Supervisor's fair treatment and decision making in an organizational context - A social identity analysis

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Abstract

During the last few decades, organizational justice research done within the framework of the relational models of procedural justice has shown that leaders can influence important outcomes with their justice. The present research contributes to this line of research by exploring how dynamics of leadership affect the justice processes. Specifically, the present research integrates the group value model, the relational model of authority, and the group engagement model with the social identity model of organizational leadership (SIMOL). In addition, in line with multifoci justice research, it develops the relational justice models to consider the dynamic interplay between justice coming from the supervisor and the organization.

The thesis consists of four essays. Each essay explores specific research questions. All essays rely on cross-sectional survey data from real-life organizations. In addition, essays III and IV are based on scenario experiments. The overarching theme in all the essays is the idea that an immediate supervisor's fairness in interpersonal treatment and decision-making (informal justice) more powerfully influences group members' identity-related inferences and behavior when he or she represents the in-group, i.e., is in-group prototypical. The findings reveal that supervisor's informal justice is related to (1) how proud group members are about their in-group, (2) how respected, (3) uncertain, or (4) threatened they feel themselves to be and, via feelings of respect, (5) how likely they are to voluntarily work for the benefit of the organization. Importantly, all of these effects are shown to be contingent on leader in-group prototypicality. Further, the research shows that the moderating effect of leader in-group prototypicality becomes particularly pronounced when the group members identify with the group that the leader represents. It also shows that in-group prototypical supervisor's justice interacts with organization-level procedural justice to affect group members' experiences of threat.

The findings of the thesis contribute to organizational justice research first, by showing that the justice processes are contingent upon the factors that delineate leadership in groups (i.e., leader in-group prototypicality). Second, they clarify and empirically demonstrate the assumptions of the group value model and the relational model of authority. And third, the results broaden these models by also applying them to explain behavioral outcomes and consider concomitant effects of supervisory and organizational justice. Fourth, the results confirm the assumptions of SIMOL. They show that leader in-group prototypicality plays a significant role in influencing followers' perceptions in the in-group context.

A? Aalto-yliopisto

Tekijä
Satu Koivisto

Väitöskirjan nimi
Esimiehen vuorovaikutuksen ja päätöksenteon oikeudenmukaisuus organisaatiokontekstissa
– Sosiaalisen identiteetin analyysi

Tiivistelmä

Ryhmäarvomalliin pohjautuva organisaatioissa tehtävä oikeudenmukaisuustutkimus on viime vuosikymmenten aikana osoittanut, että johtajien oikeudenmukaisuudella on merkittäviä seurauksia. Tämä väitöskirja syventää aiempaa tutkimusta selvittämällä, kuinka johtajuuteen liittyvät seikat vaikuttavat lähiesimiehen vuorovaikutuksen ja päätöksenteon oikeudenmukaisuuden prosesseihin. Tutkimuksessa ryhmäarvomallin, relationaalisen auktoriteetin mallin ja ryhmään liittymisen mallin perusoletukset yhdistetään sosiaalisen identiteetin johtamismallin (SIMOL) ajatusten kanssa. Lisäksi ryhmäarvomallia laajennetaan oikeudenmukaisuuden eri lähteitä koskevan tutkimuksen mukaisesti siten, että se huomioi sekä esimiehen että organisaation yhtäaikaisina oikeudenmukaisuuden lähteinä.

Väitöskirja koostuu neljästä esseestä, joissa kussakin tarkastellaan erillisiä tutkimuskysymyksiä. Esseet perustuvat eri organisaatioista kerättyihin kyselyaineistoihin. Lisäksi esseet III ja IV perustuvat kahteen kvasikokeelliseen skenarioaineistoon. Kaikille esseille yhteistä on ajatus, jonka mukaan erityisesti ryhmän tyypillisenä (prototyyppisenä) jäsenenä pidetty esimies voi oikeudenmukaisuudellaan vaikuttaa ryhmän jäseniin.

Tutkimus tuo ilmi, että lähiesimiehen osoittama oikeudenmukainen kohtelu ja päätöksenteko ovat yhteydessä siihen, (1) kuinka ylpeitä ryhmän jäsenet ovat ryhmästään, (2) kuinka arvostetuiksi, (3) epävarmoiksi tai (4) uhatuiksi he kokevat itsensä. Lisäksi tulokset osoittavat, (5) että lähiesimiehen oikeudenmukaisuus on yhteydessä ryhmän jäsenten vapaaehtoiseen oman organisaationsa hyväksi työskentelyyn arvostuksen tunteiden kautta. Kaikki nämä yhteydet tulevat esille kuitenkin vain kun esimies on prototyyppinen ryhmän jäsen. Tutkimus myös osoittaa, että ryhmään samastuminen voimistaa prototyyppisyyden merkitystä, ja että prototyyppisen esimiehen oikeudenmukaisuus moderoi organisaatiotason menettelytapojen oikeudenmukaisuuden vaikutuksia.

Tutkimuksen löydökset muistuttavat, että organisaatiokontekstissa oikeudenmukaisuus-prosesseja tulee tarkastella ryhmän johtajuuteen liittyvät asiat (esim. esimiehen prototyyppisyys) huomioiden. Tulokset myös selventävät relationaalisten oikeudenmukaisuuden mallien oletuksia sekä todistavat nämä empiirisesti. Tutkimus laajentaa ryhmäarvomallia huomioimaan esimiehen ja organisaation oikeudenmukaisuuden yhtäaikaiset vaikutukset sekä selittämään myös ryhmän jäsenten käyttäytymistä. Tulokset vahvistavat SIMOL:n oletuksia ja osoittavat, että esimiehen sisäryhmäprototyyppisyys on merkittävä ryhmän jäsenten havaintoihin vaikuttava tekijä.

Preface

Before exploring the actual topic of this work – the psychology and dynamics of supervisor's interactional and procedural fairness in the workplace – a few words are needed about the background of this dissertation. Namely, this dissertation is a culmination of work that I have been doing over a period of almost a decade (2004–2013). It consists of four essays that were written during this period. The work began in 2004 when I worked as a research assistant at the University of Helsinki. Back then, I finalized my master's thesis about supervisor's fairness in organizational context; and after that, I started to develop it into a journal article with my supervisor, Professor Jukka Lipponen. The result of this work was this dissertation's first essay, which was published in Leadership Quarterly in 2005 (Lipponen, Koivisto, & Olkkonen, 2005). In that same year, I changed jobs and started working as a researcher at the vmWork (Virtual and Mobile Work) research group at BIT Research Center, Aalto University. In my new job, I familiarized myself with the new developments of distributed and mobile work, and these topics engrossed me. So for a few years I mostly concentrated on topics other than organizational and supervisory fairness. However, these issues still intrigued me, and then in the beginning of 2010 I decided to return to exploring the dynamics of justice at the workplace. Essays II, III, and IV are a result of this work.

When reading the essays, it is important to keep in mind that the time span between the first and the other three essays is rather long. When the first essay was published back in 2005, research in the field of organizational justice could be characterized as "*interactional justice wave*", in which most of the attention was devoted to the interactional aspects of justice (Colquitt, Greenberg, & Zapata-Phelan, 2005). However, researchers were not unanimous about the conceptual status of interactional justice. Some researchers considered procedural and interactional aspects of justice as independent constructs, whereas others suggested that they were two related dimensions of the same construct (see, e.g., Bies, 2001; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). In Essay I, I took a stance on this debate and viewed supervisor's justice as including aspects of both interactional and

procedural justice. In line with the suggestion of Blader and Tyler (2003), this kind of justice was named *informal justice*.

The time around the publication of the first essay could also be characterized as interested in *group-oriented conceptualizations of justice* (Colquitt et al., 2005). For instance, a great deal of empirical research was devoted to providing evidence for the assumptions of the relational models of procedural justice, that is, the group value model (Lind & Tyler, 1988), the relational model of authority (Tyler & Lind, 1992), and the group engagement model (Tyler & Blader, 2000). Essay I also falls into this category. The basic and overarching idea behind the relational justice models is that fairness is important for employees – not because of instrumental self-interest but simply because it provides them information about their membership in the organization or workgroup and thus affects their identity and sense of self-worth. Furthermore, particularly the group value model and the relational model of authority suggest that it is a group representative authority whose justice best informs group members on these issues (Tyler & Lind, 1992). In the essay, I aim at providing empirical evidence that a supervisor's fair treatment and decision-making matters the most for group members' identity-related evaluations when the supervisor embodies the in-group. In doing so, Essay I integrates the presumptions of the group value model and the relational model of authority with the social identity approaches' leadership model (Hogg, 2001; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). Specifically, it shows that, when it comes to identity-related outcomes, a supervisor's fairness is most informative when the supervisor represents the in-group or is *in-group prototypical* (the phrase used in the social identity approach to group processes, as described by Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). In that time, organizational justice literature was rather surprisingly only rarely integrated with issues of leadership, and thus the first essay took an important step towards this kind of integration.

Naturally, the focus of organizational justice research has somewhat shifted during the years between Essay I and the other essays of this dissertation. The interest in interactional aspects of justice, which was already evident in 2005, has led to a number of empirical studies that reinforce the stature of supervisor's interactional justice (e.g., Bies & Moag, 1986; Le Roy, Bastounis, & Minibas-Poussard, 2012; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002). Maybe the most notable change is that, in the course of the last decade, researchers seem to have reached some kind of consensus on the conceptual distinctiveness of interactional justice (Colquitt, 2012; Colquitt et al., 2005). Nevertheless, it is also acknowledged that interactional and

procedural aspects of justice are highly related and, depending on the operationalization, often load on the same factor. Particularly, the widely used Moorman's (1991) interactional justice measure has been criticized in retrospect (Colquitt, 2012; Colquitt et al., 2005) to include both aspects of procedural and interactional justice: even though it explicitly refers to only interactional justice, it actually also includes aspects of procedural justice. This particular measure is used in all the essays of the present dissertation. In essays III and IV, it is referred to as interactional justice in a way Moorman did. However, in light of current understanding (e.g., Colquitt, 2012) this term may be misleading. Hence, to explicate that the measure actually reflects a broader phenomenon than interactional justice and to provide continuity between the first and the other essays, in the dissertation summary it is called informal justice.

Aside from conceptual questions, contemporary research around the interactional and procedural aspects of justice seems to have become more multilevel and fine-grained than before. For example, empirical research has increasingly started to explore concomitant and also interactive effects of different forms and sources of justice (e.g., Colquitt, 2012; Greenberg, 2006; Seifert, Sweeney, Joireman, & Tornton, 2010). Moreover, researchers have increasingly started to examine the possible moderators of perceived justice (e.g., De Cremer & Den Ouden, 2009; Ullrich, Christ, & van Dick, 2009; van Dijke, De Cremer, & Mayer, 2010). Importantly then, several studies have shown, in line with Essay I, that leader in-group prototypicality is an important factor moderating the effects of supervisor's justice (e.g., Cornelis, Van Hiel, & De Cremer, 2006; Giessner & van Knippenberg, 2008; Ullrich et al., 2009; Seppälä, Lipponen, & Pirttilä-Backman, 2012). This notion has also led to new questions since it seems that in some instances leader in-group prototypicality accentuates these effects, whereas in other instances it limits them. Therefore, contemporary justice research has called for more research exploring leader in-group prototypicality – and also other leader-related factors – as moderators of supervisor's justice in relation to different outcome variables (De Cremer & Den Ouden, 2009; van Dijke, De Cremer, Mayer, & Quaquebeke, 2012; van Knippenberg, 2011; van Knippenberg, De Cremer, & van Knippenberg, 2007).

Essays II, III and IV are set in this context. They broaden the findings of the first essay and the contemporary field of organizational justice principally in three ways: first, by examining whether leader in-group prototypicality, together with group members' identification, moderates the mediated relationship between supervisor's informal justice and group members'

extra-role behavior via feelings of respect (Essay II); second, by exploring whether the supervisor's fair treatment and decision-making affect group members' self-related uncertainty particularly strongly when the supervisor is in-group prototypical (Essay III); and third, by investigating whether leader in-group prototypicality moderates the statistical interaction between supervisor's informal justice and organizational procedural justice in relation to group members' feelings of threat in a context of fundamental organizational change.

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Satu

This thesis consists of an overview of the following essays:

I   Lipponen, J., Koivisto, S., & Olkkonen, M-E. (2005). Procedural justice and status judgements: The moderating role of leader in-group prototypicality. The Leadership Quarterly, 16(4), 517-528. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2005.06.004

II   Koivisto, S., & Lipponen, J. (2013). Leader's procedural justice, respect and extra-role behaviour: The roles of leader in-group representativeness and identification. 29 pages.

III   Koivisto, S., & Lipponen, J. (2013). Self-related uncertainty as a function of interactional justice and leader in-group prototypicality. 22 pages.

IV   Koivisto, S., Lipponen, J., & Platow, M.J. (in press). Organizational and supervisory justice effects on experienced threat during change: The moderating role of leader in-group representativeness. The Leadership Quarterly. doi: 10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.04.002

Contents

1. Introduction

In the daily life of organizations, immediate group supervisors play an important role. They are responsible for leading their group and its individual members through ordinary everyday actions and also through organizational changes. In an organizational context, it is particularly these supervisors who interact with the employees. Immediate supervisors inform, guide and motivate employees, communicate with them, reconcile possible disagreements, and make important decisions. Naturally, then, and a focus of the current analysis of this dissertation, their perceived fairness becomes essentially important. It is not irrelevant to employees (1) whether their supervisor distributes promotions or work load fairly in the group or rewards group members with justice (*distributive justice*; Adams, 1965; Folger & Cropanzano, 1998; Moorman, 1991), (2) whether the supervisor uses fair procedures when making decisions (*procedural justice*; Leventhal, 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975), or (3) treats the employees with dignity and respect (*interactional justice*, Bies & Moag, 1986).

Interestingly, when considering the fairness of their supervisor, employees often seem to particularly highlight the stature of the interpersonal treatment that they receive from the supervisor (see, e.g., Colquitt, Greenberg, & Zapata-Phelan, 2005; Greenberg, 2006; Rodell & Colquitt, 2009). Furthermore, this kind of justice has wide-reaching effects. Empirically, it has been connected with employees' reactions towards the leader himself or herself (Bies & Moag, 1986; Smith, Tyler, Huo, Ortiz, & Lind, 1998), their self-related inferences and relationships with fellow group members (Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002; Sousa & Vala, 2002; Tyler, Degoey, & Smith, 1996), and organization-level outcomes (Le Roy, Bastounis, & Minibas-Poussard, 2012; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002; Sousa & Vala, 2002). As a consequence, organizational justice research generally acknowledges that supervisor's fairness has pivotal and multifold implications in the workplace (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001).

