WHO IS THE FAIREST OF THEM ALL: THE DEVELOPMENT AND VALIDATION OF THE JUST LEADER MEASURE

by

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Presented to the Graduate School of

The University of Texas at Arlington in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements

for the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT ARLINGTON

May 2017

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ACKNOWLEDMENTS

The completion of this research would not have been possible without the patience, guidance, and inspiration of Dr. Angela Liegey Dougall. You have been a mentor on every level- providing me with a core foundation of methodological statistics, stepping in as my advisor through a tough transition, patiently supporting me through the loss of my mother, supporting my need to balance career and education, inspiring me as a working mother through the birth of my first child, and holding me accountable to complete this research and reach my full potential. I am beyond indebted to you and incredibly thankful to have had the chance to work under your guidance.

Thank you to each of the other members of my committee for your support and guidance. Dr. Hass, thank you for starting the organizational justice journey with me many years ago, and guiding me through my master's thesis. Dr. Quick, I am so thankful you were willing to join me on this journey as I explored the benefits of Preventive Stress Management methods. Cross-domain collaboration is, and forever will be, the most efficient and effective way to advance our fields. Dr. Kenworthy and Dr. Paulus, thank you for inspiring ideas, intriguing class discussions, methodological brainstorming, and your individual contributions to our field that advance harmony, justice, and understanding.

This research would also not have materialized were it not for my crew of subject matter experts- John Graham, Kathryn Graham, Dr. Ashley Graham, Dr. Kevin Impelman, Dr. John Muros, Dr. Jesse Hohenstein, and Belinda Smith. Thank you so much for taking the time away from your work and families to lend your unique expertise to this research. Thank you also for your continued pressure to finish. While painful and sometimes unwelcomed, it was necessary.

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to the many intellectual influencers that have impacted my life. It is dedicated to Mr. Rose, for my first creative introduction to the scientific method in sixth grade, to the many high school and college professors who instilled a passion for critical thinking and analysis, and to my athletic coaches and musical directors that taught me the value of perseverance, taking risks, and pushing past my limits. I am forever grateful.

There are two individuals that were the first to teach, coach and inspire an intrinsic motivation that manifests as a relentless curiosity and an unyielding determination. This dissertation is dedicated to my angels, my mom and dad, this honor is as much yours as it is mine. I will forever reflect fondly on our trips to the library to pull microfiche, the late nights building dioramas and finishing science fair projects, and the time you saved my thesis by putting my computer in the freezer. I am most grateful for the lessons I learned by watching you care for each other, for our family, and for others. You modeled unconditional love and acceptance, and I try every day to replicate all you did for me, with my own family.

To my wife, Brandi, you have been nothing but supportive since the first day I told you I was going back to graduate school. I warned you I would be busy, but I don't think either of us knew what we were in for. Over the years, we have lost significant loved ones, changed multiple jobs, gotten married (twice!), bought our first house, and had our son- all while I was in school, and you were holding down the fort at home. You have always been my rock, but especially so in this final stretch. You teach me lessons that aren't in any book. I am so thankful I have the privilege to continue learning from you the rest of our lives.

Lastly, to my baby boy, I dedicate this to you, Elliot. I am so inspired by your curiosity, your love of life, your imagination, your unbounded energy, your determination, your strength, and your intelligence. You, too, are teaching me so many things every day. I am so excited to get to be your mommy and watch you grow and explore all the world has to offer. This one is for you, little man.

"Always remember, you are braver than you believe, stronger than you seem, smarter than you think, and loved more than you know"

- *Winnie the Pooh*

Abstract

Much work has explored the dimensionality, antecedents and consequences of organizational justice; yet, the transfer of knowledge to application and intervention remains limited. The paper includes the development and validation of the Just Leader measure, a scale intended to assess individual differences in leaders' tendencies to behave in ways that are likely perceived as fair and just. Building upon social-exchange theory and correlates associated with organizational justice, the Just Leader measure was theoretically derived from four main constructs: empathy, emotional intelligence, implicit person theory, and moral ideology. The development and validation of the measure spanned across two studies using three separate working-adult populations. The first study included a scenario-based design and demonstrated that empathy, two emotional intelligence facets and one facet of implicit person beliefs predicted interpersonal and informational justice perceptions. Unexpectedly, two additional emotional intelligence factors, as well as moral ideology did not demonstrate a predictive relationship with neither interpersonal nor informational justice. The second study further defined the dimensionality and item characteristics of the newly developed Just Leader measure. Item response theory and confirmatory factor analysis indicted the measure was best modeled by a four-factor structure. The Just Leader measure demonstrated adequate reliability, construct validity, and content validity. However, analysis on the third sample, comprised on boss-employee dyads, neglected to demonstrate criterion and incremental validity. Limitations and further measure refinement are discussed.

Who is the Fairest of Them All: The Development and Validation of the Just Leader Measure

"That's not fair!" This universal phrase, often shouted by children, continues as a part of our belief system throughout our adulthood. From the playground to the boardroom, people often face inequitable outcomes and troubling situations. The corporate world often interprets fairness as the equity of (a) an employee's compensation, (b) the process that drives a decision, or (c) how supervisors treat their employees. Similar to the bully in a child's school, some supervisors withhold rewards, resources, and information; such behaviors are likely to be perceived as unjust. Unfair treatment can cause psychosocial factors such as stress and burnout, factors predictive of higher turnover and absenteeism (Elovainio, Kivimaki, & Vahtera, 2002; Janssen, 2004; Tepper, 2001), lower productivity, lower commitment to the organization, and higher accounts of counter-productive behavior (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001; Greenberg, 2010).

No matter our age, an unjust environment can have psychological and physiological consequences. Over 40 years of existing research on organizational justice suggests that people want to be equitably compensated for their efforts, treated with respect within the workplace, and considered when instituting new procedures (Colquitt et al., 2001). Importantly, research has consistently pointed to the role of the leader in organizational justice perceptions, particularly with regard to its association with stress (Colquitt & Greenberg, 2003; Greenberg, 2004). Supervisors that find equitable ways to give back to their employees, treat their employees with respect, and readily share relevant information also engender organizationally just perceptions (Bies & Moag, 1986; Colquitt et al., 2001; Greenberg, 1993; Judge & Colquitt, 2004).

So, what types of leaders are more likely to treat their employees in just ways? The truth is, we are not entirely sure. As Colquitt and Greenberg (2003) so eloquently pointed out, "the justice literature has all but ignored what causes leaders to act fairly" (p. 197). Given the integral role of a leader within an organizational justice framework, it is vital that we seek answers to this question.

For organizations, the importance of leadership is not a novel concept. Over 80 years of research has aspired to define leadership, understand the intricacies of great leaders, and find ways to identify individuals that encompass the makings of a great leader (see Barling, Christie, & Hoption, 2011 and Bono & Judge, 2004 for a review). Often, leadership is defined by how transformative a leader acts toward their followers. Good leaders are skilled at social-exchange relationships, ones in which a mutual trust and understanding develops. These relationships typically lead to higher performance and greater team-member engagement than would otherwise occur (Cropanzano & Rupp, 2008). In line with social-exchange outcomes, organizational justice literature suggests that a leader's tendency to treat their employees fairly also plays a significant role in a leader's success (Vecchio, 1997). Notably, researchers have demonstrated that individual differences in emotional intelligence, ambition, and interpersonal sensitivity affect a leader's ability to be successful in a role (Goleman, 1998; Hogan & Holland, 1993). However, most of the research in this area has neglected to include a leader's inclination to behave in ways likely to be perceived as fair as part of the criteria for successful leadership. It is imperative that we learn more about what drives leaders to treat their employees fairly. Establishing a measure to assess an individual's likelihood to treat employees with respect,

include employees in procedural decisions, and provide employees with fair outcomes, would be extremely beneficial to organizations seeking to identify great leaders.

The following paper first provides a review of the organizational justice literature, followed by the description of two studies that aspired to understand predictive constructs of fairness behaviors as a means to develop a brief measure entitled the "Just Leader Measure". Specifically, this research sought to a) develop a multidimensional measure using both classical and item response theoretical approaches, b) establish content and construct validity of the new measure, c) delineate the dimensionality of the measure and d) establish the predictive validity of the measure against the criterion (fairness behaviors).

Background

Organizational Justice

On the whole, the growing body of literature regarding organizational justice has focused much attention on defining the concept and identifying the antecedences and consequences of injustice. Numerous studies illuminate the dimensionality of organizational justice, now comprised of four separate dimensions: distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational (Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt & Shaw, 2005). Fairness, a term used interchangeably with justice, first gained support through Adam's equity theory (1963, 1965), suggesting that the fairness of outcomes is relative to the inputs of individual employees. Outcome fairness, appropriately labeled *distributive justice,* was expanded to include allocation rules such as equity and need (Leventhal, 1976). In 1980, Leventhal introduced the importance of *procedural justice*, described as the fairness of the procedures that determine outcomes (Leventhal,

Karuza, & Fry, 1980). Almost a decade later, a third justice variable was introduced by Bies and Moag (1986). They coined the term *interactional justice* and defined it as the interpersonal treatment people receive in organizations, qualified by the distributive and procedural justice within the organization. The significance of this third factor became apparent as researchers found it essential in explaining outcomes such as commitment to supervisor and citizenship behaviors (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Malatesta & Byrne, 1997; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000). Recently, interactional justice has separated into two further dimensions labeled *interpersonal justice* and *informational justice*. Interpersonal justice refers to the interactional factors related to distributive justice, whereas informational justice encompasses the interactional factors related to procedural justice (Colquitt et al., 2001; Greenberg, 1993).

Leadership and Justice Perceptions

The organizational justice literature highlights the linkage between leadership behaviors and outcomes associated with organizational justice perceptions. The concept of leader-member exchange has played a significant role alongside organizational justice and leadership. Central to the leader-member exchange theory, as with organizational justice, is the social exchange theory, which posits that humans cultivate future relationships based on their past experiences with others (Blau, 1986; Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004). One of the guiding norms of social relationships is the idea of reciprocity, in other words, the transactional nature of human relationships (Fisk, 1991). Whether it is a subordinate-to-supervisor relationship or a romantic partnership, there are certain exchange expectations between two persons that are necessary to assimilate that connection. The resulting relationships fall on a continuum

between *economic* exchange relationships that are solely transactional in nature, to *social* exchange relationships built upon communal similarities, emotions, and trust (Bishop, Scott, & Burroughs, 2000; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Cropanzano & Rupp, 2008; Masterson et al., 2000).

In organizations, individuals often develop a social-exchange relationship with their immediate supervisor, or sometimes, the organization as a whole (Lavelle et al., 2009; Lavelle, McMahan, & Harris, 2009). High quality social-exchange relationships between direct reports and supervisors often involve trust, mutual investments, and long-term expectations. On the other end of the spectrum, poor quality relationships would likely fall victim to the constraints of an economic-exchange relationship, commonly described as impersonal, one-sided, and short-term (Shore, Tetrick, Lynch, & Barksdale, 2006; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997).

Researchers focusing on leader-member exchange suggest that it is significantly related to global- and facet-level organizational justice perceptions (Manogran, Stauffer, & Conlon, 1994; Moorman, 1991; Vecchio, 1997). As an example, Vecchio's work with distributive justice perceptions indicated that employees that had good relationships with their supervisors reported higher perceptions of equity than those with lower quality relationships.

A study conducted by Walumbwa, Cropanzano, and Hartnell (2009) helped to further define the tight association between leader-member exchange and organizational justice, specifically regarding the interpersonal and informational justice facets. In their model, the authors demonstrated that interpersonal and informational justice perceptions predicted the quality of a subordinate's leader-member exchange relationship. Earlier scholars reported similar relationships with the interactional justice factor, the higher-order factor comprised of

interpersonal and informational justice perceptions (Cropanzano, Prehar, & Chen, 2000; Masterson et al., 2000).

Other work extends justice beyond its typical supporting role onto the main stage as a competency in and of itself (Rupp & Aquino, 2009). This concept, grounded in a multi-foci approach to understanding justice, posits that the true target of justice-based perceptions is the entity on the opposite side of the social-exchange relationship. The target entity could be the organization as a whole, the customers with which an employee interacts, and often the supervisor, which is particularly why justice has the potential to be an invaluable addition when conceptualized at the competency level for all leaders.

Prevention: The Need for a Just Leader Measure

Unfortunately, it seems in our efforts to understand the construct of organizational justice, we have somewhat neglected the application of this knowledge within organizations (Greenberg, 2009). In fact, from the time-period of 1994 to 2008, a startling 3% of the 545 articles published were intervention-focused (Bauer et al., 2009). Even after Greenberg's 2009 call for more intervention and application-based publications, the field still struggled to generate momentum outside of laboratory settings. The resistance was not likely due to research interest, but to corporate hesitancy to embrace anything extra in a struggling economy, much less anything that could highlight weak areas of leadership in a post-Enron era.

One emerging area that continued to gain traction was the linkage research correlating perceived injustice and stress (e.g., Elovainio et al., 2001; Greenberg, 2008; Hietapakka et al., 2013, Janssen, 2004; Judge & Colquitt, 2004; Manville, El Akremi, Niezborala, & Mignonac, 2016; Proost, Verboon, van Ruysseveldt, 2015; Tepper, 2001; Zhang, LePine, Buckman, & Wei,

2014). Psychological stressors, such as injustice, can be as serious as other health risks within the workplace (World Health Organization, 2008); it is increasingly more critical that organizations begin to embrace interventional research and practice.

Preventive Stress Management. The preventive stress management framework (Quick, Wright, Adkins, Nelson, & Quick, 2013; Quick, Quick, Nelson, & Hurrell, 1997) provides a solid foundation the quest for intervention. Preventive stress management purports that if job stress is truly an epidemic, then prevention is the best approach (Elkin & Rosch, 1990; Quick et al., 1997; Quick et al., 2013). There are three main approaches to intervention within the framework, intuitively labeled the primary, secondary, and tertiary levels respectively (Quick et al., 2003). Primary prevention targets the front-line demands of the work environment to ensure that work requirements are manageable for the employee. At this level, the goal is to address the cause of the problem before it becomes an issue. The secondary level of prevention within the framework places more focus on managing the individual's responses to the demands placed on them (Quick, Simmons & Nelson 2000; Quick & Quick, 1997). At the tertiary level of prevention, the intervention raises to the level of therapy and, if necessary, litigation aimed at treating, or compensating for the individual's psychological, medical or behavioral distress (Quick, Simmons & Nelson 2000; Quick & Quick, 1997).

Encouragingly, research has indicated positive impact of preventive approaches with leaders and organizational justice (e.g., Bourbonnais et al., 2006a; Greenberg, 2006, 2008). A Canadian research team targeted stress reduction through different organizational changes, some of which directly resembled organizational justice practices (Bourbonnais, Brisson, Vinet, Vezina, & Lower, 2006b). This team worked with hospital employees to develop 56 different

initiatives aimed to increase the level of satisfaction and reduce stress within the workplace. The results included job redesign initiatives, such as job rotation, to evenly distribute the burden of undesirable tasks (i.e., distributive justice), providing more employee voice in decisions (i.e., procedural justice), and conducting more frequent staff meetings to disseminate information (i.e., informational justice).

A New View on Prevention. At its core, the preventive stress management framework aims to reduce the individual's experiences of stress. The primary level of prevention is often targets supervisor training or large-scale job redesign. Perhaps there is yet another point of intervention prior to the need for training. It is possible to leverage organizational justice concepts to prevent stressful situations for employees at an earlier time-point, such as leader selection? Is it possible to identify and select leaders based on their inclination to treat employees fairly? And, if so, what impact could that have on employee perceptions and workplace stress?

Prevention at Selection. A major focus of industrial and organizational psychology resides within employee selection for organizations. At its naissance, researchers aimed to find ways to increase productivity and efficiency of their employees through selection practices. In addition to early research targeting large-scale organizational changes, job redesigns, and performance management initiatives, employee selection based on personality and cognitive ability gained support and recognition (Barrick, Mount, & Judge, 2001; Schmidt & Hunter; 1998). For example, meta-analyses have demonstrated the strong association between that the five-factor taxonomy of personality and job performance on a wide range of jobs (Goldberg, 1995; McCrae & Costa, 1997; Ones, Dilchert, Viswesvaram, & Judge, 2007). Specifically, with regard to leadership, meta-

analytic studies have indicated strong positive relationships between the five personality constructs and job performance: extroversion (.31), conscientiousness (.28), emotional stability (.24), openness (.24) and agreeableness (.08) (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002). Likewise, cognitive ability has reliably predicted future outcomes such as increased performance and reduced time-to-proficiency, particularly when jobs involve greater complexity (Schmidt & Hunter, 1998; Ones, Viswesvaran, & Dilchert, 2005).

Researchers have reached beyond the five-factor model to discover how and when these well-known predictors are most successful in predicting organizational outcomes (Hough & Oswald, 2008). One such perspective is through a socioanalytic lens that suggests that there are two motive patterns that drive behavior a) getting along and b) getting ahead (Hogan & Holland, 2003). Hogan and Holland suggested that the "getting along" motive is associated with expression toward others, providing consideration, and contextual performance, while the "getting ahead" construct is more associated with driving results, initiating structure and task performance. As the science continues to improve, the field has moved more to measure facet-level constructs, targeting specific desired behaviors, such as organizational justice.

Study One

Toward a Just Leader Measure

The first step in selecting leaders more likely to act in ways perceived as fair by their employees is to identify the traits and characteristics that predict the desired behaviors. At first glance, the theory and research regarding the attributes of managers associated with perceived justice seems scarce; however, a few key studies on individual differences among leaders provide some guidance. Additionally, there is quite a bit of work in tangential areas, such as

leader-member exchange and global leadership that may guide future direction in this area. This research has suggested that a leader's level of *empathy* plays a large part in the justice perceptions of that manger (Patient & Skarlicki, 2010). Likewise, e*motional intelligence* is a prominent area of research within the relationship-management and leadership literature (Harms & Crede, 2010). Other theorists suggest a leader's *moral ideology* plays an influential role in justice perceptions (Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel, & Rupp, 2001; Rupp & Bell, 2010). More recent work demonstrated the association between *implicit person theory* and constructs like justice (Heslin & VandeWalle, 2008). Implicit person theory posits that leaders fall into two categories: *entity theorists* that hold rigid impressions of others and *incremental theorists* that believe that the abilities and behaviors of others are malleable (Dweck, 1999; Dweck, Chiu, & Hong, 1995). Given that a leader's tendency to share information and provide resources falls within the interactional justice dimension, it stands to reason that incremental theorists are often perceived as more just because they often provide more developmental feedback to employees (Heslin & VandeWalle, 2008).

It is likely that all four constructs play some role in predicting the likelihood that a leader will treat his or her employees fairly. The current study investigated this assumption through empirical means. Each construct and related hypotheses are discussed below in more detail.

Empathy. Interactional justice perceptions, largely influenced by the leader, are integral to an employee's evaluation of authority (Bies, 2001), as well as their reception of bad news or negative outcomes (Greenberg, 1994). Research has demonstrated when negative messages are delivered with high (versus low) interactional justice behaviors, employees are more understanding and satisfied with outcomes (Colquit et al., 2001). In particular, the ability to

empathize with others when delivering negative messages helps leaders communicate messages with more interpersonal and interactional justice (Patient & Skarlicki, 2010). This is likely because managers tend to distance themselves from their employees when negative messages must be delivered (Folger & Skarlicki, 1998). Patient and Skarlicki (2010) demonstrated that a manager's level of empathetic concern moderates the distancing behavior of leaders. In a scenario task, managers were instructed to communicate a layoff. As expected, managers with higher levels of empathetic concern demonstrated more interactionally just behaviors in their messages.

One of the most well-known scales, the Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI), has a multidimensional approach to measuring empathy as the reactions of a person in response to the emotions or experiences of another individual (Davis, 1983). The two main dimensions of empathy include: a) cognitive, the capacity of an individual to understand someone else's perspective and b) affective, an individual's visceral response and concern for others (Davis, 1980). When conceived, empathetic concern was considered to be other-oriented. It was the affective response including compassionate feelings and a sense of selflessness toward persons in need.

Recently, the distinction between cognitive and affective empathy has become even more discrete (Reniers, Corcoran, Drake, Shryane, & Vollm, 2011). For these researchers, cognitive empathy is one's ability to cognitively understand the mental processes of others so much as to deduce attributions. Affective empathy is described as the sensitivity to the feelings of others, even to the level of vicariously experiencing the same feelings (Reniers et al., 2011).

As demonstrated in Patient and Skarlicki's (2010) study, empathetic concern (including both cognitive and affective empathy) was expected to predict the extent that a leader acts in ways that are conceived to be interpersonally and informational just. Leaders with high (versus low) cognitive empathy are expected to construct a working model of the emotional stress a negative message might induce when delivered. Leaders that also exhibit a high (versus low) level of affective empathy are also expected to deliver the message with more sensitivity toward the recipient. In other words, those with higher levels of empathetic concern likely view perceived fairness with more caution and likely use communication strategies that reduce the amount of stress for the recipient. Potential communication strategies would include treating the recipients with more respect and concern (i.e., interpersonal justice) and reducing ambiguity by communicating the rationale behind the decisions (i.e., informational justice). Given the past research on the role empathetic concern can play in the development of employee perceptions, it was expected that individual differences within cognitive and affective empathy would predict employee perceptions of interpersonal and informational justice.

***Hypothesis 1*:** Leaders' empathetic concern would positively predict perceived interpersonal justice.

***Hypothesis 1a*:** Leaders' cognitive empathy would positively predict perceived interpersonal justice.

Hypothesis 1b: Leaders' affective empathy would positively predict perceived interpersonal justice.

***Hypothesis 2*:** Leaders' empathetic concern would positively predict perceived informational justice.

Hypothesis 2a: Leaders' cognitive empathy would positively predict perceived informational justice.

***Hypothesis 2b*:** Leaders' affective empathy would positively predict perceived informational justice.

To further understand the relationship between the empathy facets and the perceived organizational justice variables, it was helpful to investigate the strength of the associations comparatively. To do this, I investigated the following research question:

***Research Question 1*:** Across the two facets of empathy, which facet demonstrated the strongest relationship with organizational justice perceptions?

Emotional Intelligence. Another area of theory and practice that has consistently demonstrated successful performance among top leaders is emotional intelligence. Somewhat related to empathy, emotional intelligence accounts for a leader's ability to build trust and rapport with a team through self-awareness, social awareness, self-management, and relationship management (Goleman, 1998).

As a precursor to emotional intelligence, Thorndike (1920) was the first to identify the term "social intelligence." Social intelligence is ability to positively interact with other humans due to accurate perceptions of others behavior and regulation of one's own behavior. Social intelligence included interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence and was thought to account

for up to 80-percent of the factors that determine life success (Goleman, 1996). In 1990, Salovey and Mayer identified a subset of social intelligence, termed emotional intelligence that describes the ability to identify and regulate one's own and others' emotions. For the past 20 years, emotional intelligence has gained both attention and debate.

One of the main topics of debate within the emotional intelligence field concerns two distinct theoretical models. The first of the two is the "ability" model- which concerns emotion-related cognitive abilities. This model, proposed by Mayer and Salovey in 1997, is comprised of four lower-order dimensions: perception, assimilation, understanding, and regulation. In other words, the ability model posits that emotional intelligence is the ability to perceive, express, understand, and regulate emotion in self and others (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). The second of the two models is the "trait" model, which concerns emotion-related efficacy. The trait model is comprised of cognitive, motivational, and affective constructs (Bar-On, 1997; Austin, Aaklofske, Huang, & McKenney, 2004; Petrides & Furnham, 2000, 2001, 2003). Trait emotional intelligence is viewed more as a dispositional construct concerning one's perception of emotion, management of emotion, empathy and impulsivity (Petrides & Furnham, 2003).

The trait models, also called "mixed" models of emotional intelligence have gained popularity as of recent, largely due to a meta-analysis published by Joseph and Newman (2010) that indicated that mixed emotional intelligence was possibly a stronger predictor of job performance (r=.47) than cognitive ability or personality. However, a recent update to the meta-analysis, inclusive of a separate meta-analysis conducted by O'Boyle et al. (2011), corrected that inflation back to a correlation of r= .29 (Joseph, Jin, Newman, and O'Boyle, 2015). Further, the updated study indicated that 62% or the variance within mixed emotional

intelligence was accounted for by other constructs, such as conscientiousness, extraversion, emotional stability, cognitive ability, and self-efficacy. Counter to those findings, the study suggested that ability model of emotional intelligence demonstrated a slightly lower association with job performance (*r*=.20); it only had 20% of its variance accounted for by other constructs. Thus, ability models appear to demonstrate greater discriminant validity.

Further, ability-related models have been largely supported by scholars because they are grounded in theory, supported by empirical evidence, and easily leveraged within applied research (Mathews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2002). Ability-model enthusiasts also argue that trait-related measures are contingent upon self-perceptions of the domain items and the traits have been criticized for being too strongly related to basic personality constructs (e.g., MacCann, Mathews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2004). In fairness, others, such as Petrides and Furnham (2006) argue that emotional intelligence is a lower-order personality trait, which inherently should be related to higher-order traits. In a recent meta-analysis, both models of emotional intelligence demonstrated equal value, depending on the organizational contexts in which they are leveraged (Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004). For the purposes of this study, I focused on the ability-related model of emotional intelligence as it had more direct implications with employment settings.

