

Voluntary Participation/ Withdrawal

Taking part in this study was voluntary. If you are hesitant about your responses being used for the purposes of this research study, you may withdraw your responses. Your decision whether or not to withdraw your data will not affect your current or future relations with Wayne State University.

Questions

If you have any questions in the future, you may contact Charles Wells at cwells@wayne.edu, or Dr. SebastianoFiscaro at fiscaro@wayne.edu. If you have any questions about your right as a research participant, contact the Chair of the Human Investigation Committee at 313-577-1628.

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ABSTRACT**SUBORDINATE-SUPERVISOR DEMOGRAPHIC AND PERCEIVED VALUE
SIMILARITY: RELATIONSHIPS TO SUBORDINATE PERCEPTIONS OF
ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE**

by

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The purpose of this study was to examine the empirical relationship between subordinate-supervisor demographic and value similarity with subordinate perceptions of organizational justice using three structural equation models. The first model indicated that subordinate-supervisor demographic and value similarity were directly related to subordinate perceptions of organizational justice (Direct Model). The second model indicated that subordinate perceived value similarity with their supervisor mediated the relationship between the subordinate-supervisor demographic similarity and subordinate perceptions of organizational justice (Mediated Model). The last model indicated subordinate perceived value similarity with their supervisor moderated the relationship between subordinate-supervisor demographic similarity and subordinate perceptions of organizational justice (Moderated Model). Neither the mediator nor the moderator models were supported by the data. However, the direct model received partial support when a relationship was found between subordinate-supervisor value similarity and subordinate perceptions of organizational justice across all three organizational justice

factors. The results suggest that subordinate perceptions of organizational justice are related to subordinate-supervisor shared values, but not to subordinate-supervisor demographic similarity.

AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL STATEMENT

Charles L. Wells, IV was born in Detroit, MI, but raised in Flint, MI. Charles is currently completing his Doctoral Degree in Industrial and Organizational Psychology at Wayne State University (Detroit, MI). In addition to being a future Doctor of Philosophy in Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Charles has received two Master of Arts degrees, one from Wayne State University and the other from the University of New Haven (West Haven, CT). Further, he received his Bachelor of Arts Degree in Psychology from one of America's most recognized institutions, Morehouse College (Atlanta, GA).

While being a doctoral student, Charles also served as the Director of Operations for the not-for-profit organization, "We R Love," which was founded by Louis Delmas of the Detroit Lions. In addition, Charles co-founded the event coordination company "Status Holdings Group," and has been recognized as one of Metro Detroit's most prominent event coordinators. This has led him to be hired by numerous celebrities to produce events, such as: LeBron James and Dwyane Wade of the Miami Heat, Braylon Edwards (New York Jets), Louis Delmas, Sammie Hill, and Aaron Brown of the Detroit Lions, and music superstars Drake, Trey Songz, Erykah Badu, Dwele, and RaheemDeVaughn just to name a few.

Based on Charles' success as an event planning coordinator, his well respected character, and wide spread network, he decided to venture into the sports marketing field, and founded "4ourth Marketing." Having amassed a wide array of professional athlete and corporate connections, Charles felt that he possessed the knowledge and experience to make an impact in the sports and entertainment marketing and management sector. He has developed corporate relationships with high-profile companies such as Reebok, Under Armour, Fathead, Rolls-Royce, Bentley, Lamborghini, Mercedes-Benz, Ciroc and Grey Goose Vodkas, and Health Alliance Plan, just to name a few. In addition, he has compiled a national database of media contacts and has been embraced by national media power, ESPN.

Upon deciding that Charles desired to do more than sports marketing, Charles became a Sports Agent and received his agent certification by the NFLPA (National Football League Players Association) in September of 2012. Charles then formed his own sports and entertainment agency, named the Wells Agency.

Upon completing his doctoral requirements at Wayne State University, Charles will focus on his career as a sports agent full time, and will explore the ways in which the fields of Industrial/Organizational Psychology and Sports Entertainment coincide.