However, despite the obvious importance of supervisor's fair treatment and decision making, we know relatively little about its dynamics. So far, empirical research has mainly focused on exploring the main effects of a leader's fairness (van Knippenberg, De Cremer, & van Knippenberg, 2007). More fine-grained research is clearly needed (e.g., Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Particularly, researchers in the field have called for research exploring *how elements of leadership affect the justice processes* (Bies, 2005; De Cremer & Alberts, 2004; De Cremer & Den Ouden, 2009; van Dijke, De Cremer, Mayer, & Quaquebeke, 2012; van Knippenberg et al., 2007). For example, van Knippenberg et al. (2007) and De Cremer and Alberts (2004) state that for both the empirical and conceptual development of organizational justice research, it is critically important that fairness processes are considered in light of the leadership: research should investigate whether leader-related characteristics or behavioral styles facilitate, enhance, or set boundaries for the effects of supervisors' fairness. Namely, it may be that not all supervisor's fairness is equally important for employees. Instead, employees may attend to supervisor's fairness with different intensities, depending on the elements of leadership. For example, for supervisory justice to have an influence, it may be crucial that employees are committed to the authority and view him or her as a representative of their salient in-group (De Cremer & Alberts, 2004; Lind & Tyler, 1988; Smith et al., 1998; Tyler & Lind, 1992).

In addition to exploring how leadership-related issues affect the processes of supervisor's justice, research that integrates employees' perceptions of supervisor's justice with those of organizational justice has been called for (Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel, & Rupp, 2001; Greenberg, 2001; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002). Specifically, Rupp and Cropanzano (2002) suggest that *supervisors and their justice should be considered in relation to the organizational justice context in which they act*, since this context very likely affects the processes of supervisor's justice. Indeed, supervisors act within their organizations and, importantly, employees perceive both supervisors and organizations as distinct agents capable of acting fairly or unfairly (Cropanzano, Chrobot-Mason, Rupp, & Prehar, 2004; Hollensbe, Khazanchi, & Masterson, 2008; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002; Treviño & Bies, 1997). Moreover, research shows that employees' perceptions and behaviors are influenced by both justices coming from the organization and the supervisor (e.g., Cropanzano et al., 2001). However, the present state of supervisory justice research largely disregards the context in which supervisors act, and examines supervisor's justice apart from the organizational context. This can be argued to substantively simplify the

reality and theories of organizational justice. Therefore, examining the interplay between justices coming from the supervisor and the organization is important for the conceptual and empirical development of organizational justice research.

In the present dissertation I aim at taking a step towards a deeper understanding of the psychology and dynamics of *immediate supervisor's interactional and procedural justice* by contributing to the prior supervisory justice research principally in two ways: first, by exploring how the key elements of leadership suggested by the recently developed *social identity model of organizational leadership (SIMOL*, Haslam, Reicher, & Platow, 2011; Hogg, 2001; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003) affect the justice processes, and second, by examining the dynamics of supervisor's fairness in the context of organizational justice (*multi-foci justice*, Cropanzano et al., 2004; Hollensbe et al., 2008; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002; Treviño & Bies, 1997). I investigate these research problems within the framework provided by *relational models of procedural justice*, particularly the group value model (Lind & Tyler, 1988), the relational model of authority (Tyler & Lind, 1992), and the group engagement model (Blader & Tyler, 2009; Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003). In terms of these models, supervisor's justice is important for his or her subordinates because it conveys to them identity-related, non-instrumental information (Lind & Tyler, 1988).

The summary of this dissertation is structured as follows. In the remainder of this section, I provide the theoretical and conceptual background for the dissertation by defining the central concepts and introducing the relevant literature and research. In Section 2, I present the aims and specific research questions as well as the hypotheses of this dissertation. In Section 3, I review the methods used and after that, in Section 4, the main results. In the final section, I discuss the theoretical and practical implications of the main findings, consider the limitations of this dissertation, and suggest some interesting avenues for future research.

1.1 Justice in an organizational context

The present state of organizational justice research acknowledges that in an organizational context, both supervisors and organizations are capable of conveying procedural and interactional justice (e.g., Blader & Tyler, 2003; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002¸ Tyler & Blader, 2000). For example, Blader and Tyler (2003, Tyler & Blader, 2000) present empirical evidence in their *four-component model of procedural justice* (see Table 1) that people are influenced by fairness aspects that relate to (1) *decision-making* (i.e.,

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procedural aspects of justice) and (2) *quality of treatment* (i.e., interactional aspects of justice). These two aspects of justice emanate from two different sources: (1) the formal rules of the group (i.e., policies and prevailing norms of the *organization*) and (2) the informal implementation of these rules by particular authorities (i.e., *supervisors*).

Table 1. Four-component model of procedural justice (Blader & Tyler, 2003).

	Quality of decision-making	Quality of treatment
Informal (supervisor)	Evaluations of how a group authority makes decisions	Evaluations of how a group authority treats group members
Formal (organization)	Evaluations of formal rules and policies related to how decisions are made in the group	Evaluations of formal rules and policies that influence how group members are treated

Thus, in the present dissertation it is acknowledged that both supervisors and organizations convey all kinds of justice. Nevertheless, the present dissertation focuses on supervisor's fairness as it is conceptualized by Blader and Tyler (2003) in their concept of *informal justice.* That is, supervisor's justice is here conceptualized to include both aspects of interactional and procedural justice; *the dignity and respect of interpersonal treatment but also the procedures that the leader uses in decision making*. Organizational justice*,* instead, is viewed plainly as the *fairness of procedures that are used in the organization*.

It should be noted that the decision in the present research to combine supervisor's interpersonal treatment and decision-making as one form of justice (that is, supervisor's informal justice) differs from the current view of organizational justice research. Namely, during the past 20 years, researchers have intensively debated about the conceptual distinctiveness of interactional and procedural justice. Some scholars considered interactional justice to be an independent form of justice (e.g., Bies, 2001; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000; Moorman, 1991), whereas others regarded it as just one component of procedural justice (e.g., Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996; Sousa & Vala, 2002; Tyler & Lind, 1992; Tyler et al., 1996). At first, it was considered that these two aspects of justice were separate because of their different sources (Masterson et al., 2000). However, as noted earlier, it was later discovered that both supervisors and organizations convey both interpersonal and systemic fairness, not just one of these (Blader & Tyler, 2003; Rupp & Cropanzano,

2002¸ Tyler & Blader, 2000). In addition, the conceptual differentiation between interactional and procedural aspects of justice requires more than merely different sources. Rather, employees should distinguish between the different elements of these justices; and in addition, procedural and interactional justice should relate to different organizational variables (e.g., Bies, 2001; Bobocel & Holmvall, 2001). Plenty of empirical evidence indicates that this indeed is the case. People do distinguish formal procedures from interpersonal treatment, and, moreover, interactional and procedural justice influence different employee attitudes and behaviors in an organizational context (e.g., Bies, 2001; Bobocel & Holmvall, 2001; Cropanzano et al., 2002; Masterson et al., 2000). Thus, based on these findings, two meta-analyses recommend the conceptual and empirical distinction between the procedural and interactional aspects of justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001).

Nevertheless, even though researchers currently seem to have reached at least some kind of agreement on the conceptual distinctiveness of interactional and procedural justices, the bygone discussion still causes ambiguity and significantly marks the empirical research in the field (including this research). Since the scope and content of procedural justice have not been agreed on, over the years, researchers have used the concepts of procedural and interactional justice inconsistently: sometimes the structural and interpersonal aspects of justice are viewed independently (Lipponen, Wisse, & Perälä, 2011; Moorman, 1991) and other times as one coherent unity (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996; Sousa & Vala, 2002; Tyler & Lind, 1992). At least partly, this also goes back to the operationalization of interactional justice. For example, the first and widely used measure of interactional justice that was developed by Moorman (1991) refers to a broader phenomenon than just interpersonal treatment. Namely, in addition to interactional justice, it also operationalizes aspects of procedural justice. Consequently, studies that have utilized Moorman's (1991) interactional justice scale have often faced difficulties in empirically differentiating between procedural and interactional aspects of supervisor's justice and thus are forced to merge the two constructs into a single variable (Colquitt et al., 2005; Colquitt, 2012). This kind of convention is still common in the field, but can be criticized because it may lead to overlooking possible different effects and dynamics of interactional and procedural justice.

1.2 Justice and group members' feelings of pride and respect

As already noted, *the group value model* (Lind & Tyler, 1988) and *the relational model of authority* (Tyler & Lind, 1992) suggest that interactional and procedural aspects of a group authority's and organization's justice individually inform group members about their standing in the in-group. It tells them whether or not they are *respected in the in-group* and whether or not they can be *proud of their in-group*.

Empirical research supports these assumptions: both organizational justice and supervisory justice have been shown to separately convey identity-relevant information (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Platow, et al., (2012); Platow, Filardo, Troselj, Grace, & Ryan, 2006; Smith et al., 1998; Sousa & Vala, 2002; Tyler et al., 1996; Tyler & Lind, 1992; Tyler & De Cremer, 2005). For example, Sousa and Vala (2002) demonstrated in their survey study that a *supervisor's* fair treatment and decision-making positively influence the group members' feelings of pride and respect. Instead, Tyler and Blader's (2002) survey study revealed that *organizational* procedural fairness positively affects both respect and pride that the group members experience.

1.2.1 Leader as an in-group representative

Importantly, the group value model and particularly the relational model of authority emphasize the role of a group leader in conveying identity-relevant information to fellow group members. One of the most fundamental tenets of these models is that the group leader's justice conveys to an individual an indication of the opinions of the whole group that the authority represents (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler & Lind, 1992; van Knippenberg, 2000). This kind of prominent leadership power is explained by the idea that leaders are generally viewed as speaking for the group (Tyler & Lind, 1992). For example, Tyler and Lind (1992, 164) state that "authorities are treated as though they were indeed representative, and we look to our treatment by one authority to try to discover how ... the group as a whole views us". In other words, supervisors are expected to be able to inform each individual about the fellow group members' opinions, attitudes, and values to the degree to which they represent the in-group. Then the relational message that fair treatment conveys is suggested to have a most profound impact if it comes from a supervisor that represents the in-group, and thus is interpreted as expressive of the group's general opinion (Cornelis, van Hiel, & De Cremer, 2006; Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler & Lind, 1992; van Knippenberg, 2000). The models suggest that perceived

justice of the group leader has an effect on the self- or in-group related judgments, feelings and behavior of the group members, especially when the group members consider the group authority to represent and embody the in-group (Tyler & Lind, 1992; Tyler et al., 1996).

Even though the hypothesis of leader in-group representativeness is one of the most central assumptions of the group value model and the relational model of authority, prior to the first essay of this dissertation (Lipponen, Koivisto, & Olkkonen, 2005), empirical research has largely ignored the idea. One possible explanation for this may be that the authors of the group value model do not offer any detailed clarification about how the representativeness of the in-group leader could be conceptualized. This lack of clarity on what leader representativeness really means has resulted in a significant conceptual and empirical gap in the relational models of procedural justice. Indeed, before the first essay of this dissertation, the most compelling support for this assumption came from a series of studies by Smith and her colleagues (1998).

Smith et al. (1998) compared the effects of the perceived justice of in-group and out-group authorities across two different laboratory experiments and one correlational study. They found that fair treatment by the in-group authority had an effect on the feelings of respect in the group, whereas the perceived fairness of an authority who was considered an out-group member did not have such an effect. This finding is significant for it shows, as expected, that the in-group authority's justice has more influence than the out-group authority's justice when it comes to group members' identity-related inferences. However, restricting representativeness to in-group membership may be problematic because in-group membership does not necessarily guarantee in-group representativeness. In addition, some in-group authorities probably are more representative than others. Therefore, it is important that representativeness is defined, operationalized, and measured independently of in-group membership.

The Social Identity Model of Organizational Leadership, SIMOL (Haslam et al., 2011; Hogg, 2001; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003), offers a viable way of defining, operationalizing, and measuring the idea of the leader as a representative of his or her in-group. The group value model and the relational model of authority share some basic assumptions with the social identity approach, and the notion of leader representativeness could be seen as equivalent to the concept of *leader in-group prototypicality* (Hogg, 2001; Platow & van Knippenberg, 2001). Consequently, in the present dissertation, the leader's in-group representativeness is conceptualized and

operationalized with the help of the social identity approach's concept of leader in-group prototypicality. From now on, these two concepts are used interchangeably in this dissertation.

According to the social identity approach to group processes (Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987; Tajfel & Turner, 1979), relative in-group prototypicality refers to the subjective representation of characteristics (e.g., attitudes, values, norms, beliefs, manners, identity) that represent the group. This representation is actively constructed and highly context-dependent (Haslam, 2001; Haslam, Oakes, McGarty, Turner, & Onorato, 1995; Hogg, 2001; Turner & Haslam, 2001). Prototypicality is considered a relative characteristic of an individual in a certain context, rather than a characteristic of an individual in isolation (Haslam et al., 1995; Turner, Oakes, Haslam, & McGarty, 1994). Prototypes are thought to represent context-dependent factors, usually in the form of ideal persons or types. They emerge through the principle of meta-contrast (Hogg, 2001; Hogg & Terry, 2000; Turner, 1985), which means that the differences between the in-group and relevant out-groups are exaggerated, and those within the in-group are minimized (Hogg & Terry, 2000). As a consequence, the most prototypical in-group member is the person who is the most similar to other group members and, at the same time, the most different from the out-group members.

Empirically, relative to non-in-group prototypical group members, in-group prototypical group members: (1) are more influential (McGarty, Turner, Hogg, David, & Wetherell, 1992; van Knippenberg, Lossie, & Wilke, 1994), (2) are seen as more charismatic (Platow, van Knippenberg, Haslam, van Knippenberg, & Spears, 2006), (3) lead to enhanced job satisfaction among other group members (Cicero, Pierro, & van Knippenberg, 2007), and (4) are seen as more trustworthy (Giessner & van Knippenberg, 2008). Moreover, it has been suggested that situations that provoke uncertainty, such as change, render followers more sensitive to a leader's group prototypicality (Hogg, 2000; van Knippenberg, 2011).