To expand on the definition stated above, there are four dimensions of ability-related emotional intelligence 1) self-perception of emotional expression, 2) perception of others' emotions, 3) use of emotion, and 4) emotional regulation (Schutte, Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Coooper, Golden, Dornheim, 1998; Wong & Law, 2002). There have been a handful of attempts to measure these concepts including the Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS, Schutte et al., 1998)

and the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso-Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT, Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002). However, one measure, the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS, Law, Wong & Song, 2004), has demonstrated a fairly reliable factor structure, consistent validity metrics, cross-cultural measurement invariance, and was available for public research (e.g., Devonish & Greenidge, 2010; Fukuda, 2011; San Lam & O'Higgins, 2012). The WLEIS was constructed in accordance with the four-factor structure as originally defined by Mayer and Salovey (1997), including the self-emotional appraisal, the others'-emotional appraisal, the use of emotion, and the regulation of emotion (Law et al., 2004). Further, the WLEIS was specifically developed for use in organizations with outcome criterion such as job performance and job satisfaction. Because of this reason, the WLEIS has demonstrated measurement invariance and group mean equivalence (Whitman, Van Rooy, Viswesvaran, & Kraus, 2009).

Defined in terms outlined above, leaders with a strong emotional intelligence are likely to understand their team member's emotions and respond to them in an appropriate manner. Studies have demonstrated a positive relationship between a leader's emotional intelligence and employee performance (Higgs, 2004), team satisfaction (Langhorn, 2004), job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Giles, 2001; Ruestow, 2009). Leaders with emotional intelligence have the capacity to support their team when times get tough, and they are also more likely to proactively address tough issues and soften the blow of threatening information. Further, managers and supervisors with high levels of emotional intelligence manage their stress in more positive ways. Their interactions with others are less likely to degrade when under pressure and tight time-lines (Lusch & Serpkenci, 1990). Greater levels of emotional intelligence allow managers to display more empathy, less aggression, and ultimately take their

team members' feelings into account more often when making decisions about outcomes. Recent research supports the association between emotional intelligence and organizational justice (Devonish & Greenidge, 2010; Di Fabio & Palazzeschi, 2012). In their study with Italian nurses, emotional intelligence demonstrated incremental predictability over and above personality traits on all four organizational justice outcomes. The authors argue the significance of this finding, particularly regarding the potential implications if emotional intelligence could be trained (Di Fabio & Kenny, 2011; Mayer & Salovey, 1997). The limited research in this area merits further investigation; however, it was expected that individual differences in emotional intelligence affect the perceptions of interactional justice. To test this hypothesis, overall emotional intelligence was observed as well as the four dimensions, self-emotional appraisal, the other-emotional appraisal, the use of emotion, and the regulation of emotion dimensions.

***Hypothesis 3*:** Leaders' emotional intelligence would positively predict perceived interpersonal justice.

***Hypothesis 3a*:** Leaders' self-emotional appraisal would positively predict perceived interpersonal justice.

***Hypothesis 3b*:** Leaders' other-emotional appraisal would positively predict perceived interpersonal justice.

***Hypothesis 3c*:** Leaders' use of emotion would positively predict perceived interpersonal justice.

***Hypothesis 3d*:** Leaders' regulation of emotion would positively predict perceived interpersonal justice.

***Hypothesis 4*:** Leaders' emotional intelligence would positively predict perceived informational justice.

Hypothesis 4a: Leaders' self-emotional appraisal would positively predict perceived informational justice.

Hypothesis 4b: Leaders' other-emotional appraisal would positively predict perceived informational justice.

***Hypothesis 4c*:** Leaders' use of emotion would positively predict perceived informational justice.

Hypothesis 4d: Leaders' regulation of emotion would positively predict perceived informational justice.

To further understand the relationship between the facets of emotional intelligence and the perceived organizational justice variables, it was helpful to investigate the strength of the associations comparatively. To do this, I investigated the following research question:

***Research Question 2*:** Across the four facets of emotional intelligence, which facet(s) was most predictive of organizational justice perceptions?

Implicit Person Theory. One of the more contemporary areas of research, implicit person theory also provides an interesting perspective on a manager's inherent nature towards the fair treatment of his or her team. Expanding upon Dweck and Leggett's (1988) research on the motivational theories people construct about their own abilities, implicit person theory focused on the theories people construct about the abilities of others. Specifically, implicit

person theory expands on the beliefs people construct about the stability of attributes such as personality, cognitive ability, and morality. Implicit person theory suggests that people make assumptions about the malleability of the personal attributes of others such that they are generally *entity* theorists or *incremental* theorists (Dweck, 1999; Dweck, Chiu, & Hong, 1995). Those that assume that attributes such as ability and personality are relatively fixed fall within the *entity* theorists. Oppositely, *incremental* theorists assume personal attributes can adapt and develop over time with the right resources and experiences. In reference to the same observed behavior, entity theorists are more likely to conclude dispositional inferences about an actor, while an incrementalist is more likely to understand that behavior through the context of which it occurred. Thus, incremental theorists are more likely to provide situational correction (e.g., training, instruction, etc.), as they are more inclined to believe that the behavior can be easily changed (Gilbert, Pelham & Krull, 1988).

There are conceptual links between implicit person theory beliefs, their influence on leader behavior, and the factors that drive employee perceptions (Colquitt, 2001; Dweck, 1999; Heslin & VandeWalle, 2008; Leventhal, 1980). As suggested by Heslin and Vandewalle (2010), managers that ascribe more to the incrementalist theory tend to have employees with positive perceptions of organizational justice. These managers are less prone to make quick, rigid judgments of their team members, are more involved in seeking the input of others, and tend to provide more developmental assistance and resources based on their beliefs that people's attributes can change (Heslin & VandeWalle, 2008). In their study utilizing performance evaluations, not only did Heslin and Vandewalle (2010) find that a manager's incremental beliefs were positively associated with their employee perceptions of justice, but that

perceptions of justice also predicted the employees' organizational citizenship behaviors. While this study targeted perceptions regarding performance appraisals, it is likely that manager implicit person theory beliefs have similar effects on overall procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice perceptions as well. For example, Heslin, Vandewalle, and Latham (2006) examined how a manager's implicit person theory beliefs were related to their willingness to coach their employees, which is liked to organizational justice perceptions.

While it is further explained within the measurement and analysis sections of the paper, it is important to note at this point in the study that both incremental beliefs and non-entity beliefs were measured separately. The scale used in the current research was a total of eight combined items (see Appendix A), four that measured incrementalism and four items that measured entity beliefs. The latter four entity items were meant to be reverse coded, so when combined, the total scale measures incrementalism. For reasons later discussed, the two scales were kept separate, but the entity items were reverse coded so that they align directionally with the incremental items. To mitigate potential confusion, this construct was identified as "non-entity" such that it could be contrasted with the regularly-scored incremental beliefs scale. The terms incremental and non-entity are used for the remainder of the paper.

Given previous research, it was expected that leaders with higher incremental and non-entity beliefs would act in ways perceived to be more fair and just.

> ***Hypothesis 5*:** Leaders' implicit person beliefs would positively predict perceived interpersonal justice.

Hypothesis 5a: Leaders' non-entity beliefs would positively predict perceived interpersonal justice.

Hypothesis 5b: Leaders' incrementalist beliefs would positively predict perceived interpersonal justice.

Hypothesis 6**:** Leaders' implicit person beliefs would positively predict perceived informational justice.

Hypothesis 6a: Leaders' non-entity beliefs would positively predict perceived informational justice.

Hypothesis 6b: Leaders' incrementalist beliefs would positively predict perceived informational justice.

To further understand the relationship between the facets of implicit person theory and the perceived organizational justice variables, it was helpful to investigate the strength of the associations comparatively. To do this, I investigated the following research question:

Research Question 3**:** Across the two facets of implicit person theory, which facet demonstrated the strongest relationship with organizational justice perceptions?

Moral Ideology. Thanks to companies like Enron, the need for moral, ethical leaders is more desirable today than ever. Similarly, as organizational justice expands into cross-disciplinary research, an interconnected moral framework for leaders has emerged (Rupp & Aquino, 2009). In fact, evolutionary psychology suggests that humans are hardwired to expect fair treatment and have justice-based norms that provide an intuitive framework for how we

should treat one another. Termed *deonance* by the contemporary justice literature, this intuitive expectation of fairness often causes humans to sanction the unjust both quickly and with indignation (Cropanzano, Goldman, & Folger, 2003). According to Folger (2001), some leaders may act in just ways not only because of the economic and social motives, but also because they ascribe to the virtues of universal ethical and fair treatment. However, others have suggested that some leaders may only extend empathetic and moral concern to those that fall within their "moral community" (Aquino, Skarlicki, Freeman, Nadisic, & Fortin, 2009). In other words, for managers with smaller moral communities, employees that fall outside of that moral regard may not be privy to considerations of fairness from the manager (Tyler, Boeckmann, Smith, & Huo, 1997).

Luckily, there is emerging research that suggests that individual differences in justice orientation and moral maturity exist (Aquino et al., 2009; Rupp & Bell, 2010). In fact, Patient and Skarlicki (2010) demonstrated that managers' moral development played a moderating role when applying an empathetic induction to increase interpersonal and informational justice perceptions. These researchers argued that empathy helps to extend a managers' circle of moral regard, thus translating moral standards into action toward employees.

Research in the realm of ethical decision making traces back to Rest's (1986) model comprised of four components: awareness, moral judgment (Kohlberg, 1969), moral intent and moral behavior. For the purposes of the current research, moral intent, the third step of the model is the proxy for actual behavior and thus the focus of the current review. Moral intent is strongly related to moral ideology, a relatively stable and measurable trait, not particularly

susceptible to age, education, and other contextual variables that tend to convolute moral development (Kohlberg, 1969).

Individual differences in moral ideology, described in terms of "relativism" and "idealism" have demonstrated effects on moral decision making within organizations (Jones, 1991; Trevino, 1986). *Relativism* is the degree to which people embrace the idea of universal ethical rules when making decisions. Individuals with a higher level of relativism are less likely to embrace universal rules in lieu of a belief that people should abide by their own moral and ethical frameworks. Further, for relativists, ethical decisions are highly guided by the situations and circumstances that surround the decision (Forsyth, 1992). Oppositely, individuals low on the relativism scale tend to be firm in their beliefs of a universal ethical and moral code, regardless of the situation or person making a decision. For these individuals, rules violations and discipline are managed strictly.

The other component of moral ideology is moral *idealism,* which reflects the degree to which people believe that the desirable outcome of a decision is one that avoids harming others (Forysth, 1980). For those high in idealism, emphasis is always placed on the well-being of others, such that any decision should seek to avoid harm to others at all costs. Individuals with lower idealism acknowledge the possibility that some harm may have to occur for the greater good.

Notably, moral relativism and moral idealism are not mutually exclusive, nor are they mutually inclusive. In fact, Forsyth (1980) describes his taxonomy of ethical ideologies by plotting these two orthogonal concepts on a two-by-two matrix with high versus low idealism on one axis and high versus low relativism on the other axis. Forsyth uses the term *situationists*

to describe individuals that are both high on moral idealism and high on moral relativism. Situationists are described to analyze each and every decision individually, always with the aim of no harm. On the opposite side of the matrix, individuals that are both low on relativism and low on idealism are deemed *exceptionists*. Those that fall into the *exceptionist* classification use universal absolutes as a guide with the flexibility to adjust when pragmatic exceptions are presented. To describe those with low idealism but high relativism, Forsyth used the term *subjectivists*. Subjectivists tend to allow their own personal values and perspectives guide their decision-making. In the final box, those with high idealism but low relativism were deemed *absolutists*. Absolutists believe that, in all cases, universal moral codes should be used to make decisions such that the best possible outcome will always be achieved.

The moral ideology taxonomy was further explored through the development of the Ethics Position Questionnaire (Forsyth, 1980). The questionnaire was conceptualized and developed to assess the two main factors, moral idealism and moral relativism. The two factors were intended and empirically supported to have high internal consistency, yet maintain a broad representation of the intended construct, stable across time, and demonstrate orthogonally between the two scales.

With regard to organizational justice, the moral reasoning that guides the fair treatment of employees falls within procedural justice to some degree, and to a larger degree, interpersonal and informational justice (Cropanzano, Rupp, Mohler, & Schminke, 2001). Managers have more control over their behaviors toward employees, and interactional justice perceptions are inherently more subjective than procedural justice perceptions (Bies, 2001). With distributive and procedural justice, there is an evaluative element of fairness with regard

to the perceptions of "output" decisions that affect the employee as compared to the other employees with similar inputs. However, with the interactional justice elements, fair treatment is more readily evaluated against moral norms, regardless of the treatment of other employees. Given the direct association between organizational justice and moral ideology, it follows that managers with higher levels of moral ideology (both relativism and idealism) would act in ways that are perceived to be more organizationally just.

***Hypothesis 7*:** Leaders' moral ideology would positively predict interpersonal justice.

***Hypothesis 7a*:** Leaders' moral idealism would positively predict interpersonal justice.

***Hypothesis 7b*:** Leaders' moral relativism would positively predict interpersonal justice.

***Hypothesis 8*:** Leaders' moral ideology would positively predict informational justice.

***Hypothesis 8a*:** Leaders' moral idealism would positively predict informational justice.

***Hypothesis 8b*:** Leaders' moral relativism would positively predict informational justice.

To further understand the relationship between the facets of moral ideology and the perceived organizational justice variables, it was helpful to investigate the strength of the associations comparatively. To do this, I investigated the following research question:

***Research Question 4*:** Across the two facets of moral ideology, which facet demonstrated the strongest relationship with organizational justice perceptions?

Toward a Combined Measure

These four constructs are the most prominently studied traits with regard to a leader's ability and inclination to develop a balanced social-exchange relationship and treat employees fairly. This is not to say other constructs won't emerge as significant predictors in future

research; however, these four variables were prioritized based on their strong theoretical and empirical associations with organizational justice and related leadership outcomes. Ideally, all four constructs would be assessed in a pre-employment evaluation, provided that all four constructs predict a leader's inclination to treat employees fairly. However, efficiency expectations of the business world today demand a more pragmatic approach. Fairness is only one attribute among many that employers should assess in their candidates prior to hire. Lengthy questionnaires are troublesome because they often cause candidate drop-offs (candidates quitting the assessment) as well as careless responding (Breaugh & Colihan, 1994). Therefore, a brief, comprehensive measure is more desirable. As an example, Judge et al. (1997) followed this same reasoning in their development of the Core Self Evaluations scale. Similar pre-employment constructs, such as conscientiousness and agreeableness are measured with scales consisting of 9-12 items (Benet-Martinez & John, 1998; Goldberg, 1999; Costa & McCrae, 1992). Using the four constructs of empathy, emotional intelligence, implicit person theory, and moral ideology, this study aimed to contribute to the organizational justice intervention field with a brief measure of just-acting leadership tendencies.

Assessing inter-relatedness*.* Previous research leads us to believe that all four constructs will demonstrate significant relationships with key leader behaviors indicative of fair treatment. However, despite the similarity in their antecedents, the four traits have not commonly been studied together. Conceptually, empathy and emotional intelligence are similar as they are both defined as an ability to understand others' emotions and respond appropriately. However, there are distinct differences in the concepts that demonstrate the uniqueness of each. For example, emotional intelligence focuses more on the regulation of

emotions, particularly under stress, whereas empathy includes more of the visceral response to the pain and discomfort of others. Both the regulation of emotion and overt response to others' emotions was likely to be important. In the same vein, implicit person theory and moral ideology are similar constructs in that they are systems of core beliefs about the treatment of others. Yet, these traits are also distinctly different and both concepts were likely play a distinct role in leadership behaviors.

With the ultimate goal of extracting the overall essence of each of these traits to create a brief scale, it was important to examine their interrelatedness. While their relationships have not been empirically demonstrated, it was expected that support for a Just Leader latent-trait comprised of these variables can be derived due to their conceptual similarities under the organizational justice umbrella.

***Hypothesis 9*:** The four constructs of empathy, emotional intelligence, implicit person beliefs and moral ideology would demonstrate positive relationships with each of the other three constructs.

Further, as indicated previously, it was assumed that empathy and emotional intelligence were more closely related to one another than moral ideology and incremental beliefs. Likewise, it was predicted that moral ideology and incremental beliefs would demonstrate a stronger association with each other than with empathy or emotional intelligence. While it was hypothesized that the higher-order factors would demonstrate positive associations, the sub-factor scale relationships were also explored post-hoc due to some unexpected results discussed in the analysis and results sections of the paper.

***Hypothesis 10a*:** Empathy would demonstrate a stronger association with emotional intelligence than with moral ideology or implicit person beliefs.

***Hypothesis 10b*:** Emotional intelligence would demonstrate a stronger association with empathy than with moral ideology or implicit person beliefs.

***Hypothesis 10c*:** Implicit person beliefs would demonstrate a stronger association with moral ideology than with empathy and emotional intelligence.

***Hypothesis 10d*:** Moral ideology would demonstrate a stronger association with implicit person than with empathy and emotional intelligence.

Similar to the post-hoc analysis mentioned briefly for Hypothesis 9, the scale sub-factors were also explored for Hypotheses 10a-d to provide further support (or lack of support) for the findings.

New Item Development

With the guidance of previous research, I hypothesized that these four constructs (empathy, emotional intelligence, implicit person theory, and moral ideology) would not only be related, but likely indicators of latent constructs that manifest themselves as behaviors indicative of fair leadership perceptions. Of course, the extent to which they were associated and predictive of such behaviors was verified in the current study. However, the ultimate goal of this study was to develop a brief measure based on these latent constructs; thus, new items were constructed and piloted. New items were developed following the guidelines indicated below. The objective was to reflect the general factor variance of the core constructs, potentially reducing the length and redundancy of all four scales.

Construct Development. Similar to the development of other latent concept measures, additional items for the Just Leader measure were constructed to reflect the general factor variance indicative of all the core constructs, rather than the individual traits. In constructing the new items, I followed Hinkin's (1995) guidelines defining deductive item-generation through an iterative process spanning over Study One (initial pilot) and Study Two (item refinement). Items were based on an extensive review of the literature involving the measurement of each of the four core traits. Items from existing scales (IRI; Davis, 1980, WLEIS; Wong & Law, 2002; IPT, Chiu et al., 1997, EPQ, Forsyth, 1980) were adapted in addition to newly developed items. Two latent constructs were expected to emerge from the four core scales (see Hypotheses 10a-10d). Therefore, new item development aimed to combine empathy and emotional intelligence into a factor called *ability*, and implicit person theory and moral ideology combined into a factor called *belief*. The ability factor was intended to measure individual differences in the ability (i.e., empathy and emotional intelligence) to behave in just ways. The belief factor was intended to measure differences in beliefs (i.e., implicit person beliefs and moral ideology) representative of a belief system regarding the fair treatment of all individuals. Items were constructed to align with an ability-belief model.

Content Validity

Content validity was assessed to ensure that the new measure adequately captured the intended domain without extraneous items. Following the deductive scale development approach, the new theoretically derived items were subjected to a review by subject matter experts (SME; Hinkin, 1995). Five item development and selection-test construction subject matter experts (Industrial/Organizational Practitioners) rated each item's a) *relevance* to the

overarching intentions of the scale, b) *readability* and c) *nature* regarding ability vs. belief. Assessing the relevance of each item to the overarching intentions of the measure provided a content-based foundation for the new scale construction. To assess relevance, SMEs were asked to rate each item based on how well it reflected the Just Leader intention/definition using a five-point Likert scale (1= Not Really Relevant to 5= Absolutely Relevant).

Readability assessed the extent to which each item was easily comprehended, thus items were assessed in terms of their single-focus and grammar. To assess the readability, SMEs were asked to rate each item based on how easy it was to read and interpret the item, taking into account any moderating effect of potential "double-barrel" item construction. SMEs used a five-point Likert scale to rate the items (1= Difficult to Interpret to 5=Very Easy to Interpret).

The nature of each item was assessed to determine the extent that the item aligned with the ability facet (i.e., empathy and emotional intelligence) or the beliefs facet (i.e., implicit person theory and moral ideology). Ability-related items were expected to be more behaviorally-descriptive and self-evaluative, whereas belief-related items were expected to be more generally-evaluative in nature. The SME's were asked to rate items on a 3-point categorical scale (1= Ability, 3= Neither, 5=Belief).

The pilot items were evaluated for content validity using each of the main criteria: relevance, readability, and nature. Lawshe's (1975) content validity ratio (LCVR) was used to assess inter-rater reliability by calculating the ratio of SME's who endorsed the item as expected. The following formula was used to calculate the ratio:

$$LCVR= (n_e- N/2)/ (N/2)$$

In the formula, n_e represents the number of SME's that endorsed the item in the expected direction by a four or five for both the relevance and the readability criteria. Following Lawshe's (1975) rationale, only items that maintained positive values were retained un-altered at this stage of the process. A total of 12 items were excluded from further study based on content validity rations for relevance or readability. One item was marked for re-wording and retained for Study Two (see Tables 1 and 2).

Two separate calculations were conducted for the nature criteria. For the first, n_e represented the number of SMEs that endorsed the item to align with the ability factor (i.e., rating = 1); the second equation n_e reflected the number of SMEs that endorsed the item to align with the belief factor (i.e., rating = 5). Five, the number of SMEs, was used for the N in all three equations. Tables 1 and 2 lists each item with its corresponding content validity ratios. Following the same rationale for relevance and readability, items with negative ratios were removed from further study. This included two additional items marked for removal and one additional item marked for re-wording (see Tables 1 and 2). In total, fourteen items were removed and two items were marked for re-wording, based on the content validity analysis.

Item Analysis

In this final phase of Study One, the results of all of the previous hypotheses and research questions, along with descriptive data of the new piloted items were evaluated and culled-down to a short list of items called the Just Leader Measure. Items that aligned with constructs associated with interpersonal and informational justice were retained for Study Two (i.e., cognitive empathy, affective empathy, self-emotional appraisal, and non-entity beliefs). Other items that aligned with constructs that did not demonstrate relationships with

interpersonal and informational justice were removed or re-written. (i.e., other emotional appraisal, regulation of emotion, incremental beliefs, moral relativism and moral ideology).

Balancing Item Reduction and Retention. The primary goal of this study was to create a measure that was both representative of the entire domain of the construct of just leadership, yet parsimonious with regard to scale length. The Just Leader measure was developed as an index, one of many scales to include in a pre-employment assessment. To maximize utility of the measure, the scale-length had to be short. Too few items can also distract from the utility of the tool as it may constrain the construct to be overly general or overly specific, further hindering construct validity and reliability (Nunnally, 1976). Measures should include three items at minimum to achieve adequate internal consistency (Cook, Hepworth, Wall, & Warr, 1981). Therefore, finding the ideal number of items to comprise the Just Leader measure was a consideration throughout this step and the following phases.

Psychometric Properties. The final steps in this first phase of development of the Just Leader measure involved 1) analysis to understand each item's ability to measure the constructs intended, 2) gathering preliminary reliability information, and 3) conducting an exploratory factor analysis. Using the initial pilot of the Just Leader items, preliminary analysis was conducted to assess the psychometric properties of each item. For this initial stage, I followed classical test theory philosophy (CTT) to measure each item's difficulty (i.e., mean), variance, and relation to the other items (item-total biserial correlation; Schmitt & Drasgow, 2002). Each item's relationship with the criterion variables (i.e., interpersonal justice and informational justice) was also explored. Item means, standard deviations, and correlations are located on Table 2.

As mentioned, decisions on item reduction or revision were made based on the classical test theory analysis. Items with very high means (<5.8) presented a concern as they would not provide much variation for differentiating individual differences, particularly if they also had small standard deviations (>1.0). Five items were marked for revision to raise the level of difficulty. For example, Item 31 read “Leaders should be held to a standard in how they treat their employees.” This item demonstrated one of the highest correlations with the criterion, yet it also had a very high mean score. To increase the difficulty (lower the mean), the item was re-worded to “Leaders should be held to a higher standard in how they treat others.” For items selected to revise, care was taken to also consider enhancements to the content validity. For example, Item 35 was changed from “One should always be mindful to never intentionally harm someone even to a small degree” to “People should never intentionally say something hurtful, even if it was deserved.” Changes were intended to increase the item’s difficulty (i.e., decrease the mean), increase the variability (i.e., increase the variance), and also increase the content validity on relevance and readability. For a complete list of all item revisions, see Table 3.

Items were also removed from the pool based on their relationships with interpersonal justice and informational justice. Items that demonstrated inverse relationships were removed. The negative directionality was unexpected, yet it aligns with unsupported hypotheses discussed further in the paper. In total, nine items had negative correlations with interpersonal and informational justice. Two of those items were removed through the content validity analysis, so an additional seven were removed at this phase of the process. Product-moment correlations and item decisions are located on Table 2.

Construct Validity

Reliability (i.e., internal consistency; Lawshe, 1975) and partial construct validity (including a factor analysis; Cronbach & Gleser, 1965) of the new measure were evaluated preliminarily. Establishing construct validity was important to confirm that the tool was measuring the construct as it was intended (Chronbach &Meehl, 1955). To establish construct validity, reliability was a necessary step of the process; therefore, it was evaluated through a measure of internal consistency (Lawshe, 1975; Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991).

Factor Analysis. Once reliability was demonstrated, the items were evaluated through an exploratory factor analysis. This step was necessary to demonstrate that the factor structure adequately represented the theoretical assumptions of the measure (Schwab, 1980). The Just Leader measure was expected to be bi-dimensional, containing two main factors: a) an ability factor and b) a belief factor. Since this was a preliminary examination of the dimensionality of the Just Leader Measure, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted using a maximum likelihood extraction with a varimax rotation. Eigenvalues, scree tests, and factor loadings were observed and utilized for further item refinement.

***Hypothesis 11*:** The Just Leader construct could be measured using two independent variables.

Method

Participants

The participants in this study were working adults acquired through a panel sample with a major survey provider. Participants selected from a random population sample representative of the U.S. population. Each participant was incentivized with donations made to their charity

of choice or sweepstakes entries. The survey was conducted online through the survey provider's secure platform. In total, 478 completed responses were gathered and analyzed.

Measures

Along with demographic items, the survey included questions about empathy, emotional intelligence, implicit person theory and moral ideology. The survey also included two brief situational items in which participants read a scenario and were asked to respond in written form how they would likely behave/respond as if they were in the situation. Each of these measures is described below.

Empathy. Empathy was assessed with two subscales of the Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI; Davis, 1980). The first subscale measured the level of empathetic concern (i.e., affective empathy) with seven items designed to assess feelings of compassion and concern toward other people. An example item reads: "When I see someone being taken advantage of, I feel kind of protective towards them." The second subscale measured perspective taking (i.e., cognitive empathy) with seven items designed to assess an individual's tendency to see something from another person's point of view. An example item reads: "I try to understand my friends better by imagining how things look from their perspective." See Appendix A for all items. Participants were asked to evaluate each item on a 5-point Likert-type scale, 1= Does not describe me well to 5= Describes me very well. Fairly consistent reliabilities are demonstrated for the scale such as Cronbach's $\alpha = .70$ for affective empathy and $\alpha = .73$ for cognitive empathy (Davis, 1980). Reliabilities for the present study were Cronbach's $\alpha = .79$ for affective empathy and $\alpha = .76$ for cognitive empathy.

Emotional Intelligence. Emotional intelligence was assessed with the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS). The 16-item measure was developed in 2002 and through Mayer and Salovey's (1997) definition of emotional intelligence: as a set of interrelated abilities to appraise, express, and regulate self and others' emotions. The scale has four dimensions, each with four items: self-emotional appraisal; other-emotional appraisal; use of emotion; and regulation of emotion. The self-emotional appraisal dimension measured the ability to understand and express one's own emotions, the other-emotional appraisal dimension measured the ability to perceive and understand others' emotions, the use of emotion dimension measured the ability to use one's emotions in an appropriate, if not motivating manner, and the regulation of emotion dimension measured the ability to regulate one's own emotions. See Appendix A for all items. Each item was rated using a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree. High scores represent higher levels of emotional intelligence.

Factor structure, internal consistency, convergent, and discriminate validity are all supported by previous studies (Law, Wong, & Song, 2004; Wong & Law, 2002). Exploratory factor structure was first supported in 2002 indicating the four distinct factors with average item loadings of .80 (Wong & Law). Support for the second-order factor structure, indicating one general emotional intelligence factor comprised of the four dimensions, was demonstrated by Whitman et al. in 2009. Reliabilities reported for each scale are: self-emotional appraisal (.78), other-emotional appraisal (.76), use of emotion (.89), and regulation of emotion (.84), as well as the composite emotional intelligence (.70; Wong & Law, 2002). Reliabilities for the current study were self-emotional appraisal α =.88, other-emotional appraisal α =.87, use of

emotion α=.84, and regulation of emotion α =.88, and the composite factor, emotional intelligence α =.88.

Implicit Person Theory. Initial versions of the implicit theory measure were domain specific regarding cognitive ability, personality, and morality (e.g., Dweck et al., 1995a). Each domain was comprised of three items measured on a 6-point Likert scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The scale diverges from trait constructs such as optimism about human nature (Dweck et al., 1995a), cognitive ability confidence (Hong, Chiu, & Dweck, 1995), self-esteem (Coopersmith, 1967), self-monitoring (Snyder, 1974) and social desirability (Paulhus, 1984).

The current study used an expanded version of the original measure adopted by Chiu, Hong, and Dweck (1997) and Levy, Stroessner, and Dweck, (1998). Rather than domain specific measures, the eight-item domain-general implicit person theory measure cut across the domains of ability and personality, reflecting employee behaviors. The scale had four items that assessed incremental beliefs such as, “People can change even their most basic qualities”, and four items that assessed non-entity beliefs including, “The kind of person someone is, is something very basic about them and can’t be changed very much.” See Appendix A for all items. The items were rated on a 6-point Likert-type scale (1= strongly disagree to 6= strongly agree). Responses to non-entity items were reverse-scored. The implicit person theory factor, as well as the two sub-factors were used in the analysis. Mean scores were calculated such that higher scores indicate stronger implicit person theory beliefs. In past studies, the implicit person theory scale demonstrated a high internal consistency (α=.93; Levy et al., 1998) and a test-retest reliability of .82 over a 1 week time-span and .71 over a four-week time-span (Levy

& Dweck, 1997). The current study reliability for the implicit person theory scale was α=.47. Due to the lower factor-level reliability, sub-factors were evaluated separately in the analysis. Sub-factor reliabilities were non-entity α=.88 and incremental α=.92.

Moral ideology. Moral ideology was measured with the Ethics Position Questionnaire (EPQ). The two dimensions from the EPQ, relativism and idealism were developed by Forsyth (1980) can be found in Appendix A. Each scale was comprised of 10 items rated on a seven-point Likert-type scale (1= Strongly Disagree to 7=Strongly Agree), with demonstrated reliabilities (relativism α=.73; idealism α=.80). Chronbach's alpha coefficients have been reported (average relativism α=.82; average idealism α= .85; Davis, Anderson and Curtis, 2001). Reliabilities in the current study were relativism α=.84; idealism α=.78.

New Just Leader Items. Items for the Just Leader measure were piloted for the first time in this study. There were a total of 50 pilot items, in preparation of removal of items that did not meet selection criteria. Each dimension (ability and beliefs) were comprised of approximately 25 items adapted from the four core scales (IRI; Davis, 1980, WLEIS; Wong & Law, 2002; IPT, Chiu et al., 1997, EPQ, Forsyth, 1980). Participants were asked to rate items on a seven-point Likert-type scale from 1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree.

Organizational Justice. Organizational justice was evaluated indirectly using subject matter expert ratings of the participant responses to brief scenarios. Business professionals, all with MBAs or PhDs, served as subject matter experts. The subject matter experts participated in a frame-of-reference training and calibration regarding the two organizational justice constructs of focus: interpersonal and informational justice. For each scenario response, at least two subject matter experts evaluated the written response using adapted items from

Colquitt's Organizational Justice measure, created and validated in 2001. Demonstrated reliabilities of the scales are as follows: distributive α= .92, procedural α= .82, interpersonal α= .89, and informational α= .85 (Colquitt, 2001).

Procedure

A questionnaire and a scenario exercise were administered through an online survey platform. The questionnaire and scenario sections were counter-balanced to detect and control for potential priming effect based on the order of the survey items and the scenarios. Following an on-line consent, participants completed a 114-item on-line survey that took approximately 30 minutes to complete.

Following a similar semi-experimental design conducted by Patient and Skarlicki (2010), the current study tested the hypothesis that individual differences in empathy, emotional intelligence, implicit person theory, and moral ideology predict organizationally just responses to a provided scenario. As discussed in the background literature of the current paper, individual differences in the approach people take when delivering bad news often guide organizational justice perceptions (Rosen & Tessre, 1972). In the scenario, participants were given the chance to communicate negative news in a sensitive, empathetic manner (interpersonal justice) and simultaneously provide adequate information so that the recipient understands why the decision is being made (informational justice). As such, the opportunity to deliver the tough news of a lay-off to an individual was one of the two scenarios.

Following the research of Heslin and Vandewalle (2010), the second scenario asked participants to coach an employee through a negative performance appraisal. Participants were asked to play the role of an employee's new supervisor that needs to share a poor performance

appraisal (as rated by a previous supervisor) with an employee. The participants were instructed to describe the steps they would take to handle the situation, including the exact words they would use to communicate the information.

Following Patient and Skarlicki's (2010) design, both scenarios were designed such that neither the organization, nor the employee was entirely to blame. In other words, both entities shared some fault in causing the negative decision. The scenarios also indicated that the message would cause the employee significant hardships (due to the layoff) or career derailment (due to the performance rating). The cues within the scenarios elicited wide range of behaviors. The two scenarios are located in Appendix B.

All responses were independently coded by four subject matter experts (masters and doctoral graduates). Coders rated each scenario response, blind to the participants' responses on all other study variables (empathy, emotional intelligence, moral ideology, or implicit person beliefs). Four coders participated in three hours of frame-of-reference training in which they were provided a) definitions and examples of interpersonal and informational justice (e.g., Bies, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001), b) response examples that were discussed and rated as a group and c) independent practice followed with multiple calibration sessions that provided further clarification regarding the coding guidelines. Organizational justice items were adapted to fit the needs of this rating system. For example, the item, "Has (he/she) treated you with dignity?" was changed to "The manager treated the employee with dignity." Items were rated on a five-point Likert-type scale with 1= Not at All to 5= Absolutely. After the training and calibration were completed, each coder independently rated interpersonal and informational justice items for both scenarios for each participant. The levels of agreement for the four-item interpersonal

justice scale were .96 for situation one and .96 for situation two. The levels of agreement for the four-item informational justice scale were .94 for situation one and .95 for situation two, as measured by an intraclass correlation coefficient (McGraw & Wong, 1996; Shrout & Fleiss, 1979). For the main analysis, scores from situation one and situation two were averaged together to obtain the two justice variables. The reliability between the averaged scales were .98 for interpersonal justice and .97 for informational justice.

Data Analysis

Descriptive Analysis. Prior to performing inferential statistics related to the main hypotheses, the distributions and univariate descriptive statistics were examined to determine normality for the independent, dependent and control variables. A total of 478 participants were included in the analyses; the demographic composition of the sample is located on Table 4. Analyses were performed using SPSS EXPLORE for evaluation of assumptions.

Both the Interpersonal Justice and Informational Justice dependent variables approximated normal distributions, supporting the null hypothesis for skewness and kurtosis (p>.001). The majority of independent variables also approximated normal distributions, including empathetic concern, cognitive empathy, affective empathy, emotional intelligence, emotional intelligence sub-scale regulation of emotion, implicit person theory and moral relativism. Two scales, the emotional intelligence sub-scale use of emotion, and moral idealism demonstrated statistically significant levels of skewness (p= -5.274 and p= -4.460, respectively), while the other two sub-scales of emotional intelligence, self-emotional appraisal and other-emotional appraisal, demonstrated statistically significant levels of skewness (p= -6.395 and p= -6.462, respectively) and kurtosis (p= 5.475 and p= 6.881, respectively). Further investigation of

the histograms and boxplots, coupled with the consideration of interpretability, led to the decision to keep the scales in-tact without transformation.

To mitigate a potential priming effect within the survey design, the order of the scenarios and scales were counterbalanced randomly. For half of the sample (*N*= 211), the scenarios were completed prior to the survey items; for the other half (*N*=267), the survey items were completed before responding to the scenarios. To assess this potential priming effect, independent one-way ANOVA's were computed between the two versions for all the dependent and independent variables. In total, none of the fourteen total ANOVAs demonstrated significant differences, confirming there were no priming effects within the order of the survey items.

Descriptive statistics across the socio-demographic variables were also evaluated to identify possible group differences within the study variables. The study participants were varied in their industry, level, and experiences, in addition to the expected diversity of race, gender, and age. Group differences were assessed through one-way ANOVAs for all categorical socio-demographical variables (see Table 5). Analyses indicated expected group differences within level of responsibility and years of managerial experience. Unexpectedly, the analyses also identified group differences between the two genders. These three socio-demographic variables were controlled in order to test the main hypotheses by entering them in as the first step into regression models.

Sequential Regression Models. In order to assess the predicted positive relationships between the hypothesized predictor variables and the organizational justice variables, separate hierarchical regressions were conducted using SPSS REGRESSION for both the analyses and

evaluation of assumptions. The control variables, gender, level of responsibility, and years of managerial experience, were first dummy-coded prior to entering them in step one of the regression equation. The level of responsibility variable was coded with "Executive" as the reference group; for years of managerial experience, "No Experience" served as the reference group. Predictor variables for all hierarchical regressions were entered in step two after socio-demographic variables were controlled.

For the first regression testing hypothesis one, the interpersonal organizational justice variable was regressed against both cognitive and affective empathy. In order to test hypothesis two, the informational organizational justice variable was also regressed against both empathy variables. This process was followed to test hypotheses one through eight and each of their sub-hypotheses, using eight separate regressions. For all regression analyses, results were deemed significant at an alpha level of $p<.05$.

Correlational Analysis. In order to investigate all four research questions and test Hypotheses 9 and 10, Pearson product-moment correlation analysis was conducted and compared using Hotelling's T/Steiger's Z tests. Hotelling t-tests can overestimate the t-value due to using actual correlation values, which are not normally distributed. Steiger's Z test translates the correlations to z-scores prior to using Hotelling's t-test.

To test Hypotheses 9, correlations were conducted between each of the studies main constructs- empathy, emotional intelligence, implicit person beliefs, and moral ideology, as well as the sub-constructs within each variable. A full correlation table, including sub-scales is located on Table 6. To test Hypothesis 10a-10d, Hotelling's T/Steiger's Z tests were conducted to compare each relationship against the other potential relationships. For Hypothesis 10a, the association

between empathy and emotional intelligence was compared against the relationship between empathy and moral ideology, as well as the relationship between empathy and implicit person beliefs. Similar comparisons were conducted for all four sub-hypotheses.

To investigate the research questions, Pearson product-moment correlations were conducted between the sub-constructs within each study variable and the organizational justice variables. Hotelling's T/Steiger's Z tests were used to compare the strength of the associations. As an example, the correlation between cognitive empathy and interpersonal justice was compared against the correlation between affective empathy and interpersonal justice to investigate research question one. The same analysis comparing cognitive and affective empathy relationships with informational justice was also completed to support research question one. All four research questions were investigated in the same manner.

Exploratory Factor Analysis. Item-level distributions and descriptive statistics for the new just leader items were first examined in order to determine normality and variance for all variables using SPSS DESCRIPTIVES. While the normality of the variables is not inherently an assumption of descriptive factor analysis (e.g. when used to summarize large sets of variables; Tabachnick, & Fidell, 2007), it enhances the solution. Further, multivariate normality is assumed when statistical inference is used to determine the number of factors that will be assessed in the following analyses. Normality of these single item variables was assessed by skewness and kurtosis. The means and standard deviations were assessed for each item to ensure that items did not demonstrate central tendency and were endorsed across the full 7-point scale. This was important in order to obtain optimal levels of variance for the scale developed. Further, ensuring normality will help the generalizability of the scale to other samples (Tabachnick, &

Fidell, 2007). Items that demonstrated skewness, kurtosis, central tendency, and/or only endorsed the high or low ends of the Likert-type scale were re-worded or eliminated at this stage.

Reliability analysis was conducted for the entire measure of the just leader scale, as well as the hypothesized dimensions of the scale (i.e., ability and belief). Reliability analyses were a bit premature at this point in the scale development as higher numbers of items may inflate reliability. However, the analysis served as an early indication that the scale would maintain reliability. Scale total reliability for the 29 items was $\alpha = .87$, which represents a solid level of reliability. The ability facet was $\alpha = .76$ and the belief facet was $\alpha = .80$. Previously explained item revisions and additions were hypothesized to further enhance the reliability of the finalized measure after Study Two.

The inter-item correlation matrix was assessed using SPSS to ensure variable associations of a similar construct and potential (unwanted) singularity (Field, 2005). Any items that demonstrated negative or no correlation with the other variables were deleted at this stage of item analysis. Additionally, variables were assessed for multicolinarity; any variables that correlated too highly ($r > .8$), indicating singularity, were also eliminated before the factor analyses.

Following the assessment of inter-item correlations, an exploratory factor analysis using maximum likelihood was performed. The factor analysis was conducted using an orthogonal varimax rotation and components were required to have eigenvalues of at least one. The correlation matrix indicated significant correlations, but many were below .3, thus, orthogonal rotation (varimax) would best fit the data (Nunnally & Bernstein,1994). Maximum likelihood

was optimal as parameter estimates were expected to be similar to the observed correlation matrix. Additionally, maximum likelihood extraction weighted the correlations by the inverse of the uniqueness of the variables. Varimax rotation was chosen to minimize the number of variables that have high loadings on each of the extracted factors. Items with low inter-item correlations, items that correlated with other dimensions more so than their hypothesized dimensions and items that did not load onto the hypothesized components were considered for elimination.

Results

Prior to performing the main analyses, frequency tables, distributions and univariate descriptive statistics were examined in order to determine normality for all the study variables. Analysis was performed using SPSS EXPLORE for evaluation of assumptions. All analyses were found to approximate normal distributions, descriptive statistics can be found on Tables 4 and 5. As discussed in the previous section, three demographic variables, gender, job level, and leadership experience, demonstrated significant differences across the dependent variables, interpersonal justice and informational justice. These three variables were entered into the study analyses as controls in each of the sequential regressions.

Sequential Regression Models

Separate hierarchal regressions were conducted to explore each hypothesis and sub-hypotheses in order to observe the predictive relationship among the justice variables and empathy, emotional intelligence, implicit person beliefs and moral ideology. As indicated by the correlations (found on Table 6), three out of four of the main predictor variables demonstrated positive relationships with both interpersonal and informational justice; however, there was

some variability found within the sub-constructs. These relationships are further explained within the regression results.

Hypothesis 1: Empathy and Interpersonal Justice. In order to determine the predictive power of empathy on interpersonal justice perceptions, over and above gender, job level, and leadership experience, a hierarchical regression was conducted (see Table 7). The first step, including gender, job level, and leadership experience, was significant $F_{inc}(14, 463) = 4.040$, $p < .001$, accounting for 11% of the variance in perceived interpersonal justice. After the demographic variables were placed into the model on the second step, the two empathy constructs were entered and accounted for an incremental 3.3% of the variance in interpersonal justice, $F_{\Delta}(2, 461) = 8.819$, $p < .001$, supporting Hypothesis 1. It follows that the omnibus test for step two was also significant, $F(16, 461) = 4.757$, $p < .001$. Both affective empathy and cognitive empathy were positively associated with interpersonal justice perceptions; however, only cognitive empathy's unique contribution was significant, $F(1, 461) = 6.774$, $p < .001$, supporting Hypothesis 1a- leaders' cognitive empathy positively predicted perceived interpersonal justice. While affective empathy did not uniquely predict perceived interpersonal justice, a review of the excluded variable statistics in the regression analysis indicated that affective empathy was a significant predictor independent of the other variables, $F(1, 462) = 10.729$, $p < .001$. Further sequential regression analysis controlling for the demographic variables with only affective empathy entered into the second step also indicated a significant change in variance accounted for, $R^2_{\Delta} = .020$. These additional analyses provided partial support for Hypothesis 1b, that affective empathy positively predicts interpersonal justice, and additionally indicated shared variance across cognitive and affective empathy.

Hypothesis 2: Empathy and Informational Justice. The hierarchical regression analysis used to assess the predictive power of empathy on informational justice, over and above gender, job level, and leadership experience can be found on Table 8. The first step including the control variables was significant, $F_{inc}(14, 463) = 4.270$, $p < .001$, as was the second step including the empathy variables, $F(16, 461) = 4.507$, $p < .001$. The addition of the empathy variables accounted for 2.1% more of the variance within informational justice, $F_{\Delta}(2, 461) = 5.579$, $p < .001$, supporting Hypothesis 2- leader empathy positively predicted informational justice perceptions. Neither cognitive empathy nor affective empathy significantly accounted for unique variance; however, both were directionally positive. The excluded variable regression analysis demonstrated that both cognitive empathy and affective empathy alone were significant predictors of informational justice, $F(1, 461) = 9.272$, $p < .01$ and $F(1, 461) = 8.097$, $p < .01$ respectively. Further regression analyses with each variable entered into the second step alone demonstrated that cognitive empathy accounted for 1.7%, and affective empathy accounted for 1.5% of the variance in informational justice. This additional analysis suggested partial support for Hypotheses 2a and 2b, such that cognitive and affective empathy both predicted informational justice perceptions in the positive direction, albeit only independently of each other.

Research Question 1. To further understand the relationship between the two empathy facets and organizational justice perceptions, Pearson product-moment correlations were conducted (see Table 6). As expected, cognitive empathy and affective empathy were positively related to each other. Cognitive empathy was significantly and positively associated to both

interpersonal justice and informational justice. Affective empathy was also significantly and positively related to interpersonal justice and informational justice.

The first research question called for a comparison of the relationships between the empathy facets and organizational justice facets to determine if either of the empathy variables had a stronger association with interpersonal justice or informational justice perceptions. To assess the differences between the relationships, two separate Hotelling's T/ Steiger's Z tests were performed, one to compare the two empathy relationships with interpersonal justice and one to compare the two empathy relationships with informational justice. Results indicated there was not a significant difference between the correlation between cognitive empathy and interpersonal justice and the correlation between affective empathy and interpersonal justice perceptions. Neither was there a significant difference between the correlations between cognitive empathy and informational justice and affective empathy and informational justice.

Hypothesis 3: Emotional Intelligence and Interpersonal Justice. To investigate the third hypothesis, stating that leaders' emotional intelligence was predictive of interpersonal justice, a sequential regression was conducted (See Table 9). The first step, controlling for gender, job level, and leadership experience, was significant, $F_{inc}(14, 463) = 4.04$, $p < .001$. The second step, including all four emotional intelligence variables was also significant, $F(18, 463) = 4.462$, $p < .001$. The four emotional intelligence variables accounted for an additional 4% of the variance in interpersonal justice perceptions, $F_{\Delta}(4, 459) = 5.400$, $p < .001$, supporting Hypothesis 3.

To evaluate the sub-hypotheses regarding each of the emotional intelligence facets, each of the coefficients were assessed for directionality and significance. Self-emotional appraisal was the only emotional intelligence facet to uniquely and significantly predict

interpersonal justice perceptions, $F(1, 459) = 17.477$, $p < .001$, supporting Hypotheses 3a. In addition to self-emotional appraisal, use of emotion was the only other emotional intelligence facet to demonstrate a positive association with interpersonal justice perceptions, $r(477) = .096$, $p < .001$; however, use of emotion did not significantly predict interpersonal justice over and above the control variables. The other two facets, other-emotional appraisal and regulation of emotion surprisingly demonstrated negative relationships with interpersonal justice, although neither was significant. These results, along with additional regression analysis conducted on the excluded variables all demonstrated a lack of support for Hypotheses 3b-d.

Hypothesis 4: Emotional Intelligence and Informational Justice. Sequential regression was used to investigate Hypothesis 4, that leaders' emotional intelligence positively predicts informational justice perceptions. After the control variables, gender, job level, and leadership experience were entered into the model, the omnibus test was significant, $F_{inc}(14, 463) = 4.270$, $p < .001$, as was the second step including the empathy variables, $F(18, 459) = 4.353$, $p < .001$. After entering the four emotional intelligence variables in step two, an incremental 3.1% of the variance in informational justice perceptions was accounted for, $F_{\Delta}(4, 459) = 4.228$, $p < .01$, offering support for Hypothesis 4 (see Table 10). As expected, leaders with higher levels of emotional intelligence are more likely to behave in ways that are perceived as more fair with information.

The analysis of the coefficients within the hierarchical regression was evaluated for Hypotheses 4a-d, investigating the associations of each of the emotional intelligence facets. Similar to the interpersonal justice results in Hypothesis 3, self-emotional appraisal was the only facet to uniquely and significantly predict informational justice perceptions $F(1, 459) =$

14.583, p <.001, supporting Hypothesis 4a. Surprisingly, the other three emotional intelligence facets did not demonstrate significant associations with informational justice perceptions, even when regressed independently of each other. Thus, Hypotheses 4b-c were not supported.

Research Question 2. Following the unexpected results for hypotheses three and four, it was important to further understand the differences among the relationships between the emotional intelligence facets and organizational justice perceptions. Pearson product-moment correlations were conducted to first understand the associations (see Table 6). As expected, all four emotional intelligence variables were positively associated with each other. Self-emotional appraisal was positively associated with both interpersonal justice and informational justice, whereas use of emotion was only significantly correlated with interpersonal justice perceptions. Neither other-emotional appraisal, nor regulation of emotion demonstrated significant correlations with either of the organizational justice variables.