With respect to fairness, the impact of leader in-group prototypicality has been noticed to be twofold. First, it has been discovered that prototypical group leaders may be able to maintain good relationships with their group members regardless of their perceived unfairness (Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2003; Platow & van Knippenberg, 2001). More specifically, it has been shown that group members allow in-group prototypical supervisors to behave in a way that might be considered unfair without negative *leader-related* consequences (Giessner & van Knippenberg, 2008;

Ullrich, Christ, & Dick, 2009). For example, Ullrich and his colleagues (2009) showed in their study that leader in-group prototypicality *decreased* the negative effects of low procedural justice to leader endorsement. However, *as it comes to consequences that are related to one's in-group or the self, it may be expected, in line with assumptions of the relational models of procedural justice, that the influence of fairness is enhanced by the perceived prototypicality of the group supervisor* (e.g., Cornelis et al., 2006; Seppälä, Lipponen, & Pirttilä-Backman, 2012).

1.2.2 Identification

As the discussion above indicates, leader representativeness may be an essential factor moderating the impact of a supervisor's fairness. However, importantly, alone it may not be sufficient. That is to say, the group value model and the relational model of authority suggest that besides leader in-group representativeness, also *social identification*, or the extent to which individuals define themselves in terms of their group membership (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and perceive the belongingness to their organization or work group (Ashforth & Mael, 1989, p. 34), influences the significance of fair treatment and decision making to identity-related inferences (Koper, van Knippenberg, Bouhuijs, Vermunt, & Wilke, 1993; Smith, Tyler, Huo, 2003; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). It is suggested that information that supervisor's interactional and procedural justice convey (that is, for example, whether one is a respected group member) is less important if one does not care about the group, whereas the same information is very important if the group is central to one's self-definition, and hence to the basis of one's feelings of self-esteem and self-worth (Smith et al., 2003).

This idea is also supported in the framework of the social identity approach that suggests that leader in-group prototypicality becomes an important basis for the cognitions of the in-group members when they identify with the in-group (e.g., Hains, Hogg, & Duck, 1997; Hogg, Hains, & Mason, 1998; Platow & van Knippenberg, 2001; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). In fact, the social identity approach views identification and leader in-group prototypicality as closely intertwined, and even as parts of the same process: the more people identify with a group, the more their attitudes and behavior are governed by this group membership and the more they use the in-group prototype as an important reference point and the basis for their perception and evaluation of self (Hains et al., 1997; Hogg, 2001; Hogg et al., 1998; Hogg & Terry, 2000; Platow & van Knippenberg, 2001; Turner et al., 1987; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003; van Dijke & De Cremer, 2008, 2010). The likelihood that people consider a prototypical description of

themselves and other group members personally relevant is enhanced by group identification (van Dijke & De Cremer, 2008, 2010). Several studies (e.g., Hains et al., 1997; Hogg et al., 1998; Platow & van Knippenberg, 2001) support these assumptions. Importantly, they show that, as group members identify with their in-group, prototypicality is an even more significant basis for leader evaluation than the stereotypical characteristics that are usually associated with leaders (cf. Lord, 1977).

Nevertheless, so far, there is no direct empirical research confirming that both leader in-group prototypicality *and* identification concomitantly moderate the basic assumptions of the group value model, more specifically the *relationship between supervisor's justice and group members' feelings of respect*. However, some support for the idea comes from the studies that highlight the status of *identification or shared group membership as a single moderator between supervisor's procedural fairness and respect* (e.g., Smith et al., 1998; Tyler & Degoey, 1995). For instance, Tyler and Degoey (1995) showed that the group members who identify strongly with the group and feel fairly treated by the group authority judge themselves to be highly respected in their group. Also the studies that examine the *identification-moderated effects of leader in-group prototypicality* on (1) a leader's perceived effectiveness (Cicero, Bonaiuto, Pierro, & van Knippenberg, 2008), (2) the followers' self-perceived comparative status (i.e., rank in the group) (van Dijke & De Cremer, 2008), or (3) leader benevolence (van Dijke & De Cremer, 2010) owe some support for the idea by showing that leader in-group prototypicality has more pronounced effects when the group members identify with the group.

Nevertheless, not all studies support the interaction between supervisor's justice and identification in predicting status[1], a concept that is often conflated with respect (Lind, 2001; Tyler & Blader, 2002). In van Dijke's and De Cremer's (2008) study, there was no interaction between supervisor's procedural justice and identification in predicting self-perceived status. Importantly, the studies that have supported the moderating role of group identification in the relationship between fair treatment and respect have viewed respect as an autonomous evaluation of

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[1] It should be noted that there are two distinct ways to view the construct of respect either focusing on inclusion or status (Huo, Binning, & Molina, 2010; Tyler & Blader, 2002). These two constructs are based on different theoretical origins and different referent standards of judgment (Tyler & Blader, 2002). Respect as inclusion develops out of autonomous and absolute evaluations that are based on an internal standard, for instance fit to group values and norms. Conversely, respect as status or rank in the group is based on comparative and relative evaluations that compare one to other group members (Tyler & Blader, 2002). Respect as inclusion reflects the original definition of respect among relational models of procedural justice (Lind, 2001).

one's inclusion or standing in the group (Smith et al., 1998; Tyler and Degoey, 1995). Instead, the interaction has not been verified when the respect is operationalized as comparative rank in the group (van Dijke & De Cremer, 2008). Furthermore, the relationship between procedural justice and non-comparative respect has been proven to be stronger than with comparative respect (Tyler & Blader, 2002). Thus, it would seem that non-comparative respect is the core construct in identity-based explanations of supervisor's interactional and procedural justice (see, Lind, 2001; Tyler & Blader, 2002). In the present dissertation, respect is conceptualized as a non-comparative assessment of one's inclusion and standing in the in-group.

Hence, based on the theoretical and empirical evidence, it could be suggested that *supervisor's informal justice affects group members' self- and in-group-related, non-comparative inferences most powerfully when the leader embodies the in-group and group members identify with the in-group* (Tyler et al., 1996; Tyler & Lind, 1992; van Knippenberg, 2011). When the leader does not represent the group and/or represents a group that is not a salient part of one's identity, his or her fairness is not expected to have such a prominent effect, since it does not represent the views of a group that is important for that particular person's social identity. Figure 1 presents this theoretical assumption of the group value model and the relational model of authority with dashed lines.
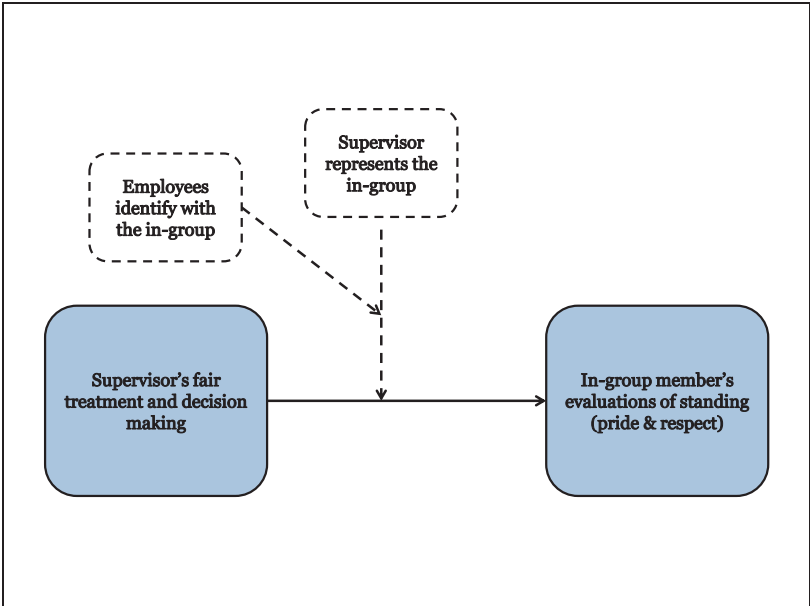
Figure 1. The basic ideas of the group value model and the relational model of authority.

1.3 Supervisor's justice and extra-role behavior

The group engagement model (Blader & Tyler, 2009; Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003) builds on and further extends the ideas of the group value model and the relational model of authority. Specifically, it suggests, firstly, that group members use fair treatment as a basis for evaluating whether or not they are respected within the group, and secondly, that this indication of standing within the group heightens their identification with the group. Third, and most importantly, the group engagement model suggests that fair treatment influences group members' behavioral engagement via feelings of respect and identification (Tyler & Blader, 2002, 2003).

In other words, the group engagement model argues that, via feelings of respect and identification, procedural and interactional aspects of justice influence *extra-role behavior*, or the extent to which employees exceed their specific role requirements when carrying out their jobs (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Recently, Blader and Tyler (2009) modified the model by including the feelings of respect within a multidimensional conceptualization of identification. In the modified version, they suggest that fair treatment and decision making influence extra-role behavior via a composite view of identification that includes group members' cognitive representation of the connection between the group and the self and assessments of the group's status (i.e., pride) as well as one's standing within the group (i.e., respect) (Blader & Tyler, 2009).

Interestingly, the group engagement model does not explicate how leader in-group representativeness may affect its presumptions and, in addition, unlike the group value model and the relational model of authority, the model views identification more as mediating rather than moderating the justice processes (e.g., De Cremer, 2002; Michel, Stegmaier, & Sonntag, 2010; Simon & Stürmer, 2003; Tyler & Blader, 2003). However, based on the assumptions of the group value model and the relational model of authority, it can be presumed that both leader representativeness and group members' identification moderate the processes of the group engagement model (Tyler & Blader, 2001, 2002, 2003). Thus, it can be presented that leader in-group representativeness and group members' identification are essential factors moderating the mediated processes of the group engagement model. Put differently, it may be that *the group members use the supervisor's fair treatment and decision-making as a basis for extra-role behavior via feelings of respect in a particularly strong manner, or even exclusively, when the supervisor is in-group*

prototypical and the group members identify with the group that the supervisor represents.

Prior research within the framework of the group engagement model offers empirical support for the idea that fair treatment and decision-making of a supervisor convey identity-relevant information that has significant group-level behavioral consequences (Sousa & Vala, 2002; Tyler & Blader, 2000; Tyler & De Cremer, 2005). However, in existing studies, the focus has been on delineating the mediated processes. Consequently, empirical research on the possible moderating factors in the processes is rather scarce (e.g., Barry & Tyler, 2009; Lipponen et al., 2011; Okimoto, 2009). Thus, there are no empirical studies that explore the possible moderating effects of leader in-group prototypicality in the processes of the group engagement model. In addition, only recently a few studies have explored whether group identification moderates some relationships within the model, for instance the suggested relationship between fairness and identification (Lipponen et al., 2011; Okimoto, 2009) or extra-role behaviors (Barry & Tyler, 2009).

Nevertheless, the results of these studies do not offer conclusive findings on how identification moderates the effects of fair treatment: in some studies, a high level of prior identification has, in line with presumptions of the group value model and the relational model of authority, strengthened the effects of justice (Okimoto, 2009), whereas in other studies, the effects of justice were stronger for those whose prior identification was low (Lipponen et al., 2011). Because of that inconclusiveness, and also because identification seems to be sensitive to outcome variables (see Section 1.2.2, p. 18, Smith et al., 1998; Tyler & Blader, 2002; Tyler & Degoey, 1995), the existing studies may not be, as such, applicable for explaining the effects of supervisor's fair treatment and decision-making on group members' feelings of respect and consequent extra-role behavior. In addition, the stature of identification as a moderator in the group engagement model may be different when it is combined with leader in-group prototypicality.

Figure 2 presents how the group engagement model extends the earlier presented ideas of the group value model and the relational model of authority. Again, the dashed lines illustrate the group value model's and the relational model of authority's assumptions of leader in-group representativeness and group members' identification that the group engagement model has not specified but that will be explored in the present dissertation.
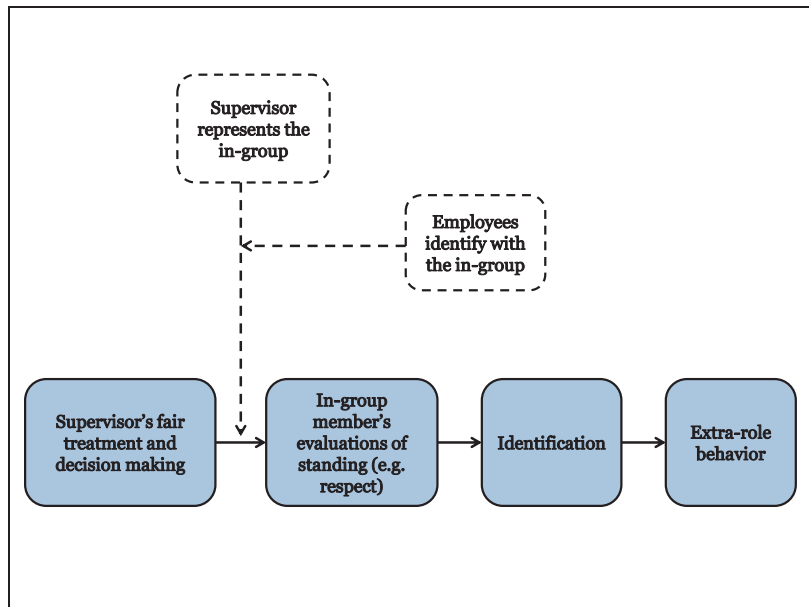
Figure 2. The group engagement model and the assumptions of leader representativeness and identification.

1.4 Supervisor's justice as a buffer against feelings of threat and uncertainty

Theoretically and empirically, the relational models of procedural justice have a great potential to explain several important outcomes and phenomena in an organizational context. As was noted earlier, these models have been successfully applied to explain the relationship between organizational or supervisory justice and group members' inferences about respect and pride (see, e.g., Lind & Tyler, 1988; Smith et al., 1998; Sousa & Vala, 2002; Tyler & Lind, 1992; Tyler et al., 1996), extra-role behavior (Blader & Tyler, 2009; Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003), as well as group members' interpersonal relationships and feelings toward fellow group members, for example, positive emotions towards coworkers or trust in coworkers (Cornelis et al., 2006; Seppälä et al., 2012).