The second research question compared the correlations between the emotional intelligence facts and justice constructs to determine if any of the emotional intelligence variables was a significantly stronger predictor. To assess the differences between the relationships, two separate Hotelling's T/ Steiger's Z tests were performed. As expected, results indicated there was a significant difference between self-emotional appraisal and other-emotion appraisal correlations with both interpersonal justice, $Z(3,475)= 3.30$, $p<.01$ and informational justice $Z(3,475)= 3.07$, $p<.01$. Similar differences among the associations were found between the self-emotional appraisal and regulation of emotion correlations with both interpersonal justice, $Z(3,475)= 3.880$, $p<.01$ and informational justice, $Z(3,475)= 3.60$, $p<.01$. The only other comparison found to be significant was the differences between the use-of-

emotion and interpersonal justice association and the non-significant regulation of emotion and interpersonal justice association. These correlations were significantly different from each other, $Z(3,475)= 2.12$, $p<.01$. All other comparisons were not found to differ significantly from each other, which is not surprising, given that many of the correlations did not significantly differ from zero themselves. To summarize the findings of research question two, the self-emotional appraisal construct is by far the best predictor of both interpersonal and informational justice perceptions across all four emotional intelligence variables. Use of emotion, is the only other of the four variables to demonstrate a significantly different relationship with interpersonal justice perceptions.

Hypothesis 5: Implicit Person Beliefs and Interpersonal Justice. Sequential regression was used to investigate Hypothesis 5, that higher levels of implicit person beliefs would positively predict higher levels of interpersonal justice perceptions (see Table 11). The omnibus test for the first step, controlling for gender, job level, and leadership experience was significant, $F_{inc}(14, 463) = 4.04$, $p <.001$. The second step, including both the non-entity belief and incrementalist belief variables, was also significant, $F(16, 461) = 5.422$, $p <.001$. The implicit person belief variables accounted for an additional 5% of the variance in interpersonal justice perceptions, $F_{\Delta}(2, 461) = 13.557$, $p <.001$; however, the directional results were mixed for the predictor variables. As expected, non-entity beliefs positively and significantly predicted interpersonal justice, $\beta = .245$, $F(1, 461) = 23.812$, $p<.001$, but unexpectedly, incrementalist beliefs significantly predicted interpersonal justice in a negative direction, $\beta = -.200$, $F(1, 461) = 15.400$, $p<.001$. These results lend only partial support for Hypothesis 5, full support of Hypothesis 5a- that non-entity beliefs positively predict interpersonal justice perceptions, and a

lack of support for Hypothesis 5b- that incrementalist beliefs positively predict interpersonal justice perceptions.

Hypothesis 6: Implicit Person Beliefs and Informational Justice. To assess the predictive power of implicit person beliefs on informational justice, a sequential regression was conducted, controlling for gender, job level, and leadership experience (see Table 12). Step one was significant, $F_{inc}(14, 463) = 4.270$, $p < .001$, as was the second step including the implicit person belief variables, $F(16, 461) = 5.812$, $p < .001$. The implicit person variables accounted for an incremental 5.4% of the variance in informational justice perceptions, $F_{\Delta}(2, 461) = 14.826$, $p < .001$. Similar to Hypothesis 5, the implicit person variables were mixed directionally. Non-entity beliefs positively and significantly influenced informational justice $\beta = .240$, $F(1, 461) = 23.166$, $p<.001$, however, incrementalist beliefs significantly predicted interpersonal justice in a negative direction, $\beta = -.229$, $F(1, 461) = 20.555$, $p<.001$. These results partially supported Hypothesis 6, such that Hypothesis 6a that non-entity beliefs were positively predictive of informational justice perceptions was supported; however, Hypothesis 6b that incrementalist beliefs were positively predictive of informational justice was unsupported.

Research Question 3. Following the unexpected results for Hypotheses 5 and 6, it was expected that the correlations between non-entity beliefs and the organizational justice facets were significantly different than the correlations between incrementalists beliefs and the organizational justice perceptions (see Table 6). The Hotelling's T/ Steiger's Z tests confirmed these differences. The correlation between non-entity beliefs and interpersonal justice and the correlation between incrementalist beliefs and interpersonal justice were statistically different, $Z(3,475)= 5.91$, $p<.01$. Similarly, the correlations between non-entity beliefs and informational

justice and the correlation between incrementalist beliefs and interpersonal justice were statistically different, $Z(3,475) = 6.38$, $p<.01$. However, these differences were only significantly different due to the direction of their association. Hotelling's T/ Steiger's Z tests assessing the potential differences of predictive power (using the absolute value of the correlation), were not significant.

Hypothesis 7: Moral Ideology and Interpersonal Justice. To test Hypothesis 7, that higher levels of moral ideology predict higher levels of perceived interpersonal justice, a hierarchical regression was conducted (see Table 13). After the first step controlling for gender, job level and leadership experience, step one was significant, $F_{inc}(14, 463) = 4.04$, $p <.001$. The second step, including both the moral idealism and moral relativism variables, was also significant, $F(16, 461) = 4.363$, $p <.001$. The moral ideology variables accounted for an additional 6.6% of the variance in interpersonal justice perceptions, $F_{\Delta}(2, 461) = 18.459$, $p <.001$. However, the idealism was not a unique significant predictor and the beta coefficient for moral relativism was in the negative direction, demonstrating the opposite expected effect. Results suggested lower levels of moral relativism were more predictive of having higher levels of perceived interpersonal justices.

To further investigate the relationship between the moral ideology facets and interpersonal justice, the unique contributions of each variable were assessed within the sequential regression. Moral relativism was significant as a unique predictor, $F(1, 461) = 36.669$, $p <.001$, yet in the negative direction. Unexpectedly, lower levels of moral relativism were predictive of greater perceptions of interpersonal justice. Moral idealism was not a significant

predictor within the regression equation, nor was it correlated to interpersonal justice perceptions independently. Thus, Hypothesis 7a and 7b were not supported.

Hypothesis 8: Moral Ideology and Informational Justice. Similar to previous hypotheses, a hierarchical regression was conducted to evaluate Hypothesis 8- that higher levels of moral ideology predict higher levels of perceived informational justice (see Table 14). The omnibus test for the control variables gender, job level, and leadership experience was significant, $F_{inc}(14, 463) = 4.270$, $p < .001$, as was the second step including the two moral ideology variables, $F(16, 461) = 5.901$, $p < .001$. The moral ideology variables accounted for an incremental 5.6% of the variance in informational justice perceptions, $F_{\Delta}(2, 461) = 15.455$, $p < .001$. However, support for Hypothesis 8 was unfounded. Moral idealism was not a unique predictor of informational justice and moral relativism, although significant, was directionally negative. Lower levels of moral relativism predicted higher levels of perceived informational justice, $F(1, 461) = 30.859$, $p < .001$. Hypothesis 8a and 8b were not supported.

Research Question 4. Similar to the previous three research questions, it was important to understand differences between the associations of the moral ideology variables with organizational justice. To explore these differences, a Hotelling's T/ Steiger's Z tests were used. The correlation between moral relativism and interpersonal justice was significant; however, the correlation between moral idealism and interpersonal justice was not significant. As expected, the Hotelling's T/Steiger's Z test confirmed these relationships were significantly different, $Z(3,475) = 5.46$, $p < .01$. Similarly, there was a significant correlation between moral relativism and informational justice, but the relationship between moral idealism and informational justice was not significant. The Hotelling's T/Steiger's Z test confirmed these

relationships were significantly different, $Z(3,475)= 4.67$, $p<.01$. In total, moral relativism demonstrated a statistically significant different relationship with organizational justice than moral idealism; however, the nature of that relationship was not in the expected direction.

Hypothesis 9: Predictive Variable Relationships. To test Hypothesis 9 regarding the expected positive relationships between the four constructs of empathy, emotional intelligence, implicit person beliefs, and moral ideology, Pearson product-moment correlations were conducted (see Table 6). As expected, most predictor variables demonstrated significant, positive relationships with each other, except non-entity beliefs and moral relativism. Non-entity beliefs did not have significant relationships with three of the four emotional intelligence facets. Use of emotion was the only significant correlation between higher non-entity beliefs and higher emotional intelligence. Non-entity beliefs was positively associated with affective empathy, cognitive empathy, and the higher-order empathy construct. Moral relativism only had positive relationships with other emotion appraisal, use of emotion, regulation of emotion, emotional intelligence, and incremental beliefs.

Provided the unexpected sub-factor results demonstrated in Hypotheses 3 through 8, post-hoc analyses investigating the sub-factor associations was deemed appropriate. All Pearson product-moment correlations were explored across sub-factors (see Table 6). As hypothesized, both cognitive and affective empathy were positively and significantly associated with all the sub-factors of emotional intelligence and implicit person theory, but surprisingly, they were only positively associated with the sub-factor of moral idealism. Affective empathy demonstrated a significant negative correlation with moral relativism, with which cognitive empathy had no association.

As expected, all four sub-factors of emotional intelligence demonstrated significant positive associations with both empathy variables, incremental beliefs, and moral idealism. However, use of emotion was the only sub-factor to demonstrate a positive relationship with non-entity beliefs. None of the emotional intelligence sub-factors demonstrated significance with moral relativism.

Beyond what has previously been mentioned, non-entity beliefs did not demonstrate any further positive associations, but did have a significant negative association with moral relativism. As can be deduced, moral idealism demonstrated positive, significant relationships with all sub-factors of emotional intelligence and empathy. For implicit person theory, moral idealism had no association with non-entity beliefs, but a significant positive correlation with incremental beliefs. Moral relativism demonstrated significant negative relationships with affective empathy and non-entity beliefs; it had a positive association with only one sub-factor, incremental beliefs. In total, Hypothesis 9 was largely supported with a few exceptions with the non-entity beliefs and moral relativism variables.

Hypothesis 10: Predictive Variable Strength. To continue the examination of the relationships among the predictor variables, Hotelling's T/Steiger's Z tests were performed to understand if empathy and emotional intelligence were more closely related than other combinations (Hypothesis 10a and 10b; see Table 6). Similarly, it was expected that implicit person beliefs and moral ideology would demonstrate stronger associations than the other combinations (Hypothesis 10c and 10d).

For Hypothesis 10a, the association between empathy and emotional intelligence was compared to the correlation between empathy and moral ideology and the correlation

between empathy and implicit person beliefs. In support of Hypothesis 10a, there was a significant difference between these relationships such that empathy demonstrated a stronger association with emotional intelligence than it did with moral ideology, $Z(3,475)= 7.877$, $p<.01$ and implicit person beliefs, $Z(3,475)= 2.35$, $p<.01$.

To further explore this finding, the empathy-to-emotional intelligence association was also compared to empathy's associations with the sub-factors of moral ideology and implicit person theory, given the unexpected results across sub-factors thus far. There was an expected significant difference between the empathy-to-emotional intelligence correlation and the empathy and non-entity relationship $Z(3,475)= 3.43$, $p<.01$, as well as the empathy and incremental relationship $Z(3,475)= 5.15$, $p<.01$. In the same expected direction, there was a significant difference between the empathy-to-emotional intelligence association from empathy's correlations with moral idealism $Z(3,475)= 2.44$, $p<.05$ and moral relativism $Z(3,475)= 11.43$, $p<.01$.

For Hypothesis 10b, the association between emotional intelligence and empathy was compared to the correlation between emotional intelligence and moral ideology and the correlation between emotional intelligence and implicit person beliefs. In support of Hypothesis 10b, there was a significant difference between these relationships such that emotional intelligence demonstrated a stronger association with empathy than with moral ideology, $Z(3,475)= 2.72$, $p<.01$, and implicit person beliefs, $Z(3,475)= 6.32$, $p<.01$.

To further support these results, the emotional intelligence-to-empathy association was also compared to emotional intelligence's correlation with the sub-factors of moral ideology and implicit person theory. There was an expected significant difference between the

emotional intelligence-to-empathy correlation and the emotional intelligence-to-non-entity relationship $Z(3,475)= 9.42$, $p<.01$, as well as the emotional intelligence-to- incremental beliefs relationship $Z(3,475)= 3.31$, $p<.01$. Similarly expected, there was a significant difference between the emotional intelligence-to-empathy association and the emotional intelligence-to-moral relativism correlation $Z(3,475)= 6.41$, $p<.01$; however, the difference between the emotional intelligence-to-empathy correlation and emotional intelligence-to-moral idealism association was non-significant. Therefore, emotional intelligence demonstrated stronger associations with empathy than with all the other variable sub factors except moral idealism, where there was no difference in strength between the associations.

For Hypothesis 10c, the association between implicit person beliefs and moral ideology was compared to the correlation between implicit person beliefs and empathy and the correlation between implicit person beliefs and emotional intelligence. In the opposite direction of what was hypothesized, implicit person beliefs demonstrated a stronger association with empathy than moral ideology, $Z(3,475)= -5.81$, $p<.01$. Similarly, implicit person beliefs had a stronger association with emotional intelligence than with moral ideology, $Z(3,475)= -3.18$, $p<.01$.

Non-entity and moral idealism. It was important to further explore these relationships, however, given the sub-factor differences. First, the non-entity-to-moral idealism association was compared against the other construct pairings. Counter to hypothesis 10c, the non-entity-to-moral idealism correlation was significantly different than the non-entity-to-empathy association, but in the opposite direction $Z(3,475)= -7.09$, $p<.01$. Likewise, when compared to

the association between non-entity and emotional intelligence, the non-entity-to-moral idealism correlation was not statistically different.

*Incremental beliefs and moral idealism. T*he exploration of the other sub-factor of implicit person beliefs, incremental beliefs, led to similar findings. The correlation between incremental beliefs and moral idealism was not statistically different than the association between incremental beliefs and empathy. The correlation between incremental beliefs and moral idealism was also not statistically different than the correlation between incremental beliefs and emotional intelligence.

Non-entity and moral relativism. Similar comparisons were conducted to assess the strength of the non-entity-to-moral relativism correlations compared to the others. Similar to other findings, there was a significant difference between the correlations of non-entity-to-moral relativism and non-entity to empathy, yet in the opposite direction than originally hypothesized, $Z(3,475)= -8.81$, $p<.01$. Likewise, the correlation between non-empathy and moral relativism was compared to the correlation between non-empathy and emotional intelligence; the difference was significant but also in the direction opposite of what was first hypothesized, $Z(3,475)= -4.75$, $p<.01$.

Incremental beliefs and moral relativism. A final round of comparisons was explored for Hypothesis 10c, comparing the association between incremental beliefs and moral relativism against the associations between incremental beliefs and empathy and emotional intelligence. There was a significant difference between the correlations across incremental beliefs and moral relativism against incremental beliefs and empathy, yet in the opposite direction than expected, $Z(3,475)= -2.20$, $p<.05$. Likewise, the comparison between the incremental beliefs-to-

moral relativism correlation against the incremental beliefs-to-emotional intelligence correlation was also significant, but in the unexpected direction, $Z(3,475)= -2.66$, $p<.01$.

In all, Hypothesis 10c was not supported. Not only were the correlations between the main variables opposite of the hypothesized direction, but all of the comparisons across the sub-factors were either not significantly different or unexpectedly negative.

For Hypothesis 10d, the association between moral ideology and implicit person beliefs was compared to the correlation between moral ideology and empathy. There was no significant difference between the correlations, $Z(3,475)= -1.51$, $p<$ *ns.* The correlation between moral ideology and implicit person belief was also compared to the correlation between moral ideology and emotional intelligence. In the opposite expected direction, there was a difference between these two relationships, $Z(3,475)= -5.62$, $p<.01$. The relationship between moral ideology and emotional intelligence was stronger than the one between moral ideology and implicit person beliefs. Similar to the exploration of the sub-factors for the other three Hypotheses, the association between the moral ideology sub-factors and the other study variables were compared.

Moral idealism and non-entity beliefs. The association between moral idealism and non-entity beliefs was compared to the correlation between moral idealism and empathy, $Z(3,475)= -8.71$, $p<.01$, and the correlation between moral idealism and emotional intelligence, $Z(3,475)= -9.26$, $p<.01$. Both comparisons, while significant, were in the opposite direction than expected.

Moral idealism and incremental beliefs. The correlation between moral idealism and incremental beliefs was contrasted against the correlation between moral idealism and empathy, $Z(3,475)= -2.08$, $p<.05$, as well as the correlation between moral idealism and

emotional intelligence, $Z(3,475)= -4.55$, $p<.01$. Both comparisons were in the opposite direction than hypothesized.

Moral relativism and non-entity beliefs. The relationship between moral relativism and non-entity beliefs was compared to the association between moral relativism and empathy, $Z(3,475)= -2.40$, $p<.01$, and the correlation between moral relativism and emotional intelligence, $Z(3,475)= -5.60$, $p<.01$. Both comparisons, while significant, were in the opposite direction than expected.

Moral relativism and incremental beliefs. The correlation between moral relativism and incremental beliefs was contrasted against the association between moral relativism and empathy, $Z(3,475)= 6.19$, $p<.01$, indicating a significant difference in the hypothesized direction. A final comparison was conducted between the association across moral relativism and incremental beliefs and the correlation between moral relativism and emotional intelligence; however, there was no significant difference between these two correlations.

In total, Hypothesis 10d was not supported. The higher-order correlations were not in the expected direction. All sub-factor comparisons were also opposite of the expected direction or non-significant except when the correlations between moral relativism and incremental beliefs was compared to the association between moral relativism and empathy.

Hypothesis 11: Item Analysis and Construct Validity. Following the results of hypotheses one through ten, piloted items were analyzed for further removal. This was particularly the case for items derived from scales that did not demonstrate positive relationships with interpersonal and informational justice (i.e., other emotional appraisal, regulation of emotion, incremental beliefs, and moral relativism). To guide this process,

Pearson-product moment correlations were conducted between the sample items and the organizational justice variables (see Table 2). Nine items from the pilot were marked for removal from further study due to their negative relationships with the criterion variables, not surprising given their alignment with the study constructs that demonstrated similar relationships. Two of the nine had already been marked for removal due to content validity ratios.

Prior to performing the inferential statistics, item-level data distributions and descriptive statistics were first examined in order to determine normality and linearity for all variables. Item skewness, kurtosis, variance, means, and standard deviations were examined for normality and central-tendency. No further items were eliminated at this point in the analysis; many were already marked for revision through the content development process. For a complete list of means and standard deviations for all items, see Table 2.

Inter-item correlations using the *R*-matrix were examined for singularity and lack of association. Any variable that did not demonstrate significant correlations with a majority of the other variables was marked for removal or revision. As expected, the vast majority of the remaining 29 items were positively correlated with most of the other items. There were a few significant negative correlations, including Item 27 with Item 14 (r= -.104, p<.05), Item 44 with Item 26 (r= -.114, p<.05), Item 44 with Item 27 (r= -.197, p<.05), Item 47 with Item 26 (r= -.106, p<.05), Item 47 with Item 27 (r= -.144, p<.05), and Item 44 with Item 33 (r= -.098, p<.05). The following four items were flagged as items to carefully scrutinize in Study 2, but were not removed at this point as all demonstrated positive relationships with the criterion: 26, 27, 33, and 44.

There were no correlations above .80, so no variables were eliminated for being too highly associated. In fact, the correlations ranged from r = -.144 to .724; most correlations fell within a range of r =.150 to .350. These findings indicate that there was no threat of singularity, and there was a moderate correlation among most variables. As expected, the determinant was significant at a level less than .0001, which is beyond than the necessary value. This statistic further confirms that multicolinarity was not a concern (Fields, 2005). Lastly, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test of sphericity were conducted, KMO= .876; X^2 (300, N= 478) = 4296.89, p <.000. The KMO was considered good (nearing superb) according to Hutcheson and Sofroniou (1999). The proximity 1.0 indicated that the patterns of correlations are relatively succinct and factor analysis was deemed appropriate for continued analysis. Additionally, the significance of Bartlett's measure, indicating a non-zero relationship among the variables, was further support of the appropriateness of factor analysis.

Exploratory Factor Analysis. An exploratory factor analysis using maximum likelihood with orthogonal (varimax) rotation was performed. There were 25 remaining variables that were included in the analysis. Unexpectedly, the factor analysis with varimax rotation revealed five components with eigenvalues greater than one. The extraction sums of squares loadings are displayed in Table 15. Eigenvalues of the factors from the rotated matrix were interpreted in the analysis because rotation has the effect of optimizing the relative importance of the five factors (Field, 2005). The five extracted factors accounted for 44.95% of the variance among the items. The first factor uniquely accounted for 12.6% of the variance, followed by 11.9% for factor two, 9.4% for factor three, 7.4% for factor four, and 3.7% for factor five. The extraction

communalities ranged from .190 to .778, representing the common variance associated with each item and an absence of outliers.

Table 16 demonstrates the rotated component matrix. Item loadings of .4 or greater were considered significant contributors to the given component. The majority of the factor loadings were in the correct direction, including items 1, 8, 9, 14, 15, and 20 loading onto the ability factor (i.e., factor one) and items 29, 30, 31, 32, 35, and 46 loading onto the belief factor (i.e., factor two). Only one item loaded onto the opposite factor than expected, item 34, which reads, “In today’s business world, there is no time for second chances.” Item 34 was originally written to reflect implicit person beliefs; however, it understandably is related to empathy. Three other items related to implicit theory beliefs (items 47, 49, and 50) were among the ten items that loaded onto factors three through five. In fact, the three implicit theory items were the only three to load onto factor four. The other seven items, all intended to contribute to the ability factor were spread across factor three, including items 3,4,12,23, and 24, and factor five, including item 10 and 13. Item 10 and 13 also demonstrated a strong association with factor one, which was the expected factor. Item 2 and 5 did not meet the .4 load criteria for any of the five factors.

According to Kaiser’s criterion of eigenvalues over one, there are five components extracted from the varimax rotation; however, with communalities less than 0.7, Kaiser’s rule may not be appropriate. It is also important to observe the scree plot (see Figure 1). The scree plot indicates an “elbow” bend after the second component and another, more subtle, bend after the fifth. This was mirrored by the unique variance accounted for and the eigenvalues, as only the first two factors had eigenvalues over two, leaving room for interpretation and partial

support for Hypothesis 11, that the Just Leader construct was measured with two independent factors.

Further exploration of a two-factor model was conducted with an additional factor analysis, for which the extraction was based on a fixed number of factors (i.e., two), rather than eigenvalues over one. The communalities of the items within the two-factor model decreased, as expected, but remained within a range of .161 to .565. Total variance explained by the two factors was 33.7%. Table 17 and Table 18 reflect the two-factor sums of squared loadings and rotated factor loadings.

Item loadings on the two-factor model were similar to the five-factor model such that the majority of items loaded in the expected direction. Two of the seven items (10 and 13) that had not previously loaded onto either of the two main factors demonstrated loadings over .4 on the ability factor, as expected. However, the other five items (2, 3, 4, 12, 23 and 24) unexpectedly loaded onto the belief factor (i.e., factor two). Items 47, 49, and 50, all items reflective of implicit theory beliefs, surprisingly loaded onto factor one, the ability factor. Item 5 did not load onto either factor.

In summary, Hypothesis 11 was partially supported, suggesting that the Just Leader Scale was measured with two independent factors, though argument could be made otherwise. No further items were marked for revision or deletion; however Item 5 was considered. The decision to retain the item was made partially due to the other surprises in factor loadings. For the ability factor, seven items loaded as expected however six did not. For the belief factor, six items loaded as expected; however four did not. These results led to a post hoc exploration into why items loaded in the manner that they did. Upon reflection, it was identified that all of the

reverse-scored items loaded onto factor one and the regularly scored items loaded onto factor two. The unexpected results were potentially influenced by item construction. This hypothesis, as well as the factor structure was further explored in Study Two.

Study One Discussion

Construct Exploration. The first study set the foundation for ongoing research and development of the Just Leader measure. The measure was intended to assess individual differences across two main facets predictive of perceived organizational justice. Study one assessed the predictive power of empathy, emotional intelligence, moral ideology, and implicit person theory on perceived interpersonal and informational justice. It was hypothesized that leaders with higher scores on the Just Leader measure would likely act in ways perceived to fair and just by their employees. The intent of Study One was to empirically test the hypothesized relationships between the four predictive constructs with interpersonal and informational justice. A secondary goal of Study One was to pilot the new Just Leader items. The new items were grounded within the four main constructs, hypothesized to load onto two distinct factors, ability and belief. The intent of the new scale was to maximize the most predictive elements of the four constructs in the most concise manner possible.

In a unique study design, participants took a survey including all four constructs, the new pilot items for the Just Leader scale, and completed two scenario responses indicating how they were likely to respond. The scenarios asked the participants to deliver poor performance results to one employee and terminate another employee due to business results. The participant responses were evaluated by blind subject matter experts for their interpersonal and informational justice. Thus, participant survey responses served as the independent

variables and the justice perceptions, as rated by the subject matter experts were the dependent variables.