In this dissertation, the group value model and the relational model of authority are further elaborated to explicate how fair treatment and decision making at the workplace may decrease (1) employees' feelings of uncertainty about themselves and their coping in the in-group and (2) their feelings of threat. The concepts of uncertainty and threat are highly related and inevitably characterize today's working life. Uncertainty is a multifold and context-specific construct that generally refers to "one's attitudes, beliefs, feelings, and perceptions, as well as relationship to other people" (van den Bos, Poortvliet, Maas, Miedema, & van den Ham, 2005, p. 93). It is central in several theoretical frameworks (e.g., *uncertainty management*

theory, Lind & van den Bos, 2002; *uncertainty-identity theory*, Hogg, 2009) and has been conceptualized in many different ways in empirical studies. It has, for example, been conceptualized as reflecting control, situational uncertainty, self-uncertainty, fear of death, or uncertainty about one's standing in the organization (see, e.g., Cicero et al., 2007; De Cremer et al., 2010a; De Cremer & Sedikides, 2005; van den Bos, 2001; van den Bos et al., 2005). Further, it has been measured with different kinds of proxies (e.g., length of tenure or experiences of stress).

In the present research, uncertainty is targeted to reflect one's beliefs, feelings, and perceptions about oneself and one's coping in the in-group. Threat, instead, is conceptualized to describe group members' confidence in their ability to cope with the certain situation, and concern that the situation might cause harm to them (Bardi, Guerra, & Ramdeny, 2009, 220). The extant literature does not explicitly specify the interfaces between the constructs of threat and uncertainty, probably because the obscurity that denounces the concept of uncertainty. In previous studies, concepts of uncertainty and threat have sometimes been confounded (e.g., Loseman, Miedema, van den Bos, & Vermunt, 2009). Nevertheless, it should be noted, these constructs may not always be completely overlapping since uncertainty may also take other forms that are not threat-related. Even though clarifying the interfaces between the concepts of uncertainty and threat would be important for the coherence of the future research, it goes beyond the motives of the present dissertation. In the present dissertation, feelings of threat are viewed as one manifestation of uncertainty.

It is widely acknowledged that the feelings of uncertainty and threat may be consequences of ordinary everyday actions and changes in organizational life. These actions and changes may negatively affect the individual employees as well as the organization in general (Arnetz, 2005; Mannix & White, 1992). Particularly changes in organizations often alter the status quo and make the social environment more unpredictable; they may increase the perceived job insecurity and job demands, as well as decrease job control (Vahtera, Kivimäki, Pentti, & Theorell, 2000), and consequently, cause feelings of threat and uncertainty (e.g., Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). However, these kinds of feelings are considered detrimental to individual and organizational well-being, as they are likely to cause individual stress, increase absenteeism and quit intentions, and reduce welfare and the work ability of the personnel (Amiot, Terry, Jimmieson, & Callan, 2006; Fugate, Prussia, & Kinicki, 2012). Further, the negative effects of these feelings can even extend beyond the workplace and carry over to the home (Doby & Caplan, 1995). That is why it is crucial both

for the organizations and the individual employees that there are ways either to cope with feelings of threat and uncertainty or to decrease their occurrence.

The present dissertation argues that the relational aspects of supervisor's and organization's justice decrease group members' experiences of threat and uncertainty (Desai, Sondak, & Diekmann, 2011; Fugate et al., 2012; Lind & van den Bos, 2002), and the dynamics of this relationship can be explained with the group value model and the relational model of authority. Even though these models have not previously been applied to explain the feelings of threat or uncertainty, their basic assumptions allude to that fair treatment and decision making may be particularly powerful in influencing these kinds of outcomes.

Namely, the relational models of procedural justice hold that, in general, fair treatment and decision making are valued because they shape the group members' identity-related evaluations. They, for instance, provide group members a source of self-definition and self-affirmation or identity security (Tyler & Blader, 2001, 2003), and in addition, arouse positive feelings of self-worth and self-esteem (Huo, Smith, Tyler, & Lind, 1996). For example, Tyler and Blader (2003, p. 358) state that procedural justice provides group members with support for positive feelings of self-worth and high self-esteem as well as confidence in their own identity. Further, this information is suggested to be essentially important for group members because of their belonging to the social groups and retaining the social ties that they have to these groups (Tajfel & Turner, 1979).

When these ideas are elaborated further, it could be suggested that since fair treatment and decision making have such a powerful effect on the group members' evaluations of their standing in the in-group as well as identity security and self-esteem, it also influences group members' uncertainty or threat about themselves and about their future coping in the in-group. More specifically, it could be claimed that to *the degree to which just behaviors are likely to convey information on one's standing in the group, they also tell each group member whether his or her own standing is assured and, thus, whether he or she should feel threatened or uncertain about oneself and about coping in the in-group.* It is proposed that the information regarding group members' standing in good stead that is conveyed via fair treatment and decision making also conveys to group members that they can trust that their future in the group is secured; actions are undertaken to protect their rights, and consequently, that they should not be threatened or uncertain. In contrast, if a person is treated

unfairly, or the procedures are unfair, he or she can infer that he or she is not a particularly important member of the group and, as such, his or her interests and rights are not likely to be looked after. This, in turn, is likely to give rise to feelings of threat and uncertainty. Thus, relatively high levels of organizational and supervisory justice can separately serve as effective buffers against experiences of threat and uncertainty. In contrast, low levels of these are likely, each individually, to further increase the threat or uncertainty that is experienced.

1.5 Supervisor's justice in the context of organizational justice

Interestingly, the theory and empirical research within the frameworks of the group value model and the relational model of authority has concentrated on explicating either the justice processes of the supervisor (Cornelis et al., 2006; Seppälä et al., 2012; Smith et al., 1998; Sousa & Vala, 2002; Tyler et al., 1996) or the organization (Sousa & Vala, 2002; Tyler & De Cremer, 2005). So far, the interactive effects of justice coming from these two sources have not been considered within these frameworks.

However, *multifoci justice approach* (e.g., Cropanzano et al., 2004; Hollensbe et al., 2008; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002; Treviño & Bies, 1997) suggests that employees perceive their supervisors and the organization as distinct agents, and evaluate their justice independently of each other. Further, of course, the supervisors are in close interaction with their organizations and, thus, the justices coming from these two sources may have concomitant effects. Consequently, in light of the presumptions of the multifoci justice approach, it can be claimed that organization's and supervisor's justice dynamically affect the processes proposed by the relational models of procedural justice.

Specifically, justice scholars propose that different justice sources or, because of interrelatedness, justice forms (see Section 1.1, p. 12), often show multiplicative effects on outcomes (e.g., Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996; Tepper, 2001). It is suggested that, particularly when the surrounding environment is unstable, employees use interactional justice of an authority figure as a reference to also evaluate different sources of justice (Cropanzano, Prehar, & Chen, 2002; Luo, 2007; Mansour-Cole & Scott, 1998). In other words, high interactional justice of an authority is expected to facilitate organizational procedural justice in bolstering the desired outcomes. It is thought to foster the desired effects of organizational procedural justice by creating a climate that encourages organizational procedural justice to operate (Luo, 2007).

Overall, the empirical research on the interaction between organizational procedural justice and supervisory interactional justice is rather scarce. Instead, prior research (e.g., Greenberg, 2006; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997) has mainly focused on interactions of organizational distributive injustice with supervisor's interactional justice (Bies & Moag, 1986; Greenberg, 2006; Masterson et al., 2000) and the interaction between different justice forms without reference to different justice sources in organizations (see, Brockner, 2002; Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996). One of the few studies (e.g., Seifert, Sweeney, Joireman, & Tornton, 2010) that have considered the interactive effects of procedural and interactional justice from different sources is a study by Luo (2007). In this study, Luo showed that, in a context of strategic alliance, interactional justice of a top manager (of another alliance party) interacted with the procedural justice of a strategic alliance's board to explain alliance performance (that is, for instance, profitability and employees' overall satisfaction). More specifically, Luo's study showed that the positive relationship between the board's procedural justice and alliance performance was stronger when the authority's interactional justice was high. This finding is important because it provides evidence that employees may simultaneously judge one party as fair while perceiving another party as unfair (e.g., Greenberg, 2006; Luo, 2007; Seifert et al., 2010). In addition, it suggests that when considering the justice from different sources, employees' inferences and behavior are most effectively positively influenced when both of these are at a satisfactory level (Bobocel & Holmvall, 2001; Cropanzano et al., 2001; Luo, 2007). Consequently, it could be expected that *organizational justice and supervisory justice reinforce the effects of each other and are both needed to effectively induce the desired outcomes.*

The present dissertation examines the interaction between supervisor's informal justice and organizational procedural justice when explaining group members' experiences of threat. Importantly, it suggests that *leader in-group prototypicality* moderates this interaction: the degree to which the supervisor is seen (or not seen) to embody key attributes and qualities of the broader organization is likely to affect how strongly group members consider his or her fairness-related behavior important determinants of their feelings of threat. Specifically, it is suggested that because of the in-group prototypical leader's ability to inform group members about their identity-related inferences with his or her fairness, the statistical interaction between supervisor's justice and organizational justice is likely to be particularly pronounced when the supervisor is in-group representative. The non-representative supervisor, in turn, does not have

the same legitimacy to affect the identity-related processes and, thus, his or her fairness does not influence the relationship between organizational justice and experienced threat as powerfully as in-group prototypical supervisors. In other words, *it is expected that the two-way statistical interaction of organization's and supervisor's justice on the experienced threat emerges primarily, if not solely, when the group supervisor embodies the in-group. More specifically, it is expected that for prototypical leaders, there will be a negative organizational justice-threat relationship when the supervisory justice is high, whereas the relationship will be non-significant when supervisory justice is low.*

2. Aims of the study

2.1 Aims, research questions and hypotheses

The general aim of the current dissertation was to shed new light on the psychology of supervisor's interactional and procedural aspects of justice in two ways. First, by integrating the traditions of organizational justice and leadership, more precisely the group value model (Lind & Tyler, 1988), the relational model of authority (Tyler & Lind, 1992), the group engagement model (Blader & Tyler, 2009; Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003), and SIMOL (Haslam et al., 2011; van Knippenberg & Hogg). Second, by exploring both organizational justice and SIMOL from the perspective of a multifoci justice approach (Cropanzano et al., 2004; Hollensbe et al., 2008; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002; Treviño & Bies, 1997).

The dissertation consists of four essays which complement each other and fill the gaps in the present literature combining justice and leadership. In the first essay (Essay I), I empirically explore the very basic premises of justice processes presented by the group value model (Lind & Tyler, 1988) and the relational model of authority (Tyler & Lind, 1992); whether the relationship between supervisor's informal justice and group members' feelings of respect and pride is contingent upon the extent the leader is viewed as an in-group representative (i.e., in-group prototypical).

In the second essay (Essay II), I deepen the analysis by investigating how interactional and procedural aspects of supervisor's fairness affect group members' supervisor-rated extra-role behavior via feelings of respect, and whether this mediated relationship is moderated by both leader in-group prototypicality and group members' identification. Thus, like the first essay, the second essay also concentrates on examining the basic premises of the group value model and the relational model of authority. But in addition to this, it integrates these with the group engagement model (Blader & Tyler, 2009; Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003).

The last two essays take a more applicative approach to the relational justice models. They apply the group value model and the relational model of authority to explain why and how supervisor's informal justice affects the

uncertainty and threat that the group members experience. In Essay III, I investigate whether supervisor's informal justice decreases the in-group members' uncertainty about themselves and their coping in the in-group, and whether this is contingent on leader in-group prototypicality.

In Essay IV, I extend the ideas of Essay III by examining the immediate supervisor's informal justice in relation to organizational procedural justice. More precisely, I explore how supervisor's justice, organizational justice, and leader in-group prototypicality interact to explain group members' experiences of threat in the context of fundamental organizational change. Thus, the fourth essay extends the relational justice models to the larger organizational context by integrating the ideas of the multifoci justice approach and SIMOL with the group value model.

The research questions and detailed hypotheses of the dissertation are listed below. They are based on the theories, models, and earlier research results presented in the introduction section.

Research question 1: Is the relationship between supervisor's informal justice and group member's evaluations of respect and pride moderated by leader in-group prototypicality?

Hypothesis 1: The positive relationship between the group supervisor's informal justice and the group members' evaluations of pride and respect is stronger when the group supervisor is perceived to be a more prototypical member of the in-group than when he or she is considered to be less prototypical.

This hypothesis was tested in Essay I.

Research question 2: Does group members' identification moderate the interaction between supervisor's informal justice and leader in-group prototypicality when explaining group member's evaluations of respect?

Hypothesis 2: The positive relationship between supervisor's informal justice and respect is more pronounced when the supervisor represents the group as an in-group prototype and group members identify with the group that the leader represents.

Research question 3: Do leader in-group prototypicality and group members' identification moderate the mediated relationship between supervisor's informal justice and group members' extra-role behaviors via feelings of respect?

Hypothesis 3: Supervisor's informal justice affects group members' extra-role behaviors indirectly via feelings of respect. This effect is most pronounced when the leader is in-group prototypical and group members identify with the group.

Hypotheses 2 and 3 were tested in Essay II.

Research question 4: Does leader in-group prototypicality moderate the relationship between supervisor's informal justice and group members' uncertainty about themselves and their coping in the in-group?

Hypothesis 4: The negative relationship between supervisor's informal justice and group members' uncertainty about themselves and their coping in the in-group is stronger when the group supervisor is perceived to be a more prototypical member of the in-group than when he or she is considered to be less prototypical.

Hypothesis 4 was tested in Essay III.

Research question 5: Does leader in-group prototypicality moderate the interaction between organizational procedural justice and supervisor's informal justice when predicting experienced threat?

Hypothesis 5: Supervisor's informal justice moderates the relationship between organizational procedural justice and experienced threat during change. The negative relationship between organizational procedural justice and threat will be stronger when supervisor's informal justice is high. This two-way interaction of organizational and supervisory justice on will threat emerge primarily, if not solely, when the group supervisor represents and embodies the relevant in-group identity.

Hypothesis 5 was tested in Essay IV.

3. Methods

In this section, the different methods, datasets and measures that were used in the four essays are presented. Each essay gathered data to answer the respective research questions. The first subsection introduces the data and the approaches used in each essay, and the following section presents the key measures of this dissertation.

3.1   Data and procedures

The data used in the essays was obtained by using two different methods: cross-sectional surveys and quasi-experimental scenario experiments. Essays I and II are based on single cross-sectional surveys, while essays III and IV consist of both a survey study and a scenario experiment. In addition, in Essay II the survey data gathered from employees was matched with the data gathered from their immediate supervisors.