Empathy, the first of the four constructs was predicted to have a positive predictive relationship with interpersonal and informational justice, over and above other covariates such as gender, the level of the participant within their organization, and length of leadership experience. Study One results provided evidence of the empathy-justice relationship, with no significant differences between the strength of the associations of cognitive empathy and affective empathy, with interpersonal and informational justice.

Emotional intelligence also demonstrated the expected predictive associations with interpersonal and informational justice. The interesting results occurred within the sub-facets of emotional intelligence. While they were all predicted to be positively associated with interpersonal and informational justice, only the self-emotional appraisal sub-facet demonstrated a significant relationship with both outcomes. Other-emotional appraisal demonstrated a significant predictive relationship with the interpersonal justice dependent variable only. This surprising finding was further supported through post-hoc analysis of the piloted Just Leader items. Items that were derived from the non-significant sub-facets were also not significantly correlated with interpersonal and informational justice. Due to this result, those items were not further explored as potential scale items in Study Two.

Implicit person beliefs were also significant predictors of interpersonal and informational justice. Non-entity beliefs were predictive in the positive direction, whereas incremental beliefs demonstrated negative associations, which was unexpected. After triple-checking the reverse coding process and still finding the same results, it was concluded that

there may possibly be a method effect. The non-entity items were reverse-coded incremental items, whereas the incremental items were normally scored. The reverse-scored items came about later in the development of the scale as a means to counter-balance the attractiveness of the incremental items (Chiu, Hong & Dweck, 1997). At the same time, the authors revised the incremental items to be even stronger (i.e., increase the difficulty). While studies have demonstrated the reliability and validity of the revised eight-item measure (i.e., the measure used in this study), the current study suggests the implicit person theory scale measures two distinct constructs of incremenatlism, particularly as they relate to interpersonal and informational justice.

Additional post-hoc analysis investigated the categorical nature of the implicit person beliefs scale as some previous studies have used the scale in that manner (e.g., Butler, 2000; Chiu et al., 1997; Heslin, 2002). When used as categorical variables rather than continuous, participants that do not endorse strong beliefs on one end or the other are excluded from the analysis. When other studies have used the categorical variable, they have observed about 10% of the sample with mean scores between 3.0 and 4.0, the range deemed as unclassified compared to the top and bottom scores (Levy et al., 1998). However, following the same process for this study left over 38% within the unclassified range. Not only would this process have discounted an egregious amount of the data, but conclusions from the results were not different. Based on the study results and the post-hoc analysis, more emphasis was placed on expanding the potential influence of non-entity-related items (i.e., reverse-coded implicit person theory items) in ongoing work to refine the Just Leader measure.

The fourth and final construct, moral ideology also demonstrated surprising results. Once again, the construct variables were significantly predictive, in the unexpected direction. Lower levels of moral relativism were predictive of higher levels of perceived justice. To assist in interpretation, recall that moral relativism is the degree to which people accept universal ethical rules. Thus, leaders that believe ethical decisions should flex based on situational influences (i.e., relative to the circumstances surrounding the situation), responded in ways that were perceived as fair. Moral idealism, while in the expected (positive) direction, was not a unique significant predictor. Recall that moral idealism involves the extent to which situational circumstances justify harm to others' dignity, welfare, or well-being. Those that believe firmly that no situation justifies any type of harm were rated as having higher perceived fairness in their responses; however, this trend was only directional, not significant.

While the unexpected results of the inverse relationship between moral relativism and interpersonal and informational justice is worth much more investigation, it was beyond the scope of this study. Thus, more emphasis was placed on items related to moral idealism in the further exploration and development of the Just Leader measure.

Factor Structure. Preliminary descriptive and correlation analysis helped to narrow an original 50 items down to 25 items that were then entered into the exploratory factor analysis. The original unconstrained exploratory factor analysis indicated as many as five factors, far more than the anticipated two factors. Of those five factors, the two expected factors emerged, the ability factor and the belief factor; however, the ability factor seemed only to be comprised of reverse-scored items. The remaining items were spread across three smaller factors including one holding the implicit theory items, one that seemed to be comprised of the

positively worded empathy items, and one comprised of the two remaining reverse-coded empathy items.

An interpretation of the results, although somewhat subjective, seemed to suggest there were distinct differences between what was intended to be the ability factor and the belief factor. There were also observable differences between normally-scored items and reverse-scored items. A second factor model, with a forced two-factor framework, further supported this finding. Items had more in common with other items that were similarly scored than they did the constructs they were intended to measure. Certainly, a method effect could have been at play, further investigation into that theory was carried on throughout Study Two.

*New Item Generation***.** As a final step before moving onto Study Two, the remaining items were assessed again for content validity. From the original list of 50 items, 25 remained on the list of potential items. Of the 25, 16 were more aligned with the proposed *ability* facet, stemming from empathy and emotional intelligence, leaving only 9 on the *belief* facet, focusing more on moral idealism and non-entity beliefs, specifically. Many of the items deleted due to negative associations with interpersonal and informational justice were similar to moral relativism and incrementalist beliefs, consistent with Study One results. After all hypothesis testing was complete for Study One, results were used to construct six new pilot items to increase options for final selection and balance the number of items in each facet (see Table 3).

In all, Study One demonstrated expected relationships across many of the constructs, both with interpersonal and informational justice, but also with each other. In Study Two, much focus was placed on observing the expected relationships among the newly developed Just Leader items. While theoretical rationale still suggested two main facets of the Just Leader

measure (i.e. ability and beliefs), results from Study One suggested the merit of considering other frameworks.

Study Two

In a continuation of efforts to establish the new Just Leader measure, Study Two aimed to further assess individual scale items and establish dimensionality and validity of the Just Leader measure. In Study One, a refined list of 35 Just Leader items was constructed to validate in Study Two (see Table 19). The second round of measurement development included a separate sample of working adults, serving as a cross-validation sample. The items were subjected to further psychometric analysis through item response measurement and confirmatory factor analysis. Final analysis included validation of both the predictive qualities of the scale on the expected criterion and its incremental validity amongst the nomonological net of related constructs.

Psychometric Properties

Because classical test theory indices are sample-dependent, many researchers turn to item response theory to assess an item's indication of the intended latent traits (Hulin, Drasgow, & Parsons, 1984; Schmitt & Drasgow, 2002). Latent trait measurement includes an assessment of each item's response curve (IRC) that describes the relationship between the individual's level of the measured construct ("true score" denoted by ϑ) and the endorsement of that specific item. The IRC is typically comprised of the item's difficulty (the "*B*" parameter) and its discriminatory ability to distinguish "true scores" (ϑ) from one another (the "*A*" parameter; Reise & Waller, 2002). Notably, the second parameter is highly debated amongst

Rasch (1-parameter) model enthusiasts; however, that debate was beyond the scope of this study. An evaluation of the parameter estimates would provide insight into each item's utility in measuring the intended construct.

Research Question 5: To what extent did the proposed Just Leaders items fit the proposed model?

Construct Validity

Confirmatory Factor Analysis. Following the exploratory analysis conducted in Study One, it was necessary to empirically test the theoretical factor structure of the Just Leader measure with a confirmatory factor analysis. A few differences exist between the two methods of analysis, most notably, confirmatory factor analysis looks beyond correlations among the observed variables to take into account the variances and covariances of the observed responses. The exploratory factor analysis in Study One helped to understand the potential underlying factors, yet it allowed items to load onto all factors. The confirmatory factor analysis conducted in Study Two tested different theoretical models with the refined Study Two items, providing both global and local fit, as well as significance determinants for item loadings, error variance loadings and covariance loadings.

The confirmatory factor analysis on the measurement model was conducted in Mplus 7.4 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998- 2015). The hypothesized two-factor underlying structure of the measure was tested against a fully saturated model and a one-factor model. In addition, two other a priori nested models were assessed and are further discussed below. The alternative models were hypothesized comparisons driven by both theoretical and empirical rationale.

Similar to typical confirmatory factor analysis studies, the first comparison tested the unidimensional composition of the measure using a one factor model.

The second a priori model was conceptualized from the exploratory factor analysis in Study One. When modeled onto two forced factors, some items loaded onto hypothesized factors and some did not. Upon further investigation, it appeared that positively coded items were loading onto the first factor, whereas reverse coded items loaded onto the second, suggesting the possibility of a measurement method effect. The potential method effect was tested using a bi-dimensional factor model.

The third model comparison was conceptually derived from Study One's results for Hypothesis 9 and 10, testing the strength of the relationships among the study constructs. As indicated on Table 6, empathy had a strong association with emotional intelligence (as expected), but also moral idealism and non-entity beliefs. Further exploration indicated that the sub-constructs demonstrated different relationships with the other variables. As an example, cognitive empathy displayed a stronger association with emotional intelligence, and its sub-factors, than did affective empathy. Given this observation, the third model tested was a three factor model in which the two empathy constructs were separated based on their alliance with the cognitive factor or the affective factor. In this analysis, special attention was placed on the residuals for covariance and correlation, particularly the moral idealism and non-entity belief items, as they too demonstrated surprising results in Study One. To expand, non-entity beliefs and moral idealism were not significantly correlated, yet both were correlated with the other three predictor constructs. Therefore, their residuals were investigated for similar behaviors in Study Two.

***Hypothesis 12*:** The Just Leader construct was best measured using two main factors.

Convergent Validity. The third step in establishing construct validity for the Just Leader measure is to examine the nomological net surrounding the Just Leader scale. The extent to which the Just Leader measure demonstrated convergent and discriminant validity was examined.

Convergent validity was assessed by observing the relationships between the Just Leader measure and other measures purporting to measure similar constructs (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). As such, it was expected that the Just Leader measure would demonstrate strong positive relationships with the four constructs from which it was derived (i.e., empathy, emotional intelligence, incrementalism, and moral ideology).

***Hypothesis 13*:** The Just Leader measure demonstrated a positive association with empathy, emotional intelligence, incrementalist beliefs, and moral ideology.

Discriminant Validity. Discriminant validity was assessed through an examination of the Just Leader measure and other measures that were conceptually distinct (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). It was important to demonstrate that the Just Leader measure assessed a construct that is different than other individual difference measures such as the five-factor model (FFM) of personality traits (i.e., conscientiousness, openness, extroversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism; Goldberg, 1995; McCrae & Costa, 1997). The FFM personality variables were a good basis of comparison, particularly because they are utilized widely in pre-employment

screening due to their strong relationships with job performance (Hogan & Holland, 2003; Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002). Because the Just Leader measure was intended to be used for pre-employment screening, it made sense to demonstrate its divergence from the FFM. It was expected that the Just Leader measure would have little to no relationship with the each of the five-factor model variables.

***Hypothesis 14*:** The Just Leader constructs would demonstrate positive associations with the four core constructs (empathy, emotional intelligence, incrementalism and moral ideology) and five personality traits (conscientiousness, openness, extroversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism), yet the associations between the Just Leader constructs and four core constructs were expected to be stronger than those between the Just Leader constructs and the five personality traits.

Criterion Validity

Arguably one of the most important validities to establish, criterion validity asserts that the tool measures traits that are predictive of the intended outcome (Chronbach & Gleser, 1965). Specifically for this study, could it be empirically established that the Just Leader Measure is predictive of organizationally just behaviors?

Similar to the analysis conducted in Study One, the positive and predictive association of the Just Leader measure on organizationally just behaviors was assessed. However, Study Two includes actual perceptions of organizational justice from employees that work for the study participants, rather that asking participants to respond to a scenario, as in Study 1. This approach introduces additional variance to the analysis; however, it is undeniably more

realistic. Using self-report predictor variables is also highly realistic, as that is how the measure might be used in a pre-employment setting within an organization. Prior to practical use, it was essential that the predictive power of the Just leader be assessed.

***Hypothesis 15*:** The Just Leader measure will predict perceived interactional justice.

Incremental Validity. As a final test of validity, incremental validity, an extension of content validity was evaluated. Incremental validity was important to evaluate with regard to the larger nomological net, as it would demonstrate that the new measure of Just Leadership adds to the greater body of knowledge by predicting the intended outcome over and above other existing measures. Further, should this tool, or versions of it, ever be used as intended, it was imperative to demonstrate incremental validity to establish utility and defensibility of the measure. Organizations and practitioners are likely to resist adding new measures to the already lengthy pre-employment assessment batteries; to do so requires strong evidence of utility. To establish incremental validity, analysis was conducted to determine if the Just Leader measure could predict organizationally just perceptions over and above other independent measures.

Hypothesis 16: The Just Leader measure positively predicted organizationally just perceptions over and above the five core personality traits (i.e., agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, openness, extroversion).

Method

Participants

There were two separate samples of working-adult participants for Study Two. Sample one consisted of level-one data only (working adults), whereas sample two consisted of two levels of data (boss/direct report dyads). Both samples were collected simultaneously. Notably, participant data from sample two was also used in sample one to help achieve the required sample size estimations and to efficiently utilize the collected data.

Participants were recruited to complete an online survey containing the Just Leader measure items as well as other similar constructs in accordance with the study (see demographic survey in Appendix A). A survey link, including the informed consent was sent by email to participants. Participants were asked to complete a 185 item survey via an online platform (Qualtrics). Participation was incentivized with a random drawing for ten $50 gift cards.

Sample One. The first sample was comprised of 659 working adults; 365 were recruited using a snowball method of contacts through emails and social media outlets. The remaining 294 participants were sourced through an online database service provider, Qualtrics. The data from the first sample included only the Just leader predictor variables along with scales to assess convergent and discriminant validity; it did not include outcome measures related to organizational justice perceptions. Hence, sample one remained level-one data. The sample of 659 working adults was well over the recommended sample size (N=500) rule-of-thumb for polytomous latent trait analysis (Embretson & Reise, 2000; Reeve & Fayers, 2005).

The demographics for sample one are located on Table 20. Notably, the sample was fairly diverse with regard to industry and organizational level. Similarly, there was a decent

spread across the ages predominately in the workforce (i.e., ages 18-60). The sample was less diverse with regard to ethnicity as population was overwhelmingly comprised of Caucasian participants. Similarly, the gender differential was inequitable as the majority of the participants identified as female.

Sample Two. The second sample consisted of 120 boss-employee dyads. Bosses and employees took the same survey consisting of all the predictor variables and outcome variables. The outcome variables (i.e., organizational justice perceptions) as rated by the employees were used as the main criterion for the study analyses. The intent of the phase two sample was to investigate the validity of the tool against the criterion. There were only 120 boss participants; however, there were 198 employee participants as many of the employees reported to the same boss. The structure of the sample, invariant group sizes, and intended analysis made this level-two data, indicating multi-level composition. From the total sample, 3 employee participants indicated they had not receive a performance review and did not answer any of the related questions (i.e., the dependent variables), thus they were removed from the study analysis. Two additional dyads were left in the data set for exploration of descriptive statistics and correlations; however, they were not included in the main analysis due to assumptions regarding missing data in multi-level modeling and software limitations. The final sample of 115 bosses met the multi-level modeling rule-of-thumb (N=100) for maximum likelihood estimation methods (Maas & Hox, 2005).

This sample was sourced entirely through a snowball method leveraging existing contacts and social media campaigns. Differing from the first sample, however, all boss and

employee surveys were pre-identified as a pair and given a unique identifier that was embedded within the survey link. This allowed for accurate matching of de-identified data.

The demographics for sample two are located on Table 21 for both the employee and boss portions. The sample was comprised of more females than males, and, once again, predominately Caucasian. As one might expect, the employee sample had more participants on the lower end of the age range, whereas there were a few more bosses that were spread across some of the higher ages. This same distribution difference is reflected in the level of role. The sample was diverse with regard to industry, with transportation/utilities as the highest represented industry.

Measures

Just Leader. The newly developed and revised items for the Just Leader measure were piloted for the second time in this study with both samples. There were 35 items that comprised two dimensions, ability (N=17) and beliefs (N=18). A complete list of the 35 items is located on Table 19. Of the total bank of 35 items, 22 were unchanged from Study One, seven items were revised from items used in Study One, and six items were piloted for the first time in Study Two. Each item was drafted to reflect content from one of the four core constructs (or sub-constructs) demonstrated as predictive of organizational justice perceptions in Study One (IRI; Davis, 1980, WLEIS; Wong & Law, 2002; IPT, Chiu et al., 1997, EPQ, Forsyth, 1980). Participants were asked to rate items on a seven-point Likert-type scale from 1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree. Reliability statistics are included within the results section.

Empathy, Emotional Intelligence, Implicit Person Theory, Moral Ideology. The same four scales used in Study One were also used in Study Two in order to assess the convergent

and incremental validity hypotheses. All participants were asked to rate the items on seven-point Likert scales following the procedures outlined in Study One. Reliability statistics for each of the scales were similar to Study One findings: empathy (α= .75), emotional intelligence (α= .84; self-emotional appraisal α=.82, other-emotional appraisal α=.87, use of emotion α=.71, regulation of emotion α=.83), implicit person theory (α= .90) and moral ideology (α=.79; moral idealism α=.89, moral relativism α=.75).

Big Five Traits. The five-factor model traits of openness, conscientiousness, extroversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism were assessed with a very brief measure of the big-five personality domains appropriately titled the Ten-Item Personality Inventory (TIPI; Gosling, Rentfrow, & Swann, 2003; John, Donohue, & Kentle, 1991). The TIPI measure of the big-five personality domains contains ten items, two for each of the five constructs. Items were rated on a seven-point Likert scale, 1= strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree. The very brief measure was ideal for inclusion due to an already extended survey length. It is recommended for studies for which personality variables are peripherally included, such as this one. Observed reliabilities for the TIPI were in-line with those observed throughout the development of the measure: extroversion α=.70, agreeableness α= .23, neuroticism=.73, conscientiousness α=.48, openness α=.42. Lower internal consistency is expected for two-item measures.

Organizational Justice. Similar to Study One, organizational justice was assessed using Colquitt's four-dimensional measure, created and validated in 2001. These variables were assessed through the perceptions as reported by the direct reports. Items referenced the employee's most recent performance appraisal conversation conducted by the current

supervisor. All justice items used a 7-point Likert-type scale, (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree).

Procedure

The same online survey questionnaires were administered to leaders and employees including demographic questions, the new just leader items, the core scales (empathy, implicit person theory, emotional intelligence, and moral ideology) the personality traits, organizational justice perceptions about their latest performance review, and leader-member exchange. All of the items and scales are listed in the appendix. In total, the survey consisted of 185 items and took an average of 21 minutes to complete.

The participants' names and email addresses were collected through the recruiting process such that unique links were sent to volunteer participants. Participants were asked if they would like to extend an invite to the survey to their supervisor in exchange for extra entries into the gift-card drawing. The lead researcher sent unique survey links (with embedded unique identifiers) to the each participant. The leader and direct report surveys were matched by previously allocated unique codes (ex. B23 matched with D23).

Data Analysis

To investigate research question five regarding the extent to which the proposed Just Leadership items fit the proposed model, polytomous IRT analysis was conducted. The Just Leader measure was scored on a seven-point Likert-type scale; therefore, polytomous IRT analysis was conducted to assess the difficulty and discrimination of each item. Since the measure response options are ordinal (similar to most personality scales), Samejima's Graded Response Model (GRM, Samejima, 1969) with full-information maximum likelihood was most

appropriate for analysis. A secondary analysis was conducted with robust weighted least squares (WLSMV) estimation to confirm the maximum likelihood results and compare models of fit.

Caution was used in interpretation of IRT analysis for the Just Leader measure due to its hypothesized multi-dimensionality. One of the assumptions of basic IRT models is that the scale is unidimensional (Reise & Waller, 2002). However, others have suggested that the assumption of unidimensionality is too strict for common applications (Bryant & Wooten; Reckase, Ackerman & Carlson, 1988). Given the expected relationships across the Just Leader constructs, MIRT analysis was deemed appropriate.

In order to assess Hypothesis 12 that proposes that the Just Leader measure will consist of two dimensions, a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to test the measurement models using Mplus 7.4 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998- 2015). Six nested *a priori* models of the Just Leadership measure were compared as described in the main body of the paper. Observed fit statistics included chi-square as an index of absolute model fit, assessing the degree to which the covariances implied by the model's structure match the observed covariances. Chi-square was interpreted by its departure from zero (further from zero designating a worse fit). Following Hu & Bentler's (1998,1999) recommendation to use at least two-indices of fit, other fit statistics were assessed, including the comparative fit index (CFI). The comparative fit index (CFI) compared the hypothesized model fit to a baseline model, one devoid of covariances among the variables (Bentler, 1990). The CFI indicated a better fit as it approached one, with an arbitrary indicator of good fit at a value of .95 and a poor fit cut off at .90.

The standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) was also observed as it was sensitive to simple misspecification (misspecified factor covariances). The SRMR value is recommended to be under the .08 cutoff, as the index approaches zero with improved fit; values over 1.0 are interpreted as a poor fit (Kline, 2005). Lastly, the root-means-square error of approximation (RMSEA) was also evaluated in the fit assessment of the model. This was a measure of fit between unknown but optimally chosen parameter values and the population covariance matrix (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). This discrepancy was then measured relative to the degrees of freedom, and RMSEA closer to zero indicated a better fit. Brown and Cudeck (1993) argue that a fit above .10 indicated a poor fit, between .80 and .10 indicated a mediocre fit, between .05 and .08 indicated a reasonable fit, and values less than .05 indicated a good fit. More recent suggestions of estimates of fit indicate upper bounds of .80 for the RMSEA are adequate if accompanied by values of .90 or higher on the CFI and IFI (Lance & Vandenberg, 2001). Others, such as Hu and Bentler (1999), argue for more stringent cutoff values such as .06 or lower for RMSEA and .95 and above for the CFI and IFI. However, recent articles have reported that these suggested cutoff values are controversial (Lance, Butts, & Michels, 2006; Marsh, Hau, & Wen, 2004). Therefore, as suggested, this study did not regard these cutoff scores as absolutes but evaluated the fit of the models with consideration of all the guidelines offered.

For Hypothesis 13 and 14, Pearson product-moment correlations were observed among the associated scales. Each scale was correlated with the other scales and associations were analyzed. Positive, moderate relationships among all constructs were expected. However, it was expected that the Just Leader measure would demonstrate stronger associations with the

four core scales (empathy, emotional intelligence, implicit person beliefs and moral idealism) than with the big five personality traits (i.e., conscientiousness, openness, extroversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism). In order to test this hypothesis, twenty Hotelling's t/Steiger's z' transformations were conducted to directly compare the strength of the associations among each of the pairs of variables.

For Hypothesis 15, demonstrating criterion-related validity, multi-level modeling analysis was conducted. Level-one consisted of the employee-level data (i.e. perceptions of organizational justice), while level-two data was the supervisor-level variables (i.e., the just leader measure). For clarification, the variables associated with the employee were considered to be the dependent variables, whereas the variables provided by the supervisors were considered to be the independent variables. It was expected that the finalized Just Leader measure will predict the employees' organizational justice perceptions.

To assess the final hypothesis regarding incremental validity (i.e., Hypothesis 16), another multi-level model was assessed. The model was similar to the previous model but each of the five personality variables were also entered into the model as level-two independent variables. This analysis determined if the Just Leader measure (completed by the leaders) predicted employee organizational justice perceptions over and above the fiver personality traits.

Results

Prior to addressing the research questions and study hypotheses, continued efforts to re-examine the validity and utility of the 35 Just Leader items occurred. Of particular interest were the revised and newly created items; however all means, variances, correlations and item-

total correlations were re-assessed for all 35 items, given the larger cross-validation sample (see Table 19). Regarding the means and variances, a few items with high means were identified, suggesting an "easy" item where the majority of participants endorsed the top end of the Likert scale. Items 1, 6, 9, 14, 16, 18, and 19 all had means at or above 5.85, which is relatively high on a 7-point scale. Item nine, in particular had a mean over 6.0. Items one and two also had high means in Study One, and were therefore revised for Study Two. All items were cautiously left in the measure at this point of the study for further analysis as elimination criteria, such as means used in classical test theory, are sample-dependent. Thus, item response latent trait analysis would be leveraged to assess the utility of each of those items as they may have provided useful when differentiating the top-end of the scale.

An item correlation matrix and item-total correlations were assessed for item elimination needs. Whereas item means and standard deviations are highly sample dependent, item correlations and covariance, and more importantly, non-associations would have significant impact within latent-trait analysis. The item correlation matrix and item-total correlations were reviewed, following the logical assumption that item responses derived due to a latent trait must demonstrate association with each other. Items were expected to demonstrate a minimum correlation value of .30 with at least one other scale item and have demonstrate an item-total correlation of at least a .30, commonly used cut-off value (Mehrens & Lehmann, 1973). First, a review of the item correlation matrix identified four items (3, 8, 18, and 23) that did not have a correlation value of .30 or higher with any other item. In fact, item 3 and item 8 demonstrated significant negative associations with other items. All four items were removed from the scale at this phase of the study. Items 12 and 16 had the highest

correlation among all the items, significantly different than all others and above .70. In efforts to develop the most parsimonious scale, item 12 was removed from the measure at this stage. The review of item-total correlations within their expected factors identified three additional items for removal: items 21, 22, and 27, as all three demonstrated *r*- values below .30 (see Table 19). In total, eight items were removed from the scale prior to conducting item response and confirmatory factor analyses.