The two methods used have both strengths and limitations. Cross-sectional surveys picture the studied phenomena in real organizational settings but are purely correlational. Scenario experiments have a strong internal validity and control and consequently establish the causality in the studied relationships. However, they can be criticized for not allowing participants to experience a real situation and for relying only on imagined reactions. When these two methods are combined together, the weaknesses of one can be compensated by the strengths of another (Dipboye, 1990). They complement each other and together provide reliability to the research.

Essay I. The data for the first essay was obtained in two Finnish banking organizations that belonged to the same umbrella organization. The sample consisted of 555 employees. These employees worked in tasks of an expert and customer service. They were responsible for customer connections, advising customers on various things related to investment management and payment transactions, as well as granting credits. Employees worked in teams and reported to their supervisors, who were usually investment managers. A total of 364 usable responses were received, and thus the effective response rate was 66%. The respondents were divided evenly between the two organizations (51%/49%). The average respondent was a

44-year old woman, and only 9% of the respondents were men. The median working time in the present working group was one year.

Essay II. The data for the second essay was gathered from a municipal children's daycare organization in a large town in southern Finland. The daycare organization was divided into five districts, which were further organized into 126 separate daycare centers. Employees of 30 of these centers were randomly selected for this study. The employee surveys were administered as a part of a larger survey within the organization. Participation in the survey was voluntary. The employees were told that the results would be used both in academic research and for organizational development. The sample consisted of 411 employees, from whom 220 responses were received (54% response rate). In addition, supervisor surveys were distributed to the supervisors ($N = 30$) of the participating daycare centers two to three weeks after the employee surveys. Twenty supervisors returned the assessments, which evaluated their subordinates' extra-role behavior in the work group (67% supervisor response rate). In total, the supervisors assessed the behavior of 153 individual employees (37% of the total sample). The overlap between the employee respondents and supervisor evaluations led to a final employee-supervisor matched sample of 153 employees.

Most of the respondents were women (98%) working in a regular employment relationship (80%). Their mean age was 42 years ($SD = 10.8$), and the average amount of time that they had worked in the daycare center was eight years ($SD = 6.9$). The most typical occupations were nanny (50%) and kindergarten teacher (33%). The size of the daycare centers ranged from 7 to 21 employees ($M = 14.7$). The leader of the center served as the immediate supervisor for all the respondents.

Essay III, Study 1. The first study of the third essay is a cross-sectional survey. The data for it was gathered from a big Finnish construction company. The sample consisted of 1,186 employees, and 288 responses were received (24% response rate). The respondents worked in eight different locations. Most of them were men (84%). Their ages ranged from 22 to 64 years ($M = 45$ years, $SD = 8.8$) and the average tenure in the company was 10 years ($SD = 8.5$). The respondents worked as construction workers (38%), worksite officials (29%), office clerks (18%), and technical officials (15%).

Essay III, Study 2. The second study of the third essay is a scenario experiment. The data was gathered as part of a classroom demonstration

from forty-one undergraduate university students (15 women, 26 men; Mean age 26.1 years, SD = 6.50). The scenario was distributed in the beginning of a lecture and it took about 15 minutes to be read and filled out. Participation in the study was voluntary and participants were randomly assigned to the experimental conditions.

Essay IV, Study 1. The first study of the fourth essay is a cross-sectional survey. This study was conducted in a Finnish public bureau organization that was in the middle of a fundamental change process. The survey was sent to the entire personnel (N = 202). One hundred and four usable responses were received (51% response rate). Seventy-two percent of the respondents were women. Most of the respondents (69%) worked in an expert position, 15% in support functions (e.g., secretarial work), and 15% were in a supervisory position. The average respondent was a 44-year old woman working in an expert position.

Essay IV, Study 2. The second study of the fourth essay is a scenario experiment. The data was gathered as part of a classroom demonstration from one hundred and six undergraduate students (36 women, 70 men; Mean age 25.13 years, SD = 7.51). Participation in the study was voluntary, and participants were randomly assigned to the experimental conditions. The scenario was distributed in the beginning of a lecture, and it took about 15 minutes to be read and filled out.

The Table 2 outlines the information about the datasets used.

Table 2. Description of the data.

Study	Method	Data Source	Respondents
Essay I	Employee survey	Employees of two banking organizations that belonged to the same umbrella organization	N = 364, Response rate = 66%
Essay II	Employee-supervisor matched survey	Employees and supervisors of 30 municipal daycare centers	N = 153, Response rate = 37%
Essay III, Study 1	Employee survey	Employees of a construction company	N = 288, Response rate = 24%
Essay III, Study 2	Scenario experiment	University students	N = 41
Essay IV, Study 1	Employee survey	Employees of a public bureau organization	N = 104, Response rate = 51%
Essay IV, Study 2	Scenario experiment	University students	N = 106

In essays I, III, and IV, the cross-sectional survey data was analyzed using a moderated multiple regression approach. Essays I and III tested a two-way interaction, and article IV tested a three-way interaction (Aiken & West, 1991). The web-based macro provided by Dawson and Richter (2006) was used in drawing the slopes. In addition, analyses of variance were used in articles III and IV to analyze the data gathered from the scenario experiments. Essay II tested a moderated mediation model (Hayes, 2013; Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007), and to explore it, a bootstrapping procedure was utilized. Bootstrapping is supposed to be the most powerful method for assessing the significance of conditional indirect effects and is recommended as such (e.g., Preacher & Hayes, 2004; Preacher & Hayes, 2008; Preacher et al., 2007; Shrout & Bolger, 2002). To conduct the bootstrapping procedure, Hayes' (2013) web-based modeling tool (PROCESS, Model 12) was utilized. Importantly, Hayes' macro tool also considered the clustered nature of the data in Essay II.

3.2 Measures

3.2.1 Supervisor's informal justice

In essays I, III, and IV, supervisor's informal justice was measured with six items derived from Moorman's (1991) interactional justice scale. In addition, one item that measured the integrity of the leader's explanations in terms of his or her behavior was added to Moorman's scale. In Essay II, the scale was developed based on Moorman's (1991) interactional and procedural justice scales. In all essays, the items for supervisor's justice reflected both the quality of treatment received from the leader and the quality of his or her decision making. Elovainio, Kivimäki & Helkama (2001) have previously used the items in Finnish, and their translations were taken advantage of. In all studies, the items focused on the immediate supervisor as the source of justice. A full list of items used can also be found in essays II and IV.

It should be noted that in the first essay, the supervisor's fairness is referred to as informal justice, in line with Blader and Tyler's (2003) four-component model of procedural justice. Instead, in essays III and IV, the same justice items are referred to as *interactional justice*. In Essay II, for its part, supervisory justice is referred to with the term *procedural justice*, as the justice measure is developed from Moorman's (1991) procedural and interactional justice scales. This incoherent use of constructs reflects the consequences of the field's disagreement on scope and content of procedural justice and the distinctiveness of procedural and interactional

forms of justice (see Section 1.1 on page 12). Importantly, in all essays the fairness of the supervisor reflects both aspects of interactional and procedural justice (Colquitt et al., 2005).

3.2.2 Leader in-group prototypicality

The relative in-group prototypicality of the supervisor was measured with five (Essay I), four (essays III and IV), and three (Essay II) items from Platow & van Knippenberg's (2001) scale. The items were translated into Finnish for the essays presented in this dissertation by using the translation/back-translation method (Brislin, 1970). The full list of items used is represented in essays II, III, and IV.

3.2.3 Organizational procedural justice

Organizational procedural justice was measured with five items derived from a previous procedural justice scale by Moorman (1991). Elovainio and his colleagues (2001) have applied the same items in Finnish, and their translations were used. The items reflected the four aspects of fair procedures suggested by Leventhal (1980): accuracy of information, correctability, consistency, and representativeness in the decision-making process. The full list of items is represented in Essay IV.

3.2.4 Identification

Identification with the work group was assessed using four items from Mael & Ashforth's (1992) organizational identification scale. Lipponen, Helkama & Juslin (2003) have used the same items in Finnish, and their translations were used. The full list of items can be seen in Essay II.

3.2.5 Pride and Respect

Pride was conceptualized as a subjective judgment of the status of the working group (Tyler & Blader, 2000; Tyler et al., 1996), and it was measured by using four items from Tyler & Blader's (2000) study. The exact items were: "I feel proud to be working in this particular work group", "I tell my friends that the group I work with is a good group to work with", "I cannot think of another group in which I would rather work", "I am embarrassed to tell others that I work in this group" (reverse scored).

Respect was conceptualized as the perceived judgment of an inclusion or standing within a working group (Lind, 2001), and it was measured by using six (Essay I) and four (Essay II) items from Tyler & Blader's (2000) study. The exact items in Essay I were: "Others in my work group…" "respect the work I do", "disapprove of how I do my job" (reverse scored),

"value me as a member of my work group", "respect my ideas", "value what I contribute at work", "think it would be difficult to replace me." The full list of items used in Essay II can be found in it.

Lipponen, Olkkonen & Myyry (2004) translated Tyler and Blader's pride and respect scales into Finnish for their study. The items that had been translated and tested were used here.

3.2.6 Extra-role behavior (supervisor rated)

Extra-role behavior was measured using five items derived from existing scales for extra-role behavior developed by O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) and Tyler and Blader (2000). Olkkonen and Lipponen (2006) have previously used the same items in Finnish, and their translations were utilized here. The used items considered extra-role behavior especially at the group-level and were adapted to fit the Finnish culture. Extra-role behavior was rated by the supervisors. Supervisors were asked to rate on a scale ranging from 1 *(never)* to 5 *(always)* how often employees do the following: "Volunteer to do things that are not required to help the (name of the organization)"; "Volunteer to help orient new employees, even when it is not required"; "Volunteer to help others when they have heavy workloads"; "Make suggestions for developing the (name of the organization)"; "Tell their colleagues ideas about improving and developing the way of working in the (name of the organization)."

3.2.7 Uncertainty and threat

The experienced uncertainty was viewed to reflect the individual group members' uncertainty about themselves and their coping in the in-group. In Essay III, two different measures were used to capture the experiences of uncertainty. In Study 1, uncertainty was measured with three items that were developed based on Skinner and Brewer's (2002) threat-appraisal scale. Instead, in Study 2, uncertainty was measured with three items from the threat scale developed by Bardi et al. (2009). The exact items can be found in Essay III.

In Essay IV, experienced threat was measured by three items derived from the same scale of Bardi and colleagues (2009) as the uncertainty measures. In this essay, we chose three items from the scale that directly focused on measuring how threatening individual respondents viewed the ongoing change process. The exact items can be found in Essay IV.

4. Overview of results

In this section, I briefly introduce the main results of each dissertation essay. Detailed information on the basic statistics (for instance, reliabilities and correlations) are presented in the original essays.

4.1 Essay I

Essay I empirically evidenced the pivotal assumption of the group value model (Lind & Tyler, 1988) and the relational model of authority (Tyler & Lind, 1992): supervisor's informal justice influences group members' judgments of pride and respect, particularly strongly when the leader represents the group as an in-group prototype. Hence, the results offered strong support for Hypothesis 1. As it comes to group members' feelings of respect, the results were even stronger than expected: when the supervisor was not in-group prototypical, his or her fairness had no effect on group members' feelings of respect. Instead, supervisor's fair treatment and decision making was related to respect *only* when he or she was in-group prototypical. Figures 3 and 4 present the results of Essay I.
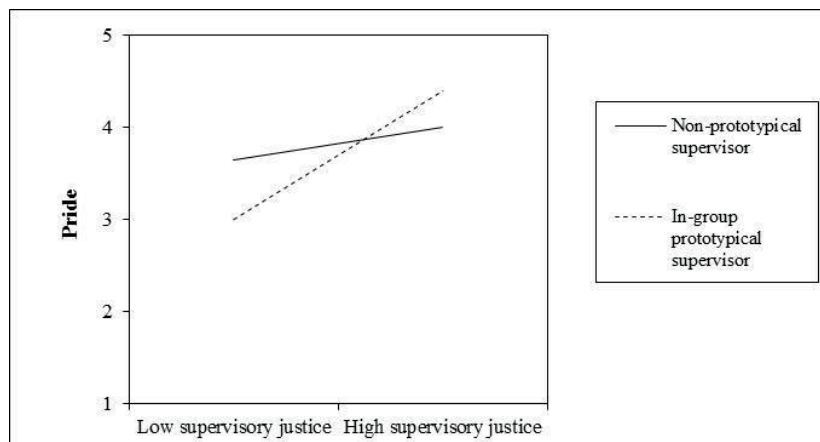
Figure 3. Pride as a function of supervisor's informal justice for non-prototypical and in-group prototypical leaders (Lipponen et al., 2005).
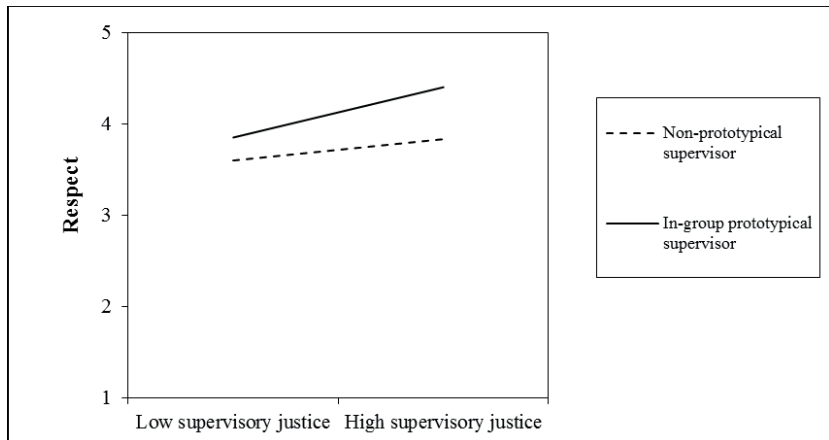
Figure 4. Respect as a function of supervisor's informal justice for non-prototypical and in-group prototypical leaders (Lipponen et al., 2005).

4.2 Essay II

Essay II extended the findings of the first essay in two ways: (1) by showing that the moderating role of leader in-group prototypicality in the relationship between supervisor's informal justice and respect is contingent upon group members' identification with the in-group, and (2) by showing that this three-way interaction also affects the mediated relationship between supervisor's justice and group members' extra-role behaviors via feelings of respect. In other words, it demonstrated that, in line with the presumptions of the group value model and the relational model of authority, both leader in-group prototypicality and identification are required for supervisor's fair treatment and decision making to have an effect on respect (Fig. 5), and further, to extra-role behaviors via feelings of respect. These findings lend support for hypotheses 2 and 3.
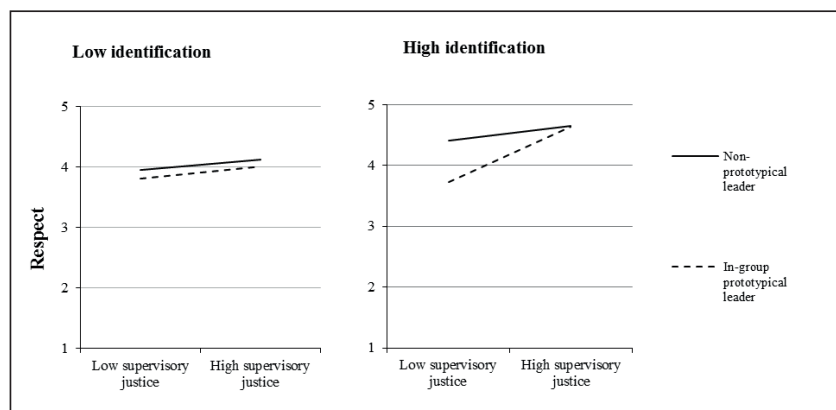
Figure 5. The three-way interaction of supervisor's informal justice, leader in-group prototypicality and identification in predicting respect (Koivisto & Lipponen, 2013a).

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4.3   Essay III

Essay III consisted of two different studies, a cross-sectional field survey (Study 1) and a scenario experiment (Study 2). Both studies consistently demonstrated that *only* in-group prototypical supervisor's informal justice decreases the group members' uncertainty about themselves and their coping in the in-group (figures 6 and 7). Thus, Hypothesis 4 was supported. Actually, again, the findings were even stronger than expected: it was also expected that non-prototypical leader's fairness would have an effect, although smaller than the prototypical leader's, on group members' feelings of uncertainty.

Essay III also indicated that leader in-group prototypicality may be a particularly strong moderator in the relationship between low supervisor's justice and group members' experiences. In both of the studies, the difference between in-group prototypical and non-prototypical leader's low justice was greater than it was for high justice.
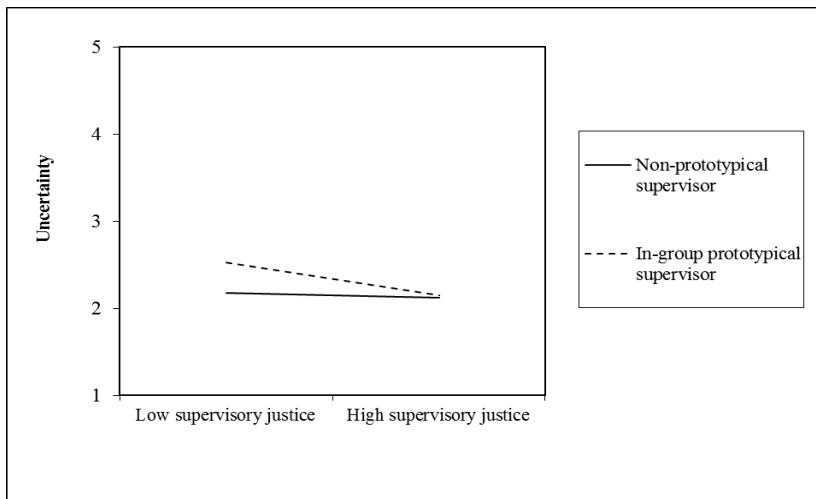
Figure 6. The two-way interaction of supervisor's informal justice and leader in-group prototypicality in predicting experienced uncertainty (Study 1) (Koivisto & Lipponen, 2013b).
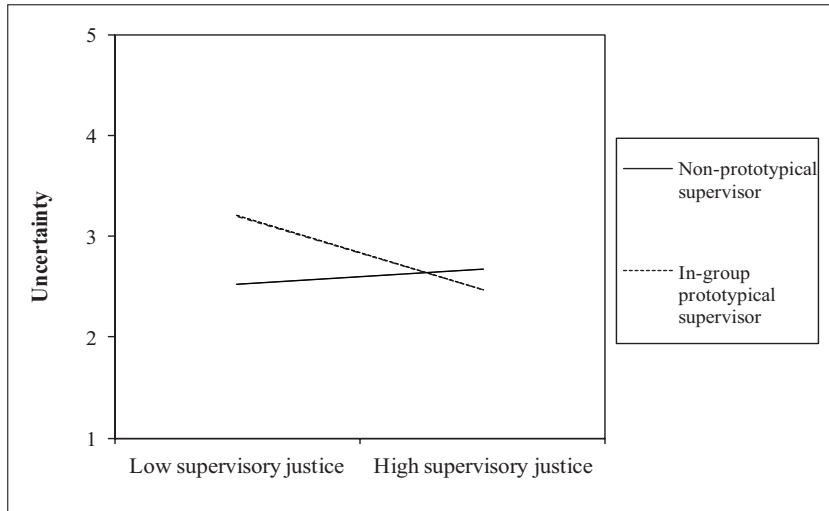
Figure 7. The two-way interaction of supervisor's informal justice and leader in-group prototypicality in predicting experienced self-related uncertainty (Study 2) (Koivisto & Lipponen, 2013b).

4.4 Essay IV

Essay IV further extended the ideas of essays I and III by considering the interactive effects of group supervisor's informal justice and organizational procedural justice. The context of the study was a fundamental organizational change. Essay IV consisted of two studies, a cross-sectional field survey (Study 1), and a scenario experiment (Study 2).

Essentially, Essay IV showed that there is a two-way interaction between supervisor's informal justice and organizational procedural justice in relation to employees' experiences of threat *only* when the leader represents the in-group as a person. More precisely, Essay IV pointed out that the employees' feelings of threat are effectively decreased when the in-group prototypical supervisor treats employees fairly *and* organizational procedures are fair.

Interestingly, Essay IV also indicated that neither high supervisory nor high organizational justice alone is able to protect group members in a situation in which group members receive low justice from either of these. High interactional justice of an in-group representative supervisor was not able to protect group members from the negative effects of low procedural justice of an organization, and accordingly, high procedural justice of an organization did not buffer group members from the low interactional justice of an in-group representative supervisor. These findings are in line with Hypothesis 5 and are presented in figures 8 and 9.
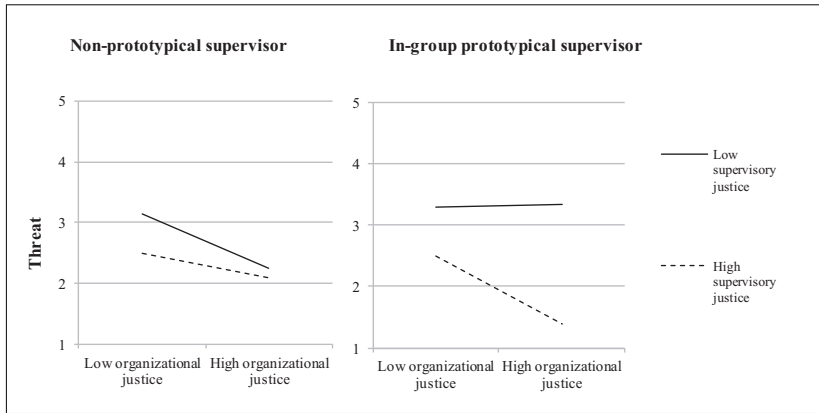
Figure 8. The three-way interaction of organizational justice, supervisor's justice and leader in-group prototypicality in predicting threat (Study 1) (Koivisto, Lipponen, & Platow, in press).
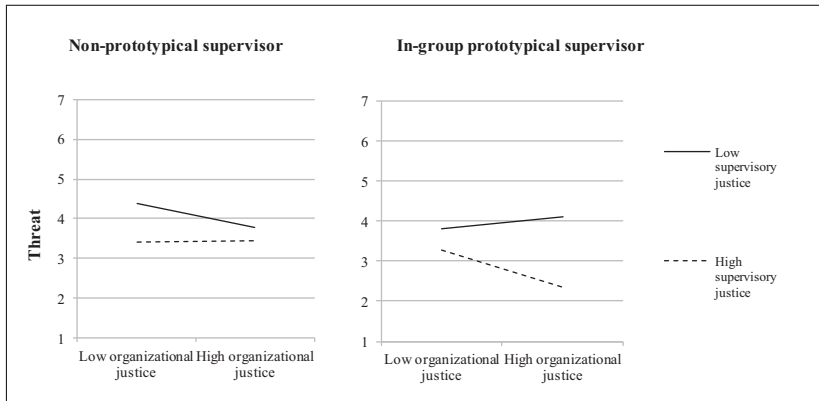
Figure 9. The three-way interaction of organizational justice, supervisor's justice and leader in-group prototypicality in predicting threat (Study 2) (Koivisto et al., in press).

4.5   Summary of the results

Figure 10 summarizes the main findings of the present dissertation. In conclusion, the findings confirm that *fair treatment and decision making of an immediate group supervisor really matters at the workplace* (e.g., van Knippenberg et al., 2007; Tyler & De Cremer, 2005). Importantly, however, they indicate that immediate supervisor's informal justice affects group members' identity-related inferences and consequent behavior most powerfully or even only *when the leader is viewed to embody the essence of the salient in-group.* Further, the results imply that *in-group prototypical supervisor's informal justice statistically interacts with organizational procedural justice in relation to members' identity-related inferences:* organizational justice effectively decreases group members' feelings of

threat merely when an in-group prototypical supervisor treats employees fairly.
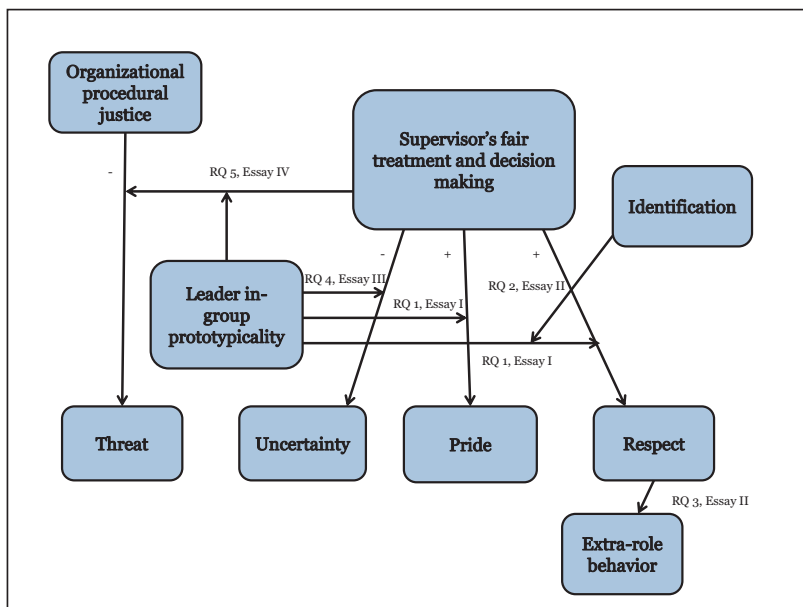
Figure 10. Summary of the results of this dissertation.

Next, I turn to discussing the theoretical and practical implications as well as limitations of the present research. At the same time, I consider some possible new directions for future research since one of the most important contributions of the present dissertation is setting out fresh avenues for upcoming research.

5. Discussion

5.1 Supervisor's justice and leader in-group prototypicality

Essay I (RQ 1) focused on exploring the basic ideas of the group value model and the relational model of authority; whether the relationship between supervisor's informal justice and pride and respect is contingent upon the extent the supervisor is in-group representative. Essay III (RQ 4) extended these ideas by explaining group members' feelings of self-related uncertainty with supervisor's fair treatment and decision making. In line with the assumptions of the relational models of procedural justice, in these essays it was evidenced that in-group prototypical rather than non-prototypical supervisor's informal justice legitimately affects group members' feelings of pride and respect on the one hand, and self-related uncertainty on the other hand.

Essay I made an important contribution by theoretically clarifying and empirically evidencing the group value model's and the relational model of authority's pivotal assumption about group leader's in-group representativeness (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler & Lind, 1992). That is, to my knowledge, Essay I was the first published study to show that the group value model's and the relational model of authority's assumption of group authority as a group representative could be conceptualized and measured with the social identity approach's concept leader in-group prototypicality. Prior to Essay I, the representativeness of the group authority had been conceptualized with in-group membership (Smith et al., 1998). However, as was noted earlier, restricting representativeness to in-group membership is problematic and does not fully reflect the original ideas of the group value model and the relational model of authority: in-group membership is not equivalent to in-group representativeness because some in-group authorities are probably more representative than others. Therefore, Essay I has academic novelty because it defines, operationalizes, and measures representativeness independently of in-group membership.

Essay III, for its part, confirmed the ideas first represented in Essay I. During the years between the first and third essay, a few empirical studies

had also established the stature of leader in-group prototypicality as a moderator of supervisor's fair treatment and decision making, for example, in relation to group members' cooperation (De Cremer et al., 2010b), leader endorsement (Ullrich et al., 2009), and trust in co-workers (Seppälä et al., 2012). However, empirical research had not applied the idea to group members' feelings of uncertainty. In addition, more research on leader in-group prototypicality as a moderator of supervisor's justice was clearly needed – and the need evolved from two distinct sources: SIMOL and organizational justice research. That is, first the researchers of SIMOL criticized the discipline's understanding of leader in-group prototypicality in influencing followers' perceptions in the in-group context as being deficient, and hence called for more empirical research on the subject (van Knippenberg, 2011). Secondly, the organizational justice research was confounded by the rather inconclusive findings on the moderating effect of leader in-group prototypicality (see Section 1.2.1, p. 15). In some studies, leader in-group prototypicality allowed a leader to be less fair, or even unfair, without negative consequences (e.g., Ullrich et al., 2009), whereas in other studies, it increased the group members' sensitivity to fairness (De Cremer et al., 2010b; Lipponen et al., 2005; Seppälä et al., 2012).