Item Response Theory Model Fit. In order to assess research question 5, seeking the extent to which the Just Leaders items fit the proposed model, latent trait measurement model analysis was conducted through item response theory modeling. Prior to the main analysis, item univariate distributions were assessed for normality. Statistical tests and visual assessment suggested the data were non-normal in nature. Many items were negatively skewed, which was not surprising, given the socially desirable nature of many of the items. An examination of frequencies also suggested that the majority of the population hovered within the top 3-4 response options for the items. Given these findings, Samejima's (1969) Graded Response Model with full-information maximum likelihood logit estimation was best suited to fit the polytomous data.

Mplus 7.4 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998- 2015) was used to estimate the proposed two-factor model with 225 quadrature points specified. Both the Rasch one-parameter model and the two-parameter model were assessed and, as expected, the -2ΔLL test indicated the two-parameter version of the polytomous model fit significantly better, χ^2 (27) =124, p<.01. The relative fit comparison values and item discrimination values are located on Table 22; difficulty factors are located on Table 23.

Maximum likelihood estimates are limited in the determination of global fit, so item response theory analyses were replicated with limited information using the weighted least square parameter probit estimates (WLSMV) in Mplus 7.4 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998- 2015). The WLSMV approach generates an estimated polychoric probit covariance matrix that provides information to determine fit indices. To compare the relative fit of the one-parameter model to the two-parameter model, the DIFFTEST algorithm in Mplus was input to compare the estimated data for each model. As expected, two-parameters served as a better fit to the data than one-parameter, χ^2 (27) =184.201, p<.001. However, global fit statistics did not suggest an ideal fit for the model with all 27 items (RMSEA= .117, p<.001; CFI= .72; TLI= .70), suggesting there was room for further item reduction.

The item-level results of the item response analyses provided vital input into the final round of item elimination. A review of item-level discrimination and difficulty values, along with each item's plotted characteristic curves and item information guided further reduction of the final measurement (see Tables 22-23 and Figures 2-29, respectively). Likewise, the residual covariance matrices, produced by the WLSMV model also proved beneficial in determining where the model did not fit.

Based on a review of the item characteristic and information curves, along with their discrimination and difficulty parameter estimates, eight additional items were removed from the measure. The goal of drafting a parsimonious, yet robust measure served as the guiding principle and decisions were made based on relative comparisons across items on key criteria, such as factor loadings and effect sizes. Items 13, 19, 20, and 24 were all removed due to low standardized loadings (<.5), coupled with a low R^2 values (<.20). Item 25 was also removed due

to a low standardized loading and high residual covariance discovered during an exploratory factor analysis. While item 14 had a higher loading estimate and effect size, the item characteristic curve and discrimination metrics demonstrated the limited utility of the item with regard to theta variance; hence, it was also removed.

As a matter of final review and preliminary exploration, Pearson-product moment correlations were conducted with all predictor items with the organizational justice variables from the second sample. Item 26 and 32 both demonstrated no significant relationships with the outcome variables of interest, yet were both trending in the unexpected negative direction. Therefore, these two items were also marked for removal from ongoing analysis. Prior to re-assessing the item response models after item elimination, analysis was conducted to further assess the factor structure.

Hypothesis 12. To assess Hypothesis 12, suggesting that the Just Leader construct can be measured using two independent factors, I conducted a confirmatory factor analysis using robust maximum likelihood estimation (MLR) in Mplus 7.4 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998- 2015). The reliability and dimensionality of the 19 items assessing the hypothesized ability and belief dimensions was assessed on the same sample of 659 working adults. All models were identified by setting all latent factor means to zero and latent factor variances to one, such that estimates for all item intercepts, factor loadings, and residual variances were estimated. As discussed in the body of the paper, six models were compared: a) fully saturated, b) one-factor, c) two-factor (ability/belief model), d) two-factor (scoring method model), e) three-factor (cognitive empathy, affective empathy, belief model) and f) three-factor (scoring method/belief model).

Prior to final model comparisons, preliminary exploratory factor analyses were conducted for the one-factor and two factor models to assess modification indices, available via the MODINDICES output option in Mplus, to evaluate final item inclusion and structure changes prior to the confirmatory analysis. Sources of local miss-fit were also observed using the normalized residual covariance matrix, available via the RESIDUAL output in Mplus. Items 30 and 33, were identified as the most miss-fit within the model. Review of the item wording and theoretical direction provided guidance for further decisions. Item 30 stating, “I treat others differently based on how they treat me” was retained in place within the belief construct as the item did not seem to theoretically align with any other construct. Item 33 stating, “It is impossible to please everyone, so sometimes I don’t even try” was retained, yet realigned with empathy items due to its similarities with affective empathy, or rather the lack there of (i.e., reverse coded). These adjustments were carried throughout the confirmatory factor analyses.

Table 24 includes model fit statistics, which include the model χ^2, its scaling factor, degrees of freedom, and significance values. Fit indices for each model are provided, including comparative fit indices (CFI) for which values of .95 or above are considered for “good fit”, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and confidence intervals, for which values of .06 or below indicate “good fit”. As reported in Table 24, the nested model comparisons used the rescaled -2loglikihood test with degrees of freedom derived from difference in the number of parameters between models (i.e., the rescaled likelihood ratio test). Each model is described below.

As expected, the one-factor model demonstrated the worst fit of all the proposed models. It called for all nineteen items to load onto one latent factor. While all loadings were

positive and significant (with standardized loadings ranging from .317 to .575), the single latent factor did not sufficiently describe the pattern of relationships.

Unexpectedly, the two factor models were also insufficient in describing the global pattern of relationships across all 19 items. The two-factor model, as first hypothesized, contains an *ability* factor (represented by ability items 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, 11, 15, 16, 17, & 33) and a *belief* factor (represented by belief items 28, 29, 30, 31, 34, & 35). While the hypothesized model fit the global patterns in the data better than the one-factor model, it did not fit as well as the two-factor method-effect model differentiated by positive item coding (1, 2, 6, 9, 16, & 17) and reverse item coding (4, 5, 7,10, 11, 15, 28, 29, 30, 31, 33, 34, & 35). The incremental fit of the method-effect model demonstrates a significant difference in how the latent trait of just leadership affects participants' interpretation of positively worded items versus the negatively worded items. Still, from a global fit perspective, neither of the two-factor models met any of the model fit criteria, thus Hypothesis 12 was unsubstantiated.

Derived from previous analysis on the predictor variables and theoretical basis based on observed relationships from Study One, two separate three-factor models were also tested for fit. The first model was conceptually derived with two separate empathy factors and a belief factor. Cognitive empathy was measured with items 1, 2, 4, 6, 7, 10, 15, 16, 17, and 33. The affective empathy factor was measures with items 5, 9, and 11, whereas the belief factor was measured with items 28, 29, 30, 31, 34, and 35. The conceptual three-factor model demonstrated worse fit than did the two-factor method model, but slightly better fit than the two factor conceptual model.

The best fitting a priori model was a three-factor method-effect model in which the ability factor, comprised of the empathy and emotional intelligence items, was split based on positive and negative coding. The belief factor, which happened to be comprised of all reverse coded items, remained unchanged. Therefore, the positive empathy factor was measured with items 1, 2, 6, 9, 16, and 17; the reverse (non- empathy) factor was measured with items 4, 5, 7, 10 11, 15, and 33. The belief factor remained in the model as the third factor measured by 28, 29, 30, 31, 34, & 35. All three factors were allowed to correlate with each other. Results indicated relative fit for the three-factor method-effect model outperformed the other a priori models. However, one last model was left to be tested.

As a final model test, a four-factor model that replicated the three-factor model, except further divided the belief factor into non-entity beliefs and moral beliefs was tested. This final model was empirically derived from the unexpected non-existent relationship between non-entity beliefs and moral ideology in Study One. For the four-factor model, the empathy and non-empathy factors remained the same as described for the three-factor method-effect model. To measure the non-entity belief factor, items 28, 31, and 34 were employed, and for the moral belief factor, items 29, 30, and 35 were used. All four factors were allowed to correlate. As found on Table 24, results for the four-factor model met the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) criteria of <.08, the root-means square error of approximation (RMSEA) criteria for reasonable fit <.05 for good fit, and the comparative fit index (CFI) criteria of >.09 for good fit. The four-factor model demonstrated superiority over all other models tested.

Table 25 provides the factor loading estimates, intercepts, and effect sizes for the final four-factor model. As expected, all factor loadings and factor covariances were significant. Omega model-based reliability was calculated for all three factors with the following equation as described by Brown (2006):

$$\Omega=(\Sigma\lambda)^2/\ [(\Sigma\lambda)^2 + \Sigma\ \mathrm{Var}\ (e) + 2\Sigma\ (e\ \mathrm{cov})]$$

Omega was .764 for the positive empathy factor, .774 for the non-empathy factor, .718 for the non-entity factor and .679 for the moral factor, suggested marginal reliability for all four factors. The positive empathy factor was correlated with the non-empathy factor (r= .49), the non-entity belief factor (r=.17), and the moral belief factor (r=.29). The non-empathy factor was correlated with the non-entity belief factor (r=.48) and the moral belief factor (r=.70). Lastly, the non-entity belief factor was correlated with the moral belief factor (r=.73).

Return to Research Question 5. After the four-factor model was confirmed as the best fitting model, the latent item response analysis was conducted once more using Samejima's (1969) Graded Response Model with full-information maximum likelihood logit estimation. The two-parameter model once again demonstrated a better fit than the one-parameter model χ^2 (12) =42.289, p<.001. Final item discrimination parameters and difficulty parameters are located on Table 26. The TECH10 command in Mplus was used to derive item-level fit statistics for each of the final 19 items. The univariate fit statistics for each item all converged on the specified model, with zero items with p-values of <.01. For the bivariate fit, assessing fit among pairs of items, there were only 9 comparisons of over 8,000 pairs that had significant χ^2 p values, indicating support for item-level model fit. Therefore, while the answer to the research

question five regarding model fit was questionable with a two-factor conceptual model, it is fully supported with the four-factor model.

Convergent and Discriminant Validity. In order to address both Hypothesis 13 and 14 suggesting the just leader measure demonstrate significant associations with empathy, emotional intelligence, implicit person beliefs, and moral ideology, while differing from measures that are conceptually distinct, such as the five factors of personality, a Pearson-product moment correlation table was examined. As indicated on Tables 27-29, the four factors of Just Leadership, as well as the overall just leader construct, were positively and significantly correlated with empathy, emotional intelligence, and implicit person beliefs. While the Just Leader construct was not significantly correlated with moral ideology, it was positively associated with the moral idealism dimension, as expected given the same results as in Study One.

The Just Leader measure was also positively and significantly correlated to the five personality variables, although to a lesser degree in many cases, as expected. To determine significant differences between the associations with the Just Leader scale, Hottelling's T/Steiger's Z transformations were conducted for each pair. As expected and demonstrated in Table 30, there were differences such that the relationships between empathy, emotional intelligence, and implicit person beliefs were significantly stronger than the association between the Just Leader measure and any of the personality variables. Moral idealism was the only exception to this trend. The association between the Just Leader measure and moral idealism was less strong than the one between the just leader behaviors and agreeableness and neuroticism. There were no differences across the associations for the other three personality

constructs. All in all, the majority of Z-scores demonstrated differences in the expected direction to support both convergent and discriminant validity, lending support for Hypothesis 13 and Hypothesis 14.

Hypothesis 15. For the final two hypotheses, the multi-level dyadic data (N= 118) were assessed for predictive relationships among the Just Leader constructs on the informational and interpersonal justice variables. The extent to which the Just Leader constructs (i.e., positive empathy, non-empathy, non-entity beliefs, and moral beliefs), could predict interpersonal and informational justice was examined in a series of multi-level models, in which 195 employees were modeled as nested within their 118 dyadic boss relationships.

Prior to the main analysis, univariate descriptive statistics were examined to determine potential covariates within the data. As identified on Table 31, the employee's self-identified performance rating demonstrated a significant difference across the dependent variables, interpersonal and informational justice. Given that the performance rating and review served as referent in the organizational justice questions, this finding was expected. Correlational analysis was also conducted to detect a potential relationship between the length of time an employee reported to their boss and justice perceptions; however, no association was detected. The rating variable was the only demographic variable found to demonstrate differences across the dependent variables; therefore, dummy-coded and included in the analysis as a fixed effect. Correlation analysis was also conducted across the study variables as a preliminary exploration of the associations (see Table 32). As expected, leaders' positive empathy and non-empathy demonstrated significant associations with employees' interpersonal justice perceptions. Unexpectedly, leaders' moral beliefs and non-entity beliefs

demonstrated non-significant relationship with employees' interpersonal justice perceptions. Also surprisingly, none of the Just Leader factors demonstrated a significant correlation with informational justice. These results foreshadowed those of the main analyses. As a final step prior to the main analysis, the four Just Leader predictor variables were grand mean centered prior to their entry into the models

Five separate two-level hierarchical models (multi-level mixed models) were assessed using Mplus 7.4 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998- 2015), using maximum likelihood estimation for each of the justice variables (i.e., interpersonal justice and informational justice). Models were also replicated in SPSS MIXED, using restricted maximum likelihood for verification of accuracy. As expected, there were no differences across the random factors, and only minor differences in random variance estimates. There were no differences in significance declarations for fixed or random effects across the models within each of the software programs. SPSS MIXED struggled to handle very small variances found in some of the models, warning a caution when interpreting results. Therefore, results from the models conducted in Mplus 7.4 were used for presentation within this paper.

Interpersonal Justice. Model estimates for fixed and random effects, as well as fit statistics, are located on Table 33. The first model assessed was an unconditional (intercept-only) model, which resembles a one-factor ANOVA, except the variance of the mean for each boss is estimated as a random effect versus a fixed effect. Interpersonal justice scores demonstrated an intraclass correlations of .03, indicating that 3% of the variance in the interpersonal justice scores could be attributed to the grouping variable. The second model added one employee-level fixed factor, the self-reported performance rating. The performance

rating variable was dummy-coded with “Average Performer” as the referent group, prior to entry into the model. This model most replicated an ANCOVA, yet the variance of the mean for each boss was a random effect. As expected, the fixed effect of the performance rating was significant for “exceptional performer” (2.38, *t*= 3.66, *p*<.001), “above average performer” (1.86, *t*=2.89, *p*<.01), and “below-average performer” (2.11, *t*= 3.28, *p*<.001). The third model added the random slope for the level-one factor (dummy-coded performance rating), thus allowing the slope of the regression equation to vary by boss. The latent slopes of the performance rating variables were not significant. The fourth model introduced the grand-mean centered level-two factors, positive empathy, non-empathy, non-entity beliefs, and moral beliefs into the model. As expected, the positive empathy variable was a significant predictor γ = .516 (*t*=3.10, p<.01). This finding suggests that, after holding the employee’s performance rating as a constant, for every one unit of change of a leader’s positive empathy, the employee’s perception of interpersonal justice increased accordingly. Unexpectedly, the remaining three variables, non-empathy (γ = .195), non-entity beliefs (γ = -.016), and moral beliefs (γ = -.023), were all not significant, suggesting a lack of support for Hypothesis 15. The fifth and final model replicated model four, but also added the social desirability covariate as an additional control. With all the variables entered in the model the intraclass correlation was recalculated to .0089, indicating that .89% of the variance in interpersonal justice was accounted for by the grouping variable. In this final model, positive empathy was the only significant fixed effect; social desirability did not demonstrate significance.

Informational Justice. Five additional multi-level models were conducted in the exact same manner for informational justice (see Table 34). Results differed only in that none of the

Just Leader variables were significantly predictive of informational justice, including positive empathy. Fixed effect intercepts were significant for all models, as were random effect residuals; however, no other variables indicated significant associations. In all, positive empathy was the only significant predictor of interpersonal justice perceptions, leaving Hypothesis 15 largely unsubstantiated.

Hypothesis 16. In order to test Hypothesis 16, that the Just Leader measure would predict interpersonal and informational justice perceptions over and above other constructs, a sixth multi-level model was assessed. Each of the personality constructs, extroversion, agreeableness, openness, neuroticism, and conscientiousness were entered into the model as fixed effects. As Table 33 (interpersonal justice) and Table 34 (informational justice) indicate, none of the additional variables had significant effects. As such, positive empathy maintained its significance as a predictor of interpersonal justice, over and above the additional personality constructs. However, similar to Hypothesis 15, none of the other three Just Leader constructs were significant. For informational justice, there were no significant predictors including the Just Leader factors, the control variables, or the additional personality variables. Thus, Hypothesis 16 was also largely unsubstantiated.

Discussion

In efforts to contribute to the interventional organizational justice literature, the current study aimed to lay the groundwork for the development and validation of a new Just Leader measure, intended to predict fair-acting leaders. An overview of all study hypotheses, analyses and outcomes is located in Appendix C. Study One established the existence of most predictive

relationships between the four main constructs: empathy, emotional intelligence, implicit person theory, and moral ideology and the outcome variables of primary interest: interpersonal justice and informational justice. Study One also piloted the Just Leader items for the first time. Items were refined using classical test theory and exploratory factor analysis. Study Two aimed to continue the development and validation of the tool through polytomous item response analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, and multi-level modeling. The following discussion will review the results of Study Two, followed by potential study limitations and recommended future direction.

Construct Development. Due to the negative associations with justice perceptions demonstrated in Study One, incremental beliefs (i.e., normally scored items regarding the belief that individuals can change their core characteristics) and moral relativism (i.e., the belief that ethical decisions are highly situational) items were not carried on into Study Two. As a follow-up from item development and exploration from Study One, seven items were revised, and an additional six items were drafted to even-out the pools of items for the two main factors hypothesized to comprise the Just Leader measure. The additional items were intended to load onto the belief facet, comprised of non-entity-related items and moral idealism items. Efforts were made to develop items that would not be redundant to the items already in the measure, but related to the construct as intended. A total of 35 items were piloted in Study Two with the intent to narrow down the scale to items that were most predictive and related.

It was important to understand the data as much as possible before entering it into complex modeling; therefore, preliminary analysis of descriptive statistics and a correlation matrix were evaluated. These results highlighted items that were not related to other items,

suggesting they measured some other latent construct than those intended. A total of eight items from the original 35 were removed for low inter-item correlations and item-total correlations. As discussed in Hinkin (1995), these decisions were driven both by empirical evidence and theoretical basis as many of the items seemed as if they were on the "outer edges" of the intended construct.

Item Response Exploration and Confirmatory Factor Exploration. Polytomous item response analysis was used to help narrow down the items by leveraging the utility of each item based on its difficulty and discrimination. This was an iterative process alongside the confirmatory factor analysis as both go hand-in-hand when assessing validity and model fit. Samejima's (1969) Graded Response Model with full-information maximum likelihood was used to fit the data and provide item difficulty thresholds and discrimination parameters. However, to help assess global fit, weighted least square parameter estimates were also fit to the data. The first round of parameter estimates provided evidence to suggest appropriate item reduction. A total of six items were removed from the scale due to factor loadings, effect sizes, and discrimination estimates. Two further items were removed due to preliminary correlation results with the intended criterion.

The final 19 items were then modeled through a confirmatory factor analysis process, although, this process was admittedly exploratory in nature. To explain, confirmatory factor analysis techniques were used to assess a total of seven different models. In a typical confirmatory analysis, researchers might test the fully saturated model, one-factor, and two-factor models as the two-factor model was theoretically hypothesized. Arguably, a fourth model might have been tested just to confirm the two-factor structure in a typical confirmatory

analysis. However, the dimensionality was still somewhat of a question, predominately due to the findings in Study One regarding the method effects of reverse coding and straight-item coding. Therefore, both theoretical and empirical basis were used to hypothesize and test a total of seven models using the confirmatory techniques.

Confirmatory analysis was used at this stage given its advantages over exploratory analysis, particularly with regard to the constraints of the analysis and interpretation of the results. In exploratory analysis, all of the items can load onto all factors, which diminished the theoretical foundation of the structure. As such, eigenvalues and scree plot interpretations are often debated. Confirmatory factor analysis, however, can test different models empirically, based on their theoretical structure.

In the end, the model with the best fit to the data was a four-factor model that separated the ability factor into two separate factors, one for positively-scored (labeled positive empathy) items and one for reverse-scored items (labeled non-empathy). The other two factors were split between non-entity beliefs and moral beliefs. All four of these factors were not surprising after the interpretation of the results from Study One, where the method effect of reverse coding and the unexpected weak relationship between moral ideology and implicit theory beliefs were first observed.

After establishing the model of best-fit, the polytomous item-response analysis was once again conducted for final results. Standardized item discrimination parameters (i.e., factor loadings) ranged from .53 (item 9) to .78 (item 31) with effect sizes from R^2 = .29 to $R^{2=}$ .61. Unstandardized slopes ranged from 1.15 (item 9) to 2.28 (item 31). It is common to find slope values (i.e., discrimination parameters) between .5 and 2.5, so the slopes for the Just Leader

measure fell well within typical expectations (Reeves & Fayers, 2005). The means (i.e., intercepts) and threshold scores for each response provided great insight into the ability of each item to distinguish individual differences across the possible spectrum of attitudes. The means were mostly in the high-end of the scale, suggesting the items may not be difficult enough to delineate top-end attitudes. Mean scores ranged from 3.40 to 6.04. The thresholds (b parameter) confirm this observation. The calculated thresholds (i.e., factor analytic conversions to item response thresholds) ranged from -5.27 (item 17) to for -1.63 (item 31) for "Strongly Disagree" and from .52 (item 9) to 4.2 (item 31) for "Strongly Agree". Aside from item 31, the next highest threshold was item 34 at 2.89. It was not surprising that both item 31 and 34 were reverse-coded items that loaded onto the non-entity beliefs factor. It seems as though the reverse-coded items do help total test function and attenuation. The question remains: was that because the reverse-coding mitigated any potential attenuation or did it measure different construct all together?

In total, the items did a fair job measuring the true score (i.e., theta) as they all fit the model. When aggregated as factors, the Just Leader constructs varied in their ability to measure the entire spectrum of abilities and beliefs. Figures 29 to 32 display the factor-level information curves. Empathy and non-empathy both do a better job differentiating abilities on the lower-ends of the spectrum, but both have significant drop off at a theta (ability) of 1.0. Utility, however should be assessed through the lens of a test's intended use. While it would be ideal to have a measure that equally and accurately measures abilities across the entire spectrum, it is sometimes the case that acute measurement fits the intended use. For example, with regard to justice, it could be the case that only a base-line level of Just Leadership is necessary to

ensure fairness perceptions before other variables start to matter to greater extents. In other words, a measure like the Just Leader measure may only be used to identify and prevent poor leaders likely to act in manners perceived as unfair, but may not need to distinguish between good and very good leaders.

The other two factors may also help to alleviate test information concerns. The moral belief information curve indicates the factor does not provide quite the same level of information, but does extend higher into the ability range, up to a theta of 2 before dropping off. The non-entity belief information curve actually displays the opposite image than the empathy factors. The non-entity belief factor provides more information at the top-end of theta but drops off at a theta of -1.5. Once again, this fits the same trends observed throughout the analysis with regard to reverse-scored items.

Taken as a whole, each of the factors contribute varying levels of information at varying levels of theta. The two empathy factors provide more information, but at lower levels of theta. The two belief factors provide less information in total, but at higher theta levels. This outcome could potentially be caused by the socially desirable nature of the constructs, a selection bias within the study sample, item construction, or a combination of all three. These limitations are further discussed later in the paper. On the whole, the Just Leader measure displayed global fit, comparative fit, and local fit minimum standards; however, ongoing efforts should work to refine the items further to increase discrimination within the items of the tool across a wider spectrum of individual differences.

Convergent and Criterion Validity. The latter part of Study Two started to explore the depth of the nomonological net surrounding the Just Leader measure. It was expected that the

new Just Leader measure demonstrate associations with the core constructs that served to foster the development of the scale, empathy, emotional intelligence, implicit person theory, and moral ideology, while demonstrating less association with other typical individual difference constructs, like personality. As expected, the Just Leader measure was positively related to all of the established constructs except moral ideology, similar to Study One. The Just Leader measure was positively related to moral idealism and significantly negatively correlated to moral relativism, also similar to Study One. In all, those that score higher on the Just Leader measure are more likely to act with empathy and emotional intelligence, believe in the malleability of people, and the importance of consistency when making ethical decisions than those that score lower. However, those that score lower on the Just Leader measure are more likely to embrace the circumstantial nature and fluidity of moral and ethical decisions.

Results demonstrated similarly expected outcomes with the big-five personality constructs: extroversion, agreeableness, openness, neuroticism, and conscientiousness. The Just Leader measure had significant positive associations with all five personality constructs, yet relationships that were not as strong as those with the core four constructs of the scale. This held for all comparisons except moral idealism, for which the Just Leader measure was more correlated to agreeableness and neuroticism than to moral idealism. Recall Study One also indicated unexpected results with moral idealism. Alternatives to moral idealism that assess moral intent or ethical attitudes man need to be considered as alternatives to moral ideology in future work on the Just Leader scale.