Set in this context, Essay III made a contribution both to the tradition of SIMOL as well as organizational justice, particularly the group value model and the relational model of authority. First, for SIMOL, it increased the discipline's understanding of how leader in-group prototypicality affects the followers' perceptions in the in-group context. It shows that in-group prototypical supervisor's fair treatment and decision making convey to the group members an identity-relevant message that affects their experiences of uncertainty about themselves, particularly about their abilities to cope and succeed in the in-group. Specifically, then, it emphasizes that a supervisor's power to affect the group members' inferences with fair treatment is rather limited, or even ineffective, unless the leader is in-group prototypical. Second, for organizational justice research, Essay III participates in the discussion on the possible different moderating effects of leader in-group prototypicality on the outcomes for justice. In line with the propositions of the relational models of procedural justice and the findings of Essay I, it indicates that in-group prototypicality accentuates rather than decreases the *identity-related* effects of supervisor's informal justice (De Cremer et al., 2010b; Lipponen et al., 2005; Seppälä et al., 2012, cf. Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2003; Platow & van Knippenberg, 2001; Ullrich et al., 2009; van Dijke & De Cremer, 2008, 2010). Hence, the results owe partial support for the idea that leader in-group prototypicality moderates the

relation between supervisor's justice and leader-related or self-related outcomes differently (De Cremer et al., 2010b). Nevertheless, clearly, empirical research that examines both leader- and identity-related outcomes in a single study is still needed.

5.2 Supervisor's justice, leader in-group prototypicality and group members' identification

Essay II (RQ 2) added to the findings of essays I and III by showing that the moderating power of leader in-group prototypicality in the relationship between supervisor's informal justice and identity-related inferences such as respect is contingent upon group members' identification. This finding empirically confirms the basic assumptions of the group value model and the relational model of authority and also supports the ideas of the social identity approach. In-group prototypicality of the leader becomes important for the cognitions of the in-group members when they identify with the in-group (e.g., Hains et al., 1997; Hogg et al., 1998; Platow & van Knippenberg, 2001; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003).

The finding also broadens the research done within the framework of the relational justice models to better consider the dynamic nature of the types of interactions in which justice perceptions occur (see, e.g., Cornelis, van Hiel, & De Cremer, 2011; van Knippenberg et al., 2007; van Knippenberg & De Cremer, 2008). For example, Cornelis and her colleagues (2011) have criticized organizational justice research for neglecting the fact that leader's justice takes place in a context in which both the leader's and the followers' characteristics and behaviors are present – not only those of the leader, that is, for example, the supervisor's in-group prototypicality. Instead, supervisor's justice effects are likely to emerge in dynamic interaction between leaders and followers and, thus, the individual traits, needs, values and motives of both of these sides influence the process.

5.3 Supervisor's justice and extra-role behavior

Importantly, Essay II (RQ 3) also showed that the interaction of leader in-group prototypicality and identification extends to affect the mediated relationship between supervisor's informal justice and group members' extra-role behavior via feelings of respect (Blader & Tyler, 2009; Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003). This finding is important for two reasons. First, it provides a stringent test for the assumptions of the group value model and the relational model of authority. And secondly, it integrates the assumptions of these models more firmly in the group engagement model. Even though the group engagement model principally builds on two

anterior group-oriented conceptualizations of justice, that is, the group value model and the relational model of authority (e.g., Colquitt et al., 2005), it has not explicitly specified whether there are any factors moderating its processes. In other words, the idea of the three-way interaction of justice, identification, and leader in-group prototypicality is new to the group engagement model, even though it is one of the most fundamental assumptions of other relational models of procedural justice. For my knowledge, Essay II is the first paper to apply these assumptions of other relational models of procedural justice to the group engagement model. By doing so, it offers new perspectives for the group engagement model.

Essay II also draws attention to the recent developments within the group engagement model. That is, as was presented earlier (Section 1.3, p. 21), Blader and Tyler (2009) recently modified the model by including feelings of respect and pride within a multidimensional conceptualization of identification. This new version of the model is more compact and, as such, more economical, and it very concisely presents the general idea of the group engagement model. However, at the same time, it overlooks the complex dynamics between justice, pride, respect, and identification by concealing the presumed causal and moderating relationships between these variables. It is possible to argue that by doing so, it also loses one of the most central insights of the relational justice models. Unfortunately, Blader and Tyler (2009) do not explicitly compare the revised model to the original one or present any ideas about whether the two models should be seen merely as complementary or as mutually exclusive. In the light of the findings in Essay II, the two versions of the model should be seen as complementary.

Indeed, the findings show that exploring the complex and dynamic relationships between justice, respect, pride and identification should not be forgotten. On the contrary, the present research highlights that, for the conceptual and empirical development of organizational justice research, it is essentially important that the group value model, the relational model of authority, and the group engagement model reconcile their inconsistent views concerning the role of identification in their processes. Then, it may be that identification both moderates (as the relational models of procedural justice present) and mediates (as the group engagement model presents) the justice processes.

This reconciliation is important also for the integration of the relational models of procedural justice with the SIMOL, especially the literature on

leader in-group prototypicality. Namely, particularly if leader in-group prototypicality is viewed as a proactive process (e.g., Hogg, 2001; Hogg & Terry, 2000), that is, a prototypical leader is perceived as able to mold and reinforce the group identity and emphasize or establish his or her in-group prototypicality, it is imperative that the group-oriented conceptualizations of justice consistently state their stance in the role of identification in their models. Originally, the group engagement model suggests that fair treatment and decision making affect group members' feelings of respect, which further lead to identification and, finally, to extra-role behavior (Tyler & Blader, 2001, 2002, 2003). Instead, other relational models (Lind & Tyler, 1989; Tyler & Lind, 1992) state that identification emphasizes the importance of justice to group members' inferences. In the present study, the full model that would be based on both of these models was not investigated because the research design did not allow the measurement of identification at two different points in time. However, because of a group prototypical leaders' ability to proactively mold the identification process (Haslam et al., 2011; Hogg et al., 1998), it would be important for future research to explore the temporal changes in identification with the help of a moderated mediation model in which identification is also included as a mediator.

5.4 Organizational justice, supervisor's justice and leader in-group prototypicality

Essay IV (RQ 5) principally showed that leader in-group prototypicality also plays a critical role in the larger organizational context than previous research has theoretically or empirically presented. It extended the prior research by pointing out that the interaction between organizational and supervisor's justice is statistically significant when explaining group members' feelings of threat only when the leader is in-group prototypical.

This finding is interesting because it integrates the ideas of the group value model and the relational model of authority, the multi-foci justice approach and SIMOL, and in this way broadens the group value model and the relational model of authority to wider organizational context. This kind of extension further develops the relational justice models to better reflect the organizational reality in which employees experience fairness (Cropanzano et al., 2004; Hollensbe et al., 2008; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002; Treviño & Bies, 1997). Prior to Essay IV, no research had attempted to show how the assumed interaction between supervisor's justice and leader in-group prototypicality relates to the procedural justice of an organization. Examining this is important, however, as both organizations and

supervisors are viewed as independent social actors capable of justice or injustice (Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002; Cropanzano et al., 2004), and supervisors do not act in a void but are in close interaction with the larger organizational context.

Importantly, the findings in Essay IV are also important for the development of ideas presented by multifoci justice research (e.g., Cropanzano et al., 2004; Hollensbe et al., 2008; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002; Treviño & Bies, 1997). Prior to Essay IV, empirical research on the area had mostly studied the interactions between organizational distributive injustice and supervisory interactional or procedural justice (e.g., Greenberg, 2006; Seifert et al., 2010) and there was only one study focusing on the interaction between organizational procedural justice and supervisor's fair treatment and decision making (Luo, 2007). Thus, our research provides new empirical evidence on the dynamics between organizational procedural justice and supervisory informal justice, and extends Luo's work in a theoretically sound way based on self-categorization analyses of leadership (e.g., Haslam et al., 2011). It supports the idea that justice sources have multiplicative effects by showing that the employees' feelings of threat can be effectively decreased when both supervisory justice and organizational justice are high, but *only* when the leader embodies or represents the in-group.

5.5 Limitations and some considerations for future directions

As all research, this dissertation has its limitations. Thus, it is important to critically evaluate the credibility of the findings in terms of reliability, construct validity, as well as internal and external validity (Kidder & Judd, 1986). Next, the findings of this dissertation are critically evaluated and some avenues for future research are presented.

5.5.1 Reliability of the measures

In terms of reliability, the present research can be criticized for the fact that all items of the original scales (for example for leader in-group prototypicality, threat, uncertainty, pride, and respect) were not included in all studies. Of course, it could have been better to use the complete validated scales to measure employees' inferences instead of only parts of these. The decision about which items to include was based on an evaluation of which items best fit each respective research context and best described the phenomenon of interest here (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). In addition, the organizations that participated in the present

research had very stringent demands for the length of the surveys and, hence, it was necessary to choose only some items of each scale for each study.

Nevertheless, all measures that were used in the present research can be considered as reliable; their reliability was evaluated by calculating their internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha). Cronbach's alpha is a commonly used estimate of reliability in social sciences. In the present research, most of the measures were at the excellent or good level and all measures were at the acceptable level of internal consistency.

5.5.2 Construct validity

Construct validity refers to the extent the used operationalizations legitimately reflect the theoretical constructs of this dissertation (Calder, Phillips, & Tybout, 1982). Here I concentrate merely on examining the construct validity of the two most central concepts of this dissertation: supervisor's informal justice and leader in-group prototypicality.

Supervisor's informal justice

In the present research, supervisor's informal justice, or the quality of interpersonal treatment and decision making, was operationalized with Moorman's interactional and procedural justice scales. In essays I, III, and IV, Moorman's complete interactional justice scale was used in addition to one item that reflected the integrity of leader's explanations in terms of his or her behavior. In Essay I, this measure was referred to as informal justice, and in Essays III and IV as interactional justice. In Essay II, a measure reflecting supervisor's informal justice was developed by combining items from Moorman's interactional and procedural justice scales. This measure was referred to as procedural justice in Essay II.

Despite the rather confusing use of different terms in the original essays, all essays conceptualize leader's justice as including both components of interactional and procedural justice, and thus, the term 'informal justice' best describes this conceptualization. Moorman's interactional justice scale (also combined with items from the procedural justice scale) can be considered as a legitimate way to operationalize supervisor's informal justice; even though it, as a term, refers only to interactional justice, it actually operationalizes both interactional and procedural aspects of supervisor's justice (see, e.g., Colquitt et al., 2001; Colquitt et al., 2005). More precisely, if interactional justice is defined in the way Bies and Moag (1986) originally defined it, it is thought to be governed by four rules:

(1) *truthfulness* (open, honest communication), (2) *justification* (adequate explanations for the decisions), (3) *respect* (treating individuals with sincerity and dignity), and (4) *propriety* (refraining from prejudicial statements and improper questions). Moorman's interactional justice scale refers to these rules, but in addition, it also includes items that tap *representativeness* ("Your supervisor considered your viewpoint") and *bias suppression* ("Your supervisor was able to suppress personal biases") – that is, two consequential rules of procedural justice (Leventhal, 1980). As such, it is technically too broad a measure to reflect only quality of interpersonal treatment of the supervisor, but instead it better reflects Blader and Tyler's (2003) concept of informal justice. Of course, in light of current understanding on the conceptual distinctiveness of procedural and interactional aspects of justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001), Moorman's interactional justice scale can be criticized for conflating procedural and interactional aspects of justice (e.g., Scarlicki & Latham, 1997). Nevertheless, it can be claimed to legitimately reflect the theoretical construct of informal justice.

Leader in-group prototypicality

It is possible to criticize the present research's decision to utilize the leader in-group prototypicality measure (Platow & van Knippenberg, 2001) to operationalize leader in-group representativeness and, hence, use in-group representativeness as a synonym for leader in-group prototypicality. That is, as the group-oriented conceptualizations of justice (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Smith et al., 1998; Tyler & Lind, 1992; Tyler et al., 1996) have not offered any precise definitions of leader in-group representativeness, it is rather difficult to ascertain to what extent leader in-group prototypicality really overlaps with leader in-group representativeness and to what extent it does not. Consequently, the complete equivalence of in-group prototypicality and in-group representativeness may be questioned.

In addition, even though Platow and van Knippenberg's (2001) leader in-group prototypicality scale that was used in the present research is widely accepted as reflecting the extent a leader embodies the in-group, it can be criticized for two reasons. First, it only indirectly considers the inter-group context that nevertheless is a central part of the social identity approach's conceptualization of leader in-group prototypicality. Specifically, the social identity approach states that in-group prototypicality is determined by the principle of *metacontrast* (Hogg, 2001): the prototypes are formed and modified by maximizing the ratio of perceived inter-group differences to intra-group similarities; in-group prototypical person accentuates the

similarities within an in-group and differences between out-groups. This principle of metacontrast, nevertheless, does not become visible in the operationalization of leader in-group prototypicality that concentrates only on the in-group and, consequently, can be argued to inadequately consider in-group prototypicality as it is conceptualized and defined in the social identity theory: an actively constructed relative characteristic of an individual in a certain inter-group context (Haslam, 2001; Haslam et al., 1995; Hogg, 2001; Hogg & Terry, 2000; Turner et al., 1994; Turner & Haslam, 2001).

Second, the measure of leader in-group prototypicality does not differentiate between different kinds of similarities and diversities that possibly affect the in-group prototypicality of a person. Instead, it considers all potential group-defining factors as equally important. Also, social identity theory is generally rather ambiguous in explaining whether all similarities and diversities between in-group and out-group members are as important for the principle of metacontrast – it is merely suggested that each specific inter-group situation defines the criteria that group members use to define the in-group prototype (e.g., Hogg & Terry, 2000). Nevertheless, Phillips and Lloyd (2006) state that there are different kinds of similarities and diversities that group members use to categorize fellow group members: (1) surface-level, which refers to social categories such as gender, education, and nationality, and (2) a deep level that describes the similarity or diversity of attitudes, opinions, information, and values. Furthermore, Phillips and Lloyd state that these two levels of diversity and similarity have differing impacts on the emotional and behavioral reactions of group members. Thus, it could plausibly be argued that they also influence the principle of metacontrast, and hence influence the formation of leader in-group prototypicality differently. Consequently, it would probably be important to consider different kinds of similarities and diversities in the operationalization of the concept. Presently, it is not known whether they have the same kind of significance in the process of metacontrast.

In addition to the above-mentioned critiques, there now seems to be some inconsistency in the way leader in-group prototypicality is operationalized and manipulated in different studies. This could be seen as implying that scholars in the field currently do not completely agree on the content of leader in-group prototypicality. Traditionally, leader in-group prototypica-lity has been seen as purely reflecting a leader's ability to represent the group and exemplify group normative behavior (Hogg, 2001; Platow & van Knippenberg, 2001). However, more recently, researchers in the field have

highlighted that in-group prototypical leaders not only represent their in-group but also behave in a positive group-serving manner (e.g., Haslam et al., 2011). In accordance with these ideas, in the present research (essays III and IV) and in some other studies, leader in-group prototypicality has been manipulated as not only capturing the prototypical leader's group representativeness but also including aspects such as collaborating with the team (Cicero et al., 2008; Pierro, Cicero, & Higgins, 2009) or feeling oneself at home in the team (van Dijke & De Cremer, 2008). Both of these operationalizations are used to reflect leader in-group prototypicality even though they significantly differ from each other. Thus, it is clear that future research should thoroughly discuss the conceptualization of leader in-group prototypicality. It should discuss what it is and what it is not; and based on this discussion, it should draw more attention to the consistency of the operationalizations used. This discussion should also consider how existing measures could be improved so that they also pay attention to the inter-group context (e.g., Haslam, 2001; Hogg & Terry, 2000) and the different kinds of similarities and diversities that possibly define in-group prototypicality in each specific context (Phillips & Lloyd, 2006).

5.5.3 Internal validity

Internal validity reflects the extent to which a causal conclusion based on a study is warranted (Calder et al., 1982; Clark & Middleton, 2010). In this dissertation, the causal relationships can be reliably established only for the findings of essays III and IV, for these findings rely, in addition to cross-sectional survey data, on scenario experiments that allow for strong internal validity and control. Essays I and II rely purely on correlational data, and thus it is impossible to ascertain the causal relationships that were assumed in these studies. Some support for the causality in Essay II is provided, however, because the outcome variable, extra-role behavior, was assessed by the supervisors two to three weeks after the employee surveys in which explanatory and moderating effects were inquired.

Interestingly, it can be argued that the causal order of the studied variables could also be different than the findings of the present dissertation indicate. For example, there is both theoretical and empirical evidence showing that employees high in organizational identification view prototypical supervisors as fair and, consequently, think higher of their own status in the organization (van Dijke & De Cremer, 2008). In addition, it has been shown that fair treatment of the supervisor leads to stronger identification via feelings of respect (Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2003). Moreover, empirical evidence suggests that feelings of uncertainty moderate the effects of

supervisor's fair treatment such that its effects are accentuated in a situation that is considered to be uncertain (De Cremer, Brebels, & Sedikides, 2008; De Cremer et al., 2010a; De Cremer & Sedikides, 2005; Lind & van den Bos, 2002; van den Bos, 2001; van den Bos & Lind, 2002).

These findings clearly show that the processes of supervisor's justice are rather complex. Even though this dissertation brings forward one important perspective that helps us to better understand its dynamics, there inevitably are also other possible viewpoints to the multifold relationships between leader in-group prototypicality, supervisor's justice, identification, group members' inferences of standing, and feelings of threat and uncertainty. Hence, studying the temporal dynamics as well as moderating effects between these variables by means of longitudinal research would be essentially important.

This kind of research would also benefit the recently aroused discussion about the bi-directional causalities between justice and individual experiences and inferences (Barsky & Kaplan, 2007). That is, based on the traditional *cold view of justice*, in the present research, employees' feelings of threat, uncertainty, pride, and respect were viewed as consequences of perceived fairness. Perceptions were considered as cognitive responses to specific practices, and thus they were seen to reflect objective instances of fair or unfair treatment. The future longitudinal research could add to our knowledge on justice processes by viewing justice perceptions as emotionally laden subjective experiences (*hot view of justice*). That is, it could be argued that ultimately the affective states are likely to influence justice perceptions, and consequently even the same procedure can be perceived differently, depending on the affective state of the perceiver (e.g., Lang, Bliese, Lang, & Adler, 2011). When this idea is applied to the context of the present research, it may be that if an individual feels himself or herself respected, he or she also perceives the immediate supervisor as fair; or if an individual feels highly threatened, he or she perceives the procedures used and treatment as unfair.

5.5.4 External validity

In terms of external validity, or generalizing the findings of the present research across different measures, persons, settings, and times (Calder et al., 1982), it should be noted that the data for it was gathered from very different kinds of work organizations and employees. The data was collected from two banking organizations, 30 municipal daycare centers, a construction company, and a public bureau organization. These organizations represented different branches from both the public and

private sector and were of different sizes. In addition, their employees had very different kinds of educational and occupational backgrounds. Further confidence in the generalizability of the findings comes from the fact that two separate scenario data sets from university students confirmed the results. However, one thing that connects the employees and students of the different datasets is their nationality. Most respondents were Finnish. Nevertheless, the findings cannot be explained by Finnish culture, and thus they can be considered to be generalizable to other work organizations.

Importantly, however, it should be noted that the findings of the present dissertation apply to employees' *autonomous inferences* and consequent behavior in an *in-group context*. That is, they apply to situations in which supervisor's informal justice together with organizational procedural justice explains employees' non-comparative inferences that are related to the in-group or oneself as a member of that group. Thus, the results may not as such be applicable to the outcomes that either are comparative (e.g., how respected one feels oneself compared to other in-group members) or that reflect group members' feelings and consequent behavior about inter-group related matters in inter-group situations (e.g., how threatened one feels oneself to be in an inter-group situation).

This notion also arouses an interesting avenue for future research. Future research would benefit from examining the boundaries of leader in-group prototypicality: whether it has the power to moderate the justice of a supervisor or even the interaction of justice between the supervisor and the organization: first, in relation to comparative outcomes, and second, to outcomes that concern one's evaluations of inter-group related matters. It may be that leader in-group prototypicality does moderate the justice effects in relation to comparative judgments, even though the moderation effect may not be as strong as it is for autonomous outcomes. This idea gets some support from the relational justice models that suggest that the justice of (a group representative leader) conveys in-group members not only autonomous, non-comparative, information but also information that is linked to external comparisons (Tyler & Blader, 2002). For instance, Tyler and Blader (2002) showed that fair treatment can inform group members of their status compared to the status of fellow group members. However, based on SIMOL and the relational justice models, it may be that leader in-group prototypicality does *not* have such a strong moderating power over outcomes that concern the inter-group context (Haslam et al., 2011; Hogg, 2001; see e.g., van den Bos & Lind, 2002). This is because the in-group representative leader is viewed as an important source of in-group and identity-related information and less of a source of information that relates

to other groups (Tyler & Lind, 1992). However, as already mentioned, this idea still requires empirical support.

5.6 Practical implications

The findings of the present dissertation can be used to promote the functioning of work groups and organizations and the welfare of employees. In addition, the findings offer practical observations for organizations going through fundamental changes. Generally, the present dissertation points out that it is crucially important that the organizations consider immediate *supervisors as important sources of justice*. Moreover, because the findings show that in-group prototypical leaders' justice has the greatest influence in group members' feelings and consequent behavior, it might be important that organizations and supervisors themselves pay more attention to leader in-group prototypicality.

For instance, it may be worthwhile for organizations to consider the aspects of leader in-group prototypicality when appointing new group supervisors. Supervisors are most often appointed by higher management, and for the time being, their in-group prototypicality is rarely considered. The present dissertation suggests that the extent to which the recruits represent *core values and identity of the team* could be one criterion for selection in the recruitment process (see also De Cremer et al., 2010b; van Knippenberg, van Knippenberg, & van Dijk, 2000). However, it should be noted that leader in-group prototypicality is not a stable state; rather, it is very context-dependent and thus in constant flux (Haslam, 2001; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). Consequently, even if the recruitment process would neglect to consider the suitability of the supervisor to the identity of the working group, the newly appointed leaders, as well as long-term leaders who aspire to reinforce their prototypicality, may actively construct a group identity that highlights their own prototypicality or reduces their non-prototypicality (e.g., Haslam et al., 2011; Hogg, 2001; Hogg et al., 1998). They may construe the very meaning of "us" (relative to "them"), and place themselves (via their expressed attitudes and behaviors) at the very center of this by contrasting the in-group with specific out-groups that allow for the most favorable creation of the leaders' own in-group prototypicality (Haslam et al., 2011; Hogg, 2009). In light of these insights, the present dissertation would advise organizations to make supervisors more *aware of the importance of their in-group prototypicality* – at least to the extent that they would not try to separate themselves from the rest of the group (supervisor versus subordinates). It may also be worthwhile to

offer group supervisors *training in the positive, non-destructive ways* (see, e.g., Hogg, 2001) *to increase their own prototypicality.*

If organizations choose to strive to improve the prototypicality of the individual supervisors, *it is essentially important to remember that leader in-group prototypicality, as such, is a double-edged sword*. The present dissertation reminds us that fair prototypical leaders have the ability to induce positive consequences with their fairness: make the followers view themselves and the in-group positively, motivate the employees to go the extra mile, and experience less uncertainty or threat. On the other hand, if the prototypical leader behaves unfairly, he or she may cause severe undesired consequences: employees may feel themselves uncertain and not respected, refrain from in-group-serving voluntary behavior that is essential for the functioning of the group, consider in-group membership as not valuable, and experience changes as threatening – even if the organization-level procedures were considered fair. This is why it is particularly important to strive to improve the justice of in-group prototypical supervisors.

Indeed, the present dissertation stresses that organizations cannot afford to ignore the injustice of immediate supervisors, particularly if they represent the group identity, as its consequences are considerable. In-group prototypical supervisors have great power, and consequently, great responsibility towards their fellow in-group members who identify with the group. Thus, in order to create a positive, motivating, and supporting atmosphere in which employees can thrive, the organizations *should invest in training immediate team supervisors in fairness of interpersonal treatment and decision making*. It is plausible that training in fairness would be a suitable means to tackle injustice in the workplace: prior research shows that it successfully improves the perceived fairness and desired behaviors of trained supervisors (e.g., Cole & Latham, 1997). However, organizations rarely have the resources to offer training to all supervisors at all organizational hierarchical levels. This dissertation shows that this may not even be necessary because targeting justice training particularly for in-group prototypical leaders would help organizations to better buffer group members from harmful self- and group-related consequences. Nevertheless, it is important to note that selecting leaders to justice training on the strength of their prototypicality may be perceived as unfair by those who are not in-group prototypical. In addition, justice training for non-prototypical supervisors is inevitably important because even though their justice may not influence group members' identity-

related consequences, it is very likely still relevant for employees, the leaders themselves, and the organizations in general.

Investments in immediate supervisors' justice may be particularly important during situations of organizational change. As Essay IV indicates, in-group prototypical supervisor's justice possibly benefits the success of the change process through decreasing employees' feelings of threat (e.g., Fugate et al., 2012; Jones, Jimmieson, & Griffiths, 2005; Smith, 2003). Then, the justice of a group prototypical immediate supervisor can be seen as a very powerful tool, which may be used either positively to promote the organizational change and the welfare of the employees, or negatively to hamper change and increase the threat that change often triggers. Importantly, then, paying attention to in-group prototypical supervisors' justice, in addition to organizational justice, would help organizations to support the change process, on the one hand, and help employees to better cope with the change, on the other hand.

It should be noted, however, that in addition to investing in supervisory and organizational fairness at the workplace, organizations also need to do more in order to actually promote successful change. Indeed, a successful change process requires more than just fairness. It demands envisioning, inspiring, and motivating, and hence calls for leadership with the capacity to convince and energize others to contribute to processes that bring about the change and turn visions and plans into reality (Haslam et al., 2011; Reicher, Haslam, & Hopkins, 2005; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). Thus, importantly, from a practical point of view, the present research hints that the extent to which a leader is viewed as a person who represents the in-group may be key to also making this kind of positive influence during change. Namely, it indicates that group leaders gain some of their influence simply by being prototypical members of a group. Then the leaders do not necessarily need to have any superb charismatic characteristics or skills (e.g., Carmeli & Tishler, 2006; Groves, 2006; Hogg, 2001; Platow et al., 2006) to effectively lead the group in the middle of changes. Instead, a group member who best represents the values, attitudes, norms, beliefs, standards, and manners of the group (that is, is a prototypical in-group member) has a significant ability to affect the way his or her fellow group members view the change, and consequently, react to it (van Knippenberg & Wilke, 1992): if prototypical leaders will, they may sell the employees the vision that advances the change, or alternatively, they may also severely hamper the change by developing a vision that contradicts the publicly expressed one. Furthermore, they have the power to affect in-group members' identity in selling the vision so deeply that the fellow group

members come to see the mission as their own (Haslam et al., 2011; Reicher et al., 2005). This kind of power endures even in the absence of a leader and is a lot stronger than the motivation originating from externally imposed incentives or threats. It also effectively energizes employees into turning the supervisor's vision into reality (Haslam et al., 2011; Reicher et al., 2005; Subašić, Reynolds, Turner, Veenstra, & Haslam, 2011).

5.7 Conclusions

To conclude, the present research contributes to the tradition of organizational justice by integrating it with recent developments in the leadership literature. Importantly, it shows that the immediate supervisor's fair treatment and decision making really make a difference in the workplace, particularly when the supervisor embodies the salient in-group. Further, it shows that in-group prototypical supervisor's informal justice statistically interacts with organizational procedural justice to affect group members.

These findings are important for the development of organizational justice research; they clearly show how essential it is to examine supervisor's fairness in the light of leadership (De Cremer, 2006; De Cremer & Den Ouden, 2009; Tyler & De Cremer, 2005; van Knippenberg et al., 2007; van Knippenberg & De Cremer, 2008) – particularly leadership that is perceived as a dynamic group process in which the leader's capacity to influence his or her group is determined by the context of their collective relationship (Haslam et al., 2011; Hogg, 2001; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). This kind of firmer integration of traditions of organizational justice and leadership opens new interesting avenues that help us to better understand the psychology of supervisor's justice in the organizational context.

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This thesis takes a step towards a deeper understanding of the psychology of immediate supervisor's interactional and procedural justice. First, it explores how the key elements of leadership suggested by the recently developed *social identity model of organizational leadership* affect the justice processes, and second, it examines the dynamics of supervisor's fairness in the context of organizational justice. The findings of the thesis show that immediate group supervisor's fair treatment and decision making significantly affect group members' attitudes and behavior - this kind of justice even moderates the effects of justice information derived from the upper-levels of the organization. Importantly, however, the findings indicate that supervisor's justice affects group members' identity-related inferences and consequent behavior most powerfully or even only when the leader represents the identity of a salient in-group. The thesis discusses the theoretical and practical implications of these findings.

BUSINESS +
ECONOMY

ART +
DESIGN +
ARCHITECTURE

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TECHNOLOGY

CROSSOVER

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