The final analysis examined the relationship of the Just Leader measure and its intended outcomes of organizational justice. It was expected that those with higher scores on the Just

Leader measure also were rated by their employees as being more interpersonally and informationally just, two of the leader-focused factors of organizational justice (Colquitt et al., 2001). Further, not only was Just Leader measure expected to predict interpersonal and informational justice, but it was expected to do so over and above other constructs, such as the five personality constructs, thus exhibiting incremental validity. Unfortunately, the multi-level model did not support either of these hypotheses. In fact, the addition of all four Just Leader constructs only accounted for an additional .34% of the variance in interpersonal justice perceptions, whereas the performance rating covariate and Just Leader constructs accounted for approximately 13% of the variance in interpersonal justice perceptions. After controlling for the employee self-identified performance rating, only the positive empathy facet demonstrated a significant predictive relationship with interpersonal justice.

The multi-level model predicting informational justice did not indicate any of the Just Leader constructs were significant indicators. Both positive and non-empathy were in the expected positive direction, however, neither was predictive. Therefore, neither Hypothesis 15, nor 16 were supported.

It is possible that the Just Leader measure needs further refinement prior to predicting organizational justice perceptions. Just as likely, study limitations might have also affected the ability to find significant relationships. A review of the correlation matrix (Table 32) provides results that support the latter, particularly when compared to the correlation matrix from Study One (Table 6). In Study One, both facets of empathy, two of the four facets of emotional intelligence, and non-entity beliefs were all significantly and positively correlated with interpersonal justice, most at a *p* value <.01. However, the same constructs were not

significantly correlated in Study Two, although they were directionally aligned. Experimental design, including how participants were selected and how justice perceptions were evaluated likely played a major role in this observed difference. Both are discussed within the limitations and future directions sections.

As an exploratory post-hoc, the same multi-level model was conducted with the leader-member exchange variable as the outcome to understand if the Just Leader measure was predictive of a construct related to organizational justice perceptions. The post-hoc multi-level model for leader-member exchange was very similar to the interpersonal justice model, in which positive empathy was the only significant predictor after controlling for the employee's performance rating.

Limitations and Future Directions

In sum, the Just Leader measure should be considered a "work in progress" at this stage of development. From a practical and theoretical perspective, it demonstrates merit and potential usefulness as a preventive tool against unfairness in the workplace, particularly for leader behaviors. Further work on the measure should focus on continued item and dimension refinement, method effects and the use of reverse-scored items, and further validation of the tool, perhaps with different participant sampling method. I will touch on each of these below.

Item Refinement. The Just Leader measure is in its infancy, not yet ready for use in the business world. One limitation with item development within the current study was that the items were written almost entirely through a deductive (i.e., theory driven) approach based on pre-existing scales. One method to improve item specificity would be to include a mix of deductive and inductive (i.e., critical incident driven) approaches that would allow items to

become more domain-specific with regard to the business world. All four core measures (i.e., empathy, emotional intelligence, implicit person theory, and moral ideology) were generic in nature. Participant comments regarding the survey indicated they struggled with how generic some of the items were, especially the items within the moral ideology scales. Similarly, the implicit person theory items might also benefit from a little more domain specificity. For example one item states, “Individuals may do things differently, but the kind of person they are can’t really be changed.” It is unclear if the item is referring to body stature, ethnicity, sexuality, intelligence, personality, or work habits. Depending on someone’s personal beliefs, their answers may vary widely. The scale’s predictive power might increase if narrowed to a domain most applicable to work such as personality or cognitive ability. Future work should revise current items to increase the predictive validity of the measure. If such an endeavor is accepted, it is recommended researchers leverage the work of Butler (1991), who used an inductive approach based on a deductively derived structured interview. In his work to develop a measure of trust, this approach led to 280 clauses concerning trust, and another 174 regarding distrust. Acknowledging “both sides of the coin” with differing items may also help to curtail method effects (i.e., reverse coding) in measurement.

Another limitation to the current version of the Just Leader items is their inability to assess the entire domain of the ability in a highly discriminating way. All of the items used a 7-point Likert scale, yet for most of the items, only three of the response options provided any difference in the probability of people with different theta levels responding differently. This result might be a function of the item wording, the number of response options (i.e., seven), or the response anchors themselves. For example, the organizational justice measure uses a

slightly different 7-point Likert scale with anchors 1= To a Small Extent, 3= To a Good Extent, and 7= To a Great Extent. These anchors indicate that some level of justice is a given, and help to differentiate the top end of the scale. Similar adjustments might help increase variance among respondents. To be sure, future directions should not only consider item revision to expand coverage across the domain but also consider different response options or item types.

Method effects. Another potential area of future work should explore the item-scoring method effects with a bi-factor model. At this point, it is not clear if a true method effect exists between reverse-scored and regularly-scored items, or if the scale is actually measuring two different interpretations of empathy (those that empathize and those that chose not to). For example, item one, a positively-scored empathy item states, "I am generally pretty good at understanding someone else's point of view." Item four, a reverse-scored empathy item states, "If I know I am right, I don't waste much time listening to other people's perspectives." Both items load well onto the empathy factor and trace back to the same original sub-factor, cognitive empathy, but they load onto different empathy facets of the Just Leader measure. The debate over reverse-scored items is certainly not a new concern, as it has been around almost as long as test-construction and the need to attenuate response pattern bias (Idaszak & Drasgow, 1987). Even one of the scales used within this paper, Implicit Person Theory, has grappled with similar measurement challenges (Heslin, 2002). While beyond the scope of the current paper, the issue demands further investigation prior to any practical use of the scale.

Sampling Bias. Another limitation of the current study is a potential sampling bias. The sample size met minimal rules-of-thumb for the current analysis; however, it is possible the sample was not representative of the general population. Participants for all three studies

volunteered to take a 20-30 minute online survey with little to no benefit to them other than the chance to win a gift card. The simple fact that participants volunteered potentially skews the data toward participants that are likely more amicable, agreeable, conscientious, empathetic, etc., all characteristics of individuals more likely to act in just and fair ways. Furthering this line of thought, the dyadic sample used in Study Two had three potential sources of bias or skewness. The first bias was similar to the volunteer phenomenon as all participants were sourced through recruiting emails and social media campaigns to not only self-volunteer but also to ask a boss or employee to do so as well, which was arguably a higher level of commitment.

The second source of bias entered in with the selection of the boss or employee. For example, many leaders likely selected employees for which they had good relationships, the kind of relationship that allowed for favor asking. Similarly, while many employees did not have the convenience of selecting a boss, some participants stated they were more than willing to help but did not feel comfortable asking their boss as it was a strained relationship. Unfortunately, those were likely the bosses that needed to be in the sample to more accurately represent the domain of behaviors. In the same vein, 64% of the employees reported performance ratings of “Above Average- Top 25%” or higher. Thus, the sample of employees was also likely to be more satisfied and complimentary of their leader, on the whole.

The third and final source of bias was the extent to which participants were honest on the survey. Fears of being truthful about opinions regarding the workplace and leadership are legitimate, and they potentially might have skewed the employees’ perceptions regarding organizational justice. Evidence of this possibility was discovered in an exploratory post hoc

analysis comparing the means of the organizational justice factors across the survey-panel participants from sample one and the personally-recruited-participants from sample two. For interpersonal justice, the personally-recruited participants reported significantly higher mean scores (6.27) than the survey-panel participants (5.80). However, the opposite was true of procedural justice, for which the survey-panel participants reported higher means (5.0) than the personally-recruited participants (4.7). Perhaps the recruited participants felt they could be more truthful about the procedures but should be more complimentary of their bosses. Or, it simply could be the case that the personally-recruited sample has more interpersonally fair bosses. It was certainly the intent to assuage any concerns of confidentiality through the recruitment and consent processes; hopefully, that mitigated any potential bias.

While these three sampling limitations exist and it is important to acknowledge them, it is just as important, if not more so, to not disregard the wealth of the sample within the study. Dyadic sampling is fairly difficult to conduct, especially as evenly across industries and demographics as the current sample. The final results that highlight the important role of empathy and agreeableness in interpersonal justice perceptions should not be lost amongst the insignificant findings as this was consistent across industries and thus generalizable to many occupations.

Further work to expand and validate the tool may also work to gather samples that are representative of the domain of behaviors and attitudes that may be less subject to volunteer bias. For example, gaining access to an entire organization and asking all employees to participate in a similar study may help to include a range of bosses. There are certainly pros and cons to all approaches, but this would be a next logical step in the validation process.

A Nod to Morality and Ethics. As a final suggestion and acknowledged limitation, future work in this area should continue to investigate how and what aspects of moral ideology play a role in organizational justice perceptions. The results of this study were not only unexpected but fascinating with regard to the significant negative association between moral relativism and justice perceptions. Research that has investigated the role of morality, moral identity, moral maturity, and moral ideology with regard to organizational justice is sparse but strong (e.g., Aquino et al., 2009; Patient and Skarlicki 2010; Rupp & Bell, 2010). The limited interventional research also found success when training ethics, justice and company standards (e.g., Skarlicki & Lantham, 1996, 1997; Rupp, Baldwin & Bashshur, 2006). Yet, it seems calls for more research in this area have been met with limited response.

One potentially viable direction for future research in this area is the validation and ongoing development of the Managerial Moral Judgment Test (Loviscky, Trevino, & Jacobs, 2007), a business-related tool modeled after the Defining Issues Test (Rest,1979, 1986), the most widely used general measure of moral judgment. The Managerial Moral Judgment Test has not been thoroughly validated; only reliability and construct validity were explored within its first publication. However, its situational-judgment format may lend itself to higher levels of face validity and application in the workplace. Further, it is highly domain-specific and would likely require local validation within any organization that intended to use it.

The Value of Development

While the Just Leader measure may not be refined enough to use as a selection tool, it is important to acknowledge its potential usefulness in a process structured to provide feedback and development. With tools such as the Just Leader measure, the feedback within the

assessment could provide a participant valuable information about themselves and the perceptions of others. If ongoing work continues to focus on the measure refinement, consideration should be given to a dual-purpose study in which more data is gathered to refine the tool, but leaders and employees are provided with a feedback report for their own development. This practice is often followed in the development of new selection tools and batteries, primarily to build up norm bases for more accurate comparisons. An example of a similar approach was suggested in the development of a comparable tool, the Self-Reliance Inventory (Quick et al., 1992; Quick, Joplin, Nelson, Mangelsdorff, and Fiedler, 1996). In their paper, they suggested an approach in which the tool is administered within the selection process, data were gathered but unused when making selection decisions, but the data then were used in a developmental feedback environment to inform ongoing training and customized support based on the results. As such, future direction should seek to incorporate this additional benefit, particularly if administered to an organization struggling with justice perceptions and morale.

Overall Conclusion

This study aimed to contribute to a recognized gap in the field of organizational justice literature, intervention and application in a real business setting. The Just Leader measure was first conceptualized from the preventive stress management framework that called for primary, secondary and tertiary interventions. As a primary intervention, the Just Leader measure was developed as a tool to assess individual differences across leaders that would predict the likelihood that a leader treat their employees with fairness and justice. Once validated, the Just

Leader measure's intended use would be for pre-employment or pre-managerial selection decisions.

These two studies endeavored to develop the measure and establish content, construct, criterion, and incremental validity using samples of working adults. The first study demonstrated the expected relationships among empathy, emotional intelligence, non-entity beliefs and organizational justice behaviors using a scenario-based design. The second study focused on the dimensionality and utility of the newly developed Just Leader measure, as well as its place within the nomonolgical net. The final 19 items were best delineated into four factors, positive empathy, non-empathy, moral beliefs and non-entity beliefs. Efforts to establish criterion validity suggest the necessity for further exploration, as positive empathy was the only facet predictive of interpersonal justice perceptions.

While the measure still needs refinement, the work within these studies makes a significant contribution to the field of literature. It further defined key predictive relationships across arguably under-studied areas of individual difference as they relate to organizational justice perceptions. This scarcely studied area continues to need further attention, particularly with leader application and intervention. The current work helped to address that need and laid the groundwork for ongoing work on the Just Leader measure.

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Table 1

Just Leader Pilot Items for Study One with Lawshe Content Validity Ratios

	Ability Items	Relevance	Readability	Nature
1r	If I know I am right, I don't waste much time listening to other people's perspectives.	0.60	0.60	1.00
2	I always consider how my business decisions will impact everyone around me.	1.00	1.00	1.00
3	There are always two sides of the story and I try to understand both.	0.20	1.00	1.00
4	I am generally pretty good at understanding someone else's point of view.	0.20	0.60	1.00
5r	Dealing with interpersonal issues distracts from efficient business activity.	0.60	0.20	0.20
6r	I expect others to focus on their job and nothing else. [a]	-1.00	0.60	-0.20
7r	I expect others to leave interpersonal issues out of the workplace. [a]	0.20	0.60	-0.20
8r	Dealing with the concerns of others can take too much of my energy.	0.20	0.60	0.20
9r	I understand that others' opinion may differ from mine, but if I am in charge, my opinions are the only ones that matter. [b]	1.00	-1.00	0.20
10r	When someone is treated unfairly, sometimes I don't feel much pity for them.	0.20	0.20	1.00
11r	There are times I don't feel sorry for others when they have problems. [a]	-0.20	0.20	0.60
12	It really bothers me when I see someone being taken advantage of.	1.00	0.60	0.60
13r	The misfortunes of others don't usually disturb me a great deal.	0.20	1.00	1.00
14r	I ascribe to the saying, "it's just business-nothing personal."	0.20	0.20	0.20
15r	It is more important for others to keep me informed than for me to share information with them. [b]	0.60	0.20	-0.20
16r	I set high goals of others and expect them to succeed no matter what. [a]	-0.60	0.20	0.60
17r	I have no problem communicating negative news to individuals. [a]	-0.20	0.20	0.60
18r	Employees should only be privy to information that directly impacts their job. [a]	0.60	0.60	-0.20
19r	From time to time, my non-verbal messages do not match my verbal messages. [a]	-1.00	-0.20	0.60
20r	I can't be overly concerned with what others think of how I treat them.	0.60	0.20	0.20
21	I never find myself regretting how I've said something. [a]	-0.20	0.60	1.00
22	I tend to know what others are thinking without asking.	0.20	0.60	1.00
23	Understanding my own emotions helps me relate to others.	0.20	1.00	1.00
24	I am keenly aware of the triggers that might cause others to be upset.	0.60	1.00	1.00
25	My emotions have affected how I deliver messages at times.	0.20	0.20	1.00
26	I have a good understanding of my own feelings.	0.20	1.00	1.00
27	I generally understand why I feel the way I do.	1.00	1.00	1.00
28	I am always in control of my own emotions.	0.60	1.00	1.00

Note. [a] Removed from scale due to content validity ratio; [b] Marked for revision due to content validity ratio. Items marked with an "r" are reverse coded.

Table 1 continued

Just Leader Pilot Items for Study One with Lawshe Content Validity Ratios

	Belief Items	Relevance	Readability	Nature
29	It is important to help everyone on the team, even if some need more help than others.	0.20	0.60	1.00
30	A leader should never say something that may emotionally harm an employee.	1.00	0.60	0.60
31	Leaders should be held to a standard in how they treat their employees.	1.00	0.60	1.00
32	All employees should be treated fairly, regardless of their individual differences.	1.00	0.20	1.00
33	The moral treatment of employees includes sharing important information.	0.20	0.20	0.60
34r	In today's business world, there is no time for second chances.	0.20	0.60	0.20
35	One should always be mindful to never intentionally harm someone, even to a small degree.	0.20	0.20	1.00
36	Risking harm to another should never be tolerated, regardless of how small the risk might be. [a]	-1.00	0.20	0.60
37	Using too many strict ethical standards can get in the way of building relationships. [a]	0.20	-0.60	1.00
38	One leader's moral standards should not be used to judge others.	0.60	1.00	0.60
39	Leaders should be allowed to form their own ethical standards.	1.00	1.00	1.00
40	Leaders should be allowed to form their own standards of right and wrong.	0.60	0.60	1.00
41	Taking a vested interest in the success of each team member is the most important thing to do as a leader. [a]	-0.20	-0.60	0.20
42	With the right coaching, anyone can be successful at any job.	0.20	0.60	1.00
43	Everyone has the capability of succeeding at any level of business if they really try.	0.20	0.20	1.00
44r	Everyone has a certain amount of capability, and that can't really be changed.	0.60	0.20	1.00
45r	For some people, no amount of coaching/developing will help. [a]	-0.20	-0.20	1.00
46	I believe everyone deserves a chance at success, regardless of their individual differences.	1.00	0.60	1.00
47r	Individuals may do things differently, but the kind of person they are can't really be changed.	0.60	0.20	1.00
48r	Everyone is who they are, and there is not much that can be done to really change that. [a]	0.60	-0.20	1.00
49r	In some cases, no amount of coaching can help someone change the type of person they are.	0.60	0.20	1.00
50r	Not everyone has the capability of succeeding at business, even if they really try.	0.20	0.60	1.00

Note. [a] Removed from scale due to content validity ratio; [b] Marked for revision due to content validity ratio. Items marked with an "r" are reverse coded.

Table 2

Just Leader Pilot Items Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations

	New Just Leader Scale Pilot Items	*M*	*SD*	r_{interp}	r_{inform}	r_{it}
1r	If I know I am right, I don't waste much time listening to other people's perspectives.	4.42	1.55	.169**	.176**	.449
2	I always consider how my business decisions will impact everyone around me.	5.41	1.20	.088	.106*	.262
3	There are always two sides of the story and I try to understand both.	5.40	1.25	.242**	.179**	.356
4	I am generally pretty good at understanding someone else's point of view.	5.37	1.05	.162**	.149**	.333
5r	Dealing with interpersonal issues distracts from efficient business activity.	3.37	1.44	.231**	.134**	.251
6r	I expect others to focus on their job and nothing else. [a]	3.71	1.49	.226**	.228**	-
7r	I expect others to leave interpersonal issues out of the workplace. [a]	3.07	1.36	.186**	.156**	-
8r	Dealing with the concerns of others can take too much of my energy.	3.84	1.46	.243**	.217**	.482
9r	I understand that others' opinion may differ from mine, but if I am in charge, my opinions are the only ones that matter. [b]	4.71	1.62	.320**	.304**	.568
10r	When someone is treated unfairly, sometimes I don't feel much pity for them.	5.43	1.47	.267**	.205**	.522
11r	There are times I don't feel sorry for others when they have problems. [a]	4.45	1.65	.118**	.118**	-
12	It really bothers me when I see someone being taken advantage of.	5.53	1.12	.116*	.115*	.402
13r	The misfortunes of others don't usually disturb me a great deal.	5.16	1.46	.295**	.245**	.574
14r	I ascribe to the saying, "it's just business-nothing personal."	3.96	1.55	.236**	.235**	.366
15r	It is more important for others to keep me informed than for me to share information with them. [b]	4.10	1.53	.346**	.322**	.360
16r	I set high goals of others and expect them to succeed no matter what. [a]	3.53	1.34	.147**	.150**	-
17r	I have no problem communicating negative news to individuals. [a]	3.53	1.56	.146**	.115*	-
18r	Employees should only be privy to information that directly impacts their job. [a]	3.64	1.50	.234**	.234**	-
19r	From time to time, my non-verbal messages do not match my verbal messages. [a]	3.93	1.40	.151**	.138**	-
20r	I can't be overly concerned with what others think of how I treat them.	4.37	1.63	.291**	.269**	.549
21	I never find myself regretting how I've said something. [a]	4.48	1.47	.195**	.176**	-
22	I tend to know what others are thinking without asking. [c]	3.79	1.57	-.110*	-.118**	-
23	Understanding my own emotions helps me relate to others.	5.24	1.03	.030	.029	.327
24	I am keenly aware of the triggers that might cause others to be upset.	5.40	1.10	.092*	.073	.423
25	My emotions have affected how I deliver messages at times. [c]	5.12	1.21	-.031	-.049	-

Note. [a] Removed due to content validity ratio; [b] Marked for revision due to content validity ratio; [c] Removed due to relationship with criterion. [d] Marked for revision due to difficulty and variance. Items marked with an "r" are reverse coded.

Table 2 continued

Just Leader Pilot Items Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations

	New Just Leader Scale Pilot Items	*M*	*SD*	r_{interp}	r_{inform}	r_{it}
26	I have a good understanding of my own feelings.	5.57	1.05	.152**	.144**	.289
27	I generally understand why I feel the way I do.	5.41	1.13	.111*	.106*	.227
28	I am always in control of my own emotions. [c]	5.33	1.20	-.006	-.019	-
29	It is important to help everyone on the team, even if some need more help than others. [d]	5.86	0.92	.251**	.205**	.478
30	A leader should never say something that may emotionally harm an employee.	5.53	1.36	.152**	.156**	.317
31	Leaders should be held to a standard in how they treat their employees. [d]	6.13	0.99	.355**	.329**	.553
32	All employees should be treated fairly, regardless of their individual differences. [d]	6.20	0.99	.352**	.355**	.550
33	The moral treatment of employees includes sharing important information.	5.39	1.17	.158**	.160**	.249
34r	In today's business world, there is no time for second chances.	4.49	1.46	.325**	.301**	.423
35	One should always be mindful to never intentionally harm someone, even to a small degree. [d]	5.85	1.06	.189**	.158**	.399
36	Risking harm to another should never be tolerated, regardless of how small the risk might be. [a]	5.71	1.22	.126**	.090*	-
37	Using too many strict ethical standards can get in the way of building relationships. [a]	4.56	1.51	-.199**	-.186**	-
38	One leader's moral standards should not be used to judge others. [c]	4.93	1.50	-.209**	-.189**	-
39	Leaders should be allowed to form their own ethical standards. [c]	4.35	1.57	-.217**	-.202**	-
40	Leaders should be allowed to form their own standards of right and wrong. [a]	4.89	1.47	-.013	-.011	-
41	Taking a vested interest in the success of each team member is the most important thing to do as a leader. [a]	5.93	0.98	.272**	.245**	-
42	With the right coaching, anyone can be successful at any job. [c]	5.14	1.38	-.126**	-.154**	-
43	Everyone has the capability of succeeding at any level of business, if they really try. [c]	4.76	1.49	-.123**	-.187**	-
44r	Everyone has a certain amount of capability, and that can't really be changed.	3.67	1.53	.126**	.140**	.314
45r	For some people, no amount of coaching/developing will help. [a]	3.31	1.46	.111*	.106*	-
46	I believe everyone deserves a chance at success, regardless of their individual differences. [d]	5.82	0.97	.246**	.249**	.457
47r	Individuals may do things differently, but the kind of person they are can't really be changed.	3.50	1.27	.147**	.136**	.297
48r	Everyone is who they are, and there is not much that can be done to really change that. [a]	3.69	1.29	.124**	.099*	-
49r	In some cases, no amount of coaching can help someone change the type of person they are.	4.09	1.35	.158**	.162**	.506
50r	Not everyone has the capability of succeeding at business, even if they really try.	4.13	1.53	.179**	.186**	.480

Note. [a] Removed due to content validity ratio; [b] Marked for revision due to content validity ratio; [c] Removed due to relationship with criterion. [d] Marked for revision due to difficulty and variance. Items marked with an "r" are reverse coded.

Table 3

Revised and New Items for the Just Leader Measure

	Original Item	Revised Item
9r	I understand that others' opinion may differ from mine, but if I am in charge, my opinions are the only ones that matter.	If I am in charge, my opinions should matter more than the opinion of others.
15r	It is more important for others to keep me informed than for me to share information with them.	I care more about my employees keeping me informed, versus the other way around.
29	It is important to help everyone on the team, even if some need more help than others.	It is important to help everyone on the team, even if some struggle more than they should.
31	Leaders should be held to a standard in how they treat their employees.	Leaders should be held to a higher standard in how they treat others.
32	All employees should be treated fairly, regardless of their individual differences.	All people should be treated with respect, regardless of their own behavior.
35	One should always be mindful to never intentionally harm someone, even to a small degree.	People should never intentionally say something hurtful, even if it was well deserved.
46	I believe everyone deserves a chance at success, regardless of their individual differences.	All employees should be treated the same, regardless of their individual differences.
51r	N/A	Some people need harsh feedback to get the point.
52r	N/A	There are occasions when people deserve to be "put in their place".
53r	N/A	I treat others differently based on how they treat me.
54r	N/A	As much as I hate to admit it, I treat people differently based on who they are.
55r	N/A	If it is a matter of importance, not everyone is equally deserving of my time and attention.
56r	N/A	It is impossible to please everyone, so sometimes I don't even try.

Note. Items marked with an "r" are reverse coded.

Table 4

Composition/Socio-Demographic Information of the Study One Participants

Demographic Question		Frequency	Percent of Total
Gender			
	Male	182	62%
	Female	296	38%
Ethnicity			
	Asian	32	7%
	African American	37	8%
	Caucasian	382	80%
	Hispanic	18	4%
	Multiracial or Other	9	2%
Age			
	20-29	65	14%
	30-39	128	27%
	40-49	105	22%
	50-59	106	22%
	60-69	42	9%
	Missing	32	7%
Industry			
	Agriculture/Natural Resources	6	1%
	Consulting/Professional	33	7%
	Education/Government/Non-Profit	105	22%
	Financial/Legal	53	11%
	Medical/Healthcare	65	14%
	Restaurant/Accommodation/Hospitality	26	5%
	Retail/Wholesale	50	11%
	Sales/Marketing	27	6%
	Technical/Manufacturing/Engineering	73	15%
	Telecommunications/Publishing/Information	14	3%
	Transportation/Utilities	26	5%
Level of Role			
	Director (manager of managers)	30	6%
	Executive	26	6%
	Hourly	172	36%
	Independent Contributor- entry level	16	4%
	Independent Contributor- specialist	87	18%
	Senior Management	30	6%
	Supervisor- hourly employees	44	9%
	Supervisor- salaried employees	73	15%
Years of Managerial Experience			
	No Managerial Experience	119	25%
	<1 year	29	6%
	1-2 years	64	13%
	3-5 years	75	16%
	6-10 years	82	17%
	11-20 years	67	14%
	20 years or more	42	8%

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for Study One Participants

		Interpersonal Justice		Informational Justice		Interactional Justice	
		M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Gender	Male	3.09	.97	2.75	.89	2.92	.89
	Female	3.56	.83	3.15	.84	3.36	.80
	F(1,476)	31.430, *p*= 000***		24.511, *p* = .000***		30.375, *p* = 000***	
Ethnicity	Asian	3.13	.88	2.76	.83	2.94	.82
	African American	3.27	.88	2.75	.92	3.01	.87
	Caucasian	3.43	.92	3.06	.89	3.24	.87
	Hispanic	3.10	.86	2.72	.60	2.91	.66
	Multiracial or Other	3.43	.76	3.09	.81	3.26	.74
	F(4,473)	1.424, *p*=.225		2.250, *p*=.063		1.905, *p* =.108	
Age	20-29	3.33	.99	3.05	.93	3.19	.93
	30-39	3.44	.90	2.95	.83	3.19	.83
	40-49	3.36	.90	2.94	.89	3.15	.86
	50-59	3.44	.89	3.08	.90	3.26	.86
	60-69	3.58	.86	3.36	.80	3.47	.79
	F(4,441)	.632, *p* =.640		2.206, *p* =.067		1.200, *p* =.310	
Industry	Agriculture/Natural	3.73	.95	3.55	.99	3.64	.96
	Professional	3.52	.85	3.06	.95	3.29	.86
	Education/Government	3.63	.78	3.16	.81	3.40	.75
	Financial/Legal	3.43	.91	3.17	.89	3.30	.86
	Medical/Healthcare	3.34	.99	2.97	.93	3.16	.93
	Restaurant/Hospitality	3.12	.99	2.81	.81	2.97	.86
	Retail/Wholesale	3.28	.72	2.83	.68	3.06	.66
	Sales/Marketing	3.02	1.01	2.69	.96	2.85	.97
	Technical/Manufacturing	3.29	1.02	2.94	.94	3.12	.96
	Telecommunications	3.45	.87	2.96	.73	3.21	.77
	Transportation/Utilities	3.21	1.03	2.88	.99	3.04	.99
	F(10,467)	1.847, *p* =.051		1.551, *p* =.119		1.754, *p* =.067	
Level	Director	3.32	.97	2.84	.91	3.08	.92
	Executive	3.38	1.00	3.09	.93	3.24	.91
	Hourly	3.32	.88	2.88	.81	3.10	.80
	Entry level	3.41	1.00	3.14	.94	3.28	.95
	Specialist	3.60	.83	3.28	.85	3.44	.95
	Senior Management	2.90	.92	2.49	.96	2.69	.91
	Supervisor- hourly	3.41	1.04	3.11	.97	3.26	.98
	Supervisor- salaried	3.47	.91	3.08	.83	3.28	.84
	F(7,470)	2.153, *p* = .037*		3.722, *p* =.001***		3.048, *p* =.004**	
Managerial Experience	None	3.59	.79	3.13	.79	3.36	.75
	<1 year	3.40	1.02	3.18	.79	3.29	.92
	1-2 years	3.50	.83	3.11	.85	3.30	.79
	3-5 years	3.27	.88	2.91	.86	3.09	.84
	6-10 years	3.16	1.02	2.77	.89	2.97	.92
	11-20 years	3.38	.98	2.99	.97	3.18	.95
	20 years or more	3.26	.92	2.95	.97	3.11	.91
	F(6,471)	2.380, *p*=.028*		1.835, *p* =.091		2.20, *p* = .042*	

*** p<.001 **p<.01 *p<.05

Table 6

Correlations between Organizational Justice and Predictor Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	Mean	SD
1- Interpersonal Justice																3.38	.915
2- Informational Justice	.847**															2.99	.879
3- Affective Empathy	.193**	.166**														3.71	.655
4- Cognitive Empathy	.174**	.139**	.556**													3.61	.600
5- Empathy	.208**	.174**	.893**	.871**												3.66	.553
6- Self Emotion Appraisal	.179**	.158**	.255**	.376**	.355**											5.51	.933
7- Other Emotion Appraisal	.029	.018	.365**	.428**	.448**	.503**										5.20	.943
8- Use of Emotion	.096*	.086	.305**	.400**	.397**	.522**	.437**									5.68	.933
9- Regulation of Emotion	-.005	-.013	.184**	.407**	.330**	.461**	.396**	.462**								5.18	1.08
10- Emotional Intelligence	.093*	.077	.355**	.521**	.493**	.796**	.748**	.776**	.770**							5.39	.751
11- Non-entity Belief	.177**	.171**	.300**	.269**	.323**	-.060	-.052	.097*	.035	.008						3.30	1.00
12- Incremental Belief	-.107*	-.136**	.247**	.318**	.318**	.156**	.244**	.296**	.314**	.330**	.452**					3.99	.997
13- IPT Belief	.042	.021	.321**	.344**	.376**	.056	.112*	.230**	.204**	.197**	.853**	.851**				3.65	.853
14- Moral idealism	.027	-.007	.397**	.304**	.400**	.382**	.413**	.473**	.323**	.511**	-.054	.298**	.142**			5.36	.798
15- Moral relativism	-.303**	-.289**	-.198**	-.079	-.160**	.028	.058	.047	.089	.074	-.284**	.172**	-.067	.103**		4.14	1.05
16- Moral Ideology	-.215**	-.223**	.078	.115**	.109*	.241**	.282**	.308**	.254*	.350**	-.247**	.303**	.032	.654**	.819**	4.75	.692

Note. *p<.05 **p<.01

Table 7

Interpersonal Justice Regressed on Empathy (H1)

	Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	Part Correlations	Tolerance	
Step 1	Gender	.429	.085	.228	.221	.937	
	Level[a]	.087	.230	.017	.017	.941	R^2 = .109**
	Level[b]	.308	.116	.130	.117	.805	Adjusted
	Level[c]	.293	.157	.093	.082	.779	R^2 = .082
	Level[d]	.314	.129	.124	.107	.744	*R* = .330**
	Level[e]	.207	.184	.055	.049	.808	
	Level[f]	-.154	.185	-.041	-.036	.795	
	Level[g]	.315	.198	.078	.070	.798	
	Managerial Experience[h]	-.199	.183	-.052	-.048	.840	
	Managerial Experience[i]	-.086	.139	-.032	-.027	.717	
	Managerial Experience[j]	-.286	.136	-.114	-.093	.658	
	Managerial Experience[k]	-.397	.138	-.164	-.126	.594	
	Managerial Experience[l]	-.180	.151	-.068	-.052	.586	
	Managerial Experience[m]	-.328	.171	-.102	-.084	.686	
Step 2	Gender	.406	.087	.216	.202	.873	
	Level[a]	.047	.226	.009	.009	.939	
	Level[b]	.282	.114	.119	.107	.800	
	Level[c]	.268	.155	.085	.075	.776	
	Level[d]	.302	.127	.119	.102	.744	R^2 = .142**
	Level[e]	.139	.182	.037	.033	.800	Adjusted
	Level[f]	-.174	.182	-.046	-.041	.794	R^2 = .112
	Level[g]	.269	.195	.067	.059	.793	*R* = .376**
	Managerial Experience[h]	-.176	.180	-.046	-.042	.838	$R^2\Delta$ = .033**
	Managerial Experience[i]	-.090	.137	-.034	-.028	.714	
	Managerial Experience[j]	-.263	.134	-.105	-.085	.653	
	Managerial Experience[k]	-.373	.136	-.154	-.119	.593	
	Managerial Experience[l]	-.219	.149	-.083	-.063	.583	
	Managerial Experience[m]	-.384	.169	-.119	-.098	.680	
	Cognitive Empathy	.212	.081	.139	.112	.651	
	Affective Empathy	.094	.076	.068	.054	.632	

Note. [a] 1-2 years; [b] 3-5 years; [c] 5-10 years; [d] 11-20 years; [e] more than 20 years; reference group= no experience; [f] salaried-entry; [g] salaried-specialist; [h] supervisor-hourly; [i] supervisor-salaried; [j] director; [k] sr. mgmt.; [l] executive; reference group= hourly.

* p <.05; ** p < .001

Table 8

Informational Justice Regressed on Empathy (H2)

	Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	Part Correlations	Tolerance	
Step 1	Gender	.370	.082	.205	.198	.937	
	Level[a]	.245	.220	.050	.049	.941	R^2 = .114**
	Level[b]	.421	.111	.185	.166	.805	Adjusted
	Level[c]	.404	.151	.133	.117	.779	R^2 = .088
	Level[d]	.327	.124	.134	.115	.744	*R* = .338**
	Level[e]	.133	.176	.037	.033	.808	
	Level[f]	-.177	.178	-.049	-.044	.795	
	Level[g]	.410	.190	.106	.094	.798	
	Managerial Experience[h]	.028	.176	.008	.007	.840	
	Managerial Experience[i]	-.024	.133	-.009	-.008	.717	
	Managerial Experience[j]	-.187	.130	-.077	-.063	.658	
	Managerial Experience[k]	-.324	.132	-.139	-.107	.594	
	Managerial Experience[l]	-.121	.145	-.048	-.037	.586	
	Managerial Experience[m]	-.189	.164	-.061	-.050	.686	
Step 2	Gender	.345	.084	.190	.178	.873	
	Level[a]	.215	.218	.044	.043	.939	
	Level[b]	.404	.110	.177	.159	.800	
	Level[c]	.383	.149	.126	.111	.776	
	Level[d]	.316	.123	.130	.112	.744	R^2 = .135**
	Level[e]	.079	.175	.022	.019	.800	Adjusted
	Level[f]	-.194	.176	-.054	-.048	.794	R^2 = .105
	Level[g]	.379	.188	.098	.087	.793	*R* = .368**
	Managerial Experience[h]	.048	.174	.013	.012	.838	$R^2\Delta$ = .021*
	Managerial Experience[i]	-.023	.132	-.009	-.008	.714	
	Managerial Experience[j]	-.165	.129	-.068	-.055	.653	
	Managerial Experience[k]	-.306	.131	-.131	-.101	.593	
	Managerial Experience[l]	-.149	.144	-.059	-.045	.583	
	Managerial Experience[m]	-.229	.163	-.074	-.061	.680	
	Cognitive Empathy	.137	.079	.093	.075	.651	
	Affective Empathy	.100	.073	.075	.059	.632	

Note. [a] 1-2 years; [b] 3-5 years; [c] 5-10 years; [d] 11-20 years; [e] more than 20 years; reference group= no experience; [f] salaried-entry; [g] salaried-specialist; [h] supervisor-hourly; [i] supervisor-salaried; [j] director; [k] sr. mgmt.; [l] executive; reference group= hourly.

* p <.05; ** p < .001

Table 9

Interpersonal Justice Regressed on Emotional Intelligence (H3)

	Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	Part Correlations	Tolerance	
Step 1	Gender	.429	.085	.228	.221	.937	
	Level[a]	.087	.230	.017	.017	.941	R^2 = .109**
	Level[b]	.308	.116	.130	.117	.805	Adjusted
	Level[c]	.293	.157	.093	.082	.779	R^2 = .082
	Level[d]	.314	.129	.124	.107	.744	*R* = .330**
	Level[e]	.207	.184	.055	.049	.808	
	Level[f]	-.154	.185	-.041	-.036	.795	
	Level[g]	.315	.198	.078	.070	.798	
	Managerial Experience[h]	-.199	.183	-.052	-.048	.840	
	Managerial Experience[i]	-.086	.139	-.032	-.027	.717	
	Managerial Experience[j]	-.286	.136	-.114	-.093	.658	
	Managerial Experience[k]	-.397	.138	-.164	-.126	.594	
	Managerial Experience[l]	-.180	.151	-.068	-.052	.586	
	Managerial Experience[m]	-.328	.171	-.102	-.084	.686	
Step 2	Gender	.450	.086	.239	.225	.884	
	Level[a]	.065	.227	.013	.012	.930	
	Level[b]	.297	.114	.125	.112	.793	
	Level[c]	.270	.154	.086	.075	.776	
	Level[d]	.270	.128	.106	.091	.732	R^2 = .149**
	Level[e]	.193	.184	.051	.045	.780	Adjusted
	Level[f]	-.117	.183	-.031	-.027	.786	R^2 = .116
	Level[g]	.209	.197	.052	.046	.779	*R* = .386**
	Managerial Experience[h]	-.163	.181	-.043	-.039	.830	$R^2\Delta$ = .040**
	Managerial Experience[i]	-.095	.137	-.036	-.030	.712	
	Managerial Experience[j]	-.273	.134	-.109	-.088	.653	
	Managerial Experience[k]	-.366	.136	-.151	-.116	.593	
	Managerial Experience[l]	-.180	.149	-.068	-.052	.581	
	Managerial Experience[m]	-.317	.170	-.098	-.080	.672	
	EI-SEA	.230	.055	.235	.180	.589	
	EI- OEA	-.101	.052	-.104	-.083	.640	
	EI- UOE	.027	.054	.027	.021	.605	
	EI-ROE	-.036	.045	-.042	-.034	.651	

Note. [a] 1-2 years; [b] 3-5 years; [c] 5-10 years; [d] 11-20 years; [e] more than 20 years; reference group= no experience; [f] salaried-entry; [g] salaried-specialist; [h] supervisor-hourly; [i] supervisor-salaried; [j] director; [k] sr. mgmt.; [l] executive; reference group= hourly.

* p <.05; ** p < .001

Table 10

Informational Justice Regressed on Emotional Intelligence (H4)

	Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	Part Correlations	Tolerance	
Step 1	Gender	.370	.082	.205	.198	.937	
	Level[a]	.245	.220	.050	.049	.941	R^2 = .114**
	Level[b]	.421	.111	.185	.166	.805	Adjusted
	Level[c]	.404	.151	.133	.117	.779	R^2 = .088
	Level[d]	.327	.124	.134	.115	.744	*R* = .338**
	Level[e]	.133	.176	.037	.033	.808	
	Level[f]	-.177	.178	-.049	-.044	.795	
	Level[g]	.410	.190	.106	.094	.798	
	Managerial Experience[h]	.028	.176	.008	.007	.840	
	Managerial Experience[i]	-.024	.133	-.009	-.008	.717	
	Managerial Experience[j]	-.187	.130	-.077	-.063	.658	
	Managerial Experience[k]	-.324	.132	-.139	-.107	.594	
	Managerial Experience[l]	-.121	.145	-.048	-.037	.586	
	Managerial Experience[m]	-.189	.164	-.061	-.050	.686	
Step 2	Gender	.386	.083	.214	.201	.884	
	Level[a]	.229	.218	.047	.045	.930	
	Level[b]	.415	.110	.182	.162	.793	
	Level[c]	.387	.149	.127	.112	.776	
	Level[d]	.291	.123	.119	.102	.732	R^2 = .146**
	Level[e]	.127	.177	.035	.031	.780	Adjusted
	Level[f]	-.142	.176	-.039	-.035	.786	R^2 = .112
	Level[g]	.325	.189	.084	.074	.779	*R* = .382**
	Managerial Experience[h]	.062	.174	.017	.015	.830	$R^2\Delta$ = .031*
	Managerial Experience[i]	-.029	.132	-.011	-.010	.712	
	Managerial Experience[j]	-.178	.129	-.074	-.059	.653	
	Managerial Experience[k]	-.299	.131	-.128	-.099	.593	
	Managerial Experience[l]	-.118	.143	-.047	-.036	.581	
	Managerial Experience[m]	-.173	.163	-.056	-.046	.672	
	EI-SEA	.202	.053	.215	.165	.589	
	EI- OEA	-.083	.050	-.089	-.072	.640	
	EI- UOE	.010	.052	.011	.008	.605	
	EI-ROE	-.036	.044	-.044	-.036	.651	

Note. [a] 1-2 years; [b] 3-5 years; [c] 5-10 years; [d] 11-20 years; [e] more than 20 years; reference group= no experience; [f] salaried-entry; [g] salaried-specialist; [h] supervisor-hourly; [i] supervisor-salaried; [j] director; [k] sr. mgmt.; [l] executive; reference group= hourly.

* p <.05; ** p < .001

Table 11

Interpersonal Justice Regressed on Implicit Person Beliefs (H5)

	Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	Part Correlations	Tolerance	
Step 1	Gender	.429	.085	.228	.221	.937	
	Level[a]	.087	.230	.017	.017	.941	R^2 = .109**
	Level[b]	.308	.116	.130	.117	.805	Adjusted
	Level[c]	.293	.157	.093	.082	.779	R^2 = .082
	Level[d]	.314	.129	.124	.107	.744	*R* = .330**
	Level[e]	.207	.184	.055	.049	.808	
	Level[f]	-.154	.185	-.041	-.036	.795	
	Level[g]	.315	.198	.078	.070	.798	
	Managerial Experience[h]	-.199	.183	-.052	-.048	.840	
	Managerial Experience[i]	-.086	.139	-.032	-.027	.717	
	Managerial Experience[j]	-.286	.136	-.114	-.093	.658	
	Managerial Experience[k]	-.397	.138	-.164	-.126	.594	
	Managerial Experience[l]	-.180	.151	-.068	-.052	.586	
	Managerial Experience[m]	-.328	.171	-.102	-.084	.686	
Step 2	Gender	.361	.084	.192	.183	.910	
	Level[a]	.049	.225	.010	.009	.928	
	Level[b]	.221	.114	.093	.083	.788	
	Level[c]	.214	.154	.068	.059	.771	
	Level[d]	.219	.127	.086	.074	.729	R^2 = .158**
	Level[e]	.311	.181	.083	.074	.794	Adjusted
	Level[f]	-.186	.181	-.049	-.044	.793	R^2 = .129
	Level[g]	.221	.194	.055	.049	.791	*R* = .398**
	Managerial Experience[h]	-.222	.179	-.058	-.053	.839	$R^2\Delta$ = .050**
	Managerial Experience[i]	-.086	.135	-.032	-.027	.717	
	Managerial Experience[j]	-.230	.133	-.092	-.074	.652	
	Managerial Experience[k]	-.411	.134	-.169	-.131	.594	
	Managerial Experience[l]	-.123	.147	-.047	-.036	.582	
	Managerial Experience[m]	-.291	.169	-.090	-.074	.670	
	Non-entity Beliefs	.223	.046	.245	.209	.726	
	Incremental Beliefs	-.183	.047	-.200	-.168	.705	

Note. [a] 1-2 years; [b] 3-5 years; [c] 5-10 years; [d] 11-20 years; [e] more than 20 years; reference group= no experience; [f] salaried-entry; [g] salaried-specialist; [h] supervisor-hourly; [i] supervisor-salaried; [j] director; [k] sr. mgmt.; [l] executive; reference group= hourly.

* p <.05; ** p < .001

Table 12

Informational Justice Regressed on Implicit Person Beliefs (H6)

	Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	Part Correlations	Tolerance	
Step 1	Gender	.370	.082	.205	.198	.937	
	Level[a]	.245	.220	.050	.049	.941	R^2 = .114**
	Level[b]	.421	.111	.185	.166	.805	Adjusted
	Level[c]	.404	.151	.133	.117	.779	R^2 = .088
	Level[d]	.327	.124	.134	.115	.744	*R* = .338**
	Level[e]	.133	.176	.037	.033	.808	
	Level[f]	-.177	.178	-.049	-.044	.795	
	Level[g]	.410	.190	.106	.094	.798	
	Managerial Experience[h]	.028	.176	.008	.007	.840	
	Managerial Experience[i]	-.024	.133	-.009	-.008	.717	
	Managerial Experience[j]	-.187	.130	-.077	-.063	.658	
	Managerial Experience[k]	-.324	.132	-.139	-.107	.594	
	Managerial Experience[l]	-.121	.145	-.048	-.037	.586	
	Managerial Experience[m]	-.189	.164	-.061	-.050	.686	
Step 2	Gender	.299	.081	.165	.158	.910	
	Level[a]	.224	.215	.046	.044	.928	
	Level[b]	.334	.109	.147	.130	.788	
	Level[c]	.325	.147	.107	.094	.771	
	Level[d]	.233	.122	.096	.082	.729	R^2 = .168**
	Level[e]	.245	.173	.068	.060	.794	Adjusted
	Level[f]	-.212	.173	-.059	-.052	.793	R^2 = .139
	Level[g]	.318	.185	.082	.073	.791	*R* = .410**
	Managerial Experience[h]	.003	.171	.001	.001	.839	$R^2\Delta$ = .054**
	Managerial Experience[i]	-.023	.129	-.009	-.007	.717	
	Managerial Experience[j]	-.137	.127	-.057	-.046	.652	
	Managerial Experience[k]	-.340	.128	-.146	-.112	.594	
	Managerial Experience[l]	-.061	.141	-.024	-.018	.582	
	Managerial Experience[m]	-.135	.161	-.044	-.036	.670	
	Non-entity Beliefs	.210	.044	.240	.204	.726	
	Incremental Beliefs	-.202	.045	-.229	-.193	.705	

Note. [a] 1-2 years; [b] 3-5 years; [c] 5-10 years; [d] 11-20 years; [e] more than 20 years; reference group= no experience; [f] salaried-entry; [g] salaried-specialist; [h] supervisor-hourly; [i] supervisor-salaried; [j] director; [k] sr. mgmt.; [l] executive; reference group= hourly.

* p <.05; ** p < .001

Table 13

Interpersonal Justice Regressed on Moral Ideology (H7)

	Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	Part Correlations	Tolerance	
Step 1	Gender	.429	.085	.228	.221	.937	
	Level[a]	.087	.230	.017	.017	.941	R^2 = .109**
	Level[b]	.308	.116	.130	.117	.805	Adjusted
	Level[c]	.293	.157	.093	.082	.779	R^2 = .082
	Level[d]	.314	.129	.124	.107	.744	*R* = .330**
	Level[e]	.207	.184	.055	.049	.808	
	Level[f]	-.154	.185	-.041	-.036	.795	
	Level[g]	.315	.198	.078	.070	.798	
	Managerial Experience[h]	-.199	.183	-.052	-.048	.840	
	Managerial Experience[i]	-.086	.139	-.032	-.027	.717	
	Managerial Experience[j]	-.286	.136	-.114	-.093	.658	
	Managerial Experience[k]	-.397	.138	-.164	-.126	.594	
	Managerial Experience[l]	-.180	.151	-.068	-.052	.586	
	Managerial Experience[m]	-.328	.171	-.102	-.084	.686	
Step 2	Gender	.372	.083	.198	.190	.922	
	Level[a]	.031	.222	.006	.006	.937	
	Level[b]	.235	.112	.099	.088	.793	
	Level[c]	.221	.152	.070	.061	.774	
	Level[d]	.275	.125	.108	.093	.735	R^2 = .175**
	Level[e]	.188	.177	.050	.045	.807	Adjusted
	Level[f]	-.149	.179	-.040	-.035	.795	R^2 = .175
	Level[g]	.282	.191	.070	.062	.794	*R* = .418**
	Managerial Experience[h]	-.107	.177	-.028	-.026	.833	$R^2\Delta$ = .066**
	Managerial Experience[i]	-.067	.134	-.025	-.021	.714	
	Managerial Experience[j]	-.195	.132	-.078	-.063	.650	
	Managerial Experience[k]	-.334	.133	-.138	-.106	.590	
	Managerial Experience[l]	-.180	.145	-.068	-.052	.586	
	Managerial Experience[m]	-.378	.166	-.117	-.096	.677	
	Moral Idealism	.063	.050	.055	.053	.938	
	Moral Relativism	-.231	.038	-.265	-.256	.931	

Note. [a] 1-2 years; [b] 3-5 years; [c] 5-10 years; [d] 11-20 years; [e] more than 20 years; reference group= no experience; [f] salaried-entry; [g] salaried-specialist; [h] supervisor-hourly; [i] supervisor-salaried; [j] director; [k] sr. mgmt.; [l] executive; reference group= hourly.

* p <.05; ** p < .001

Table 14

Informational Justice Regressed on Moral Ideology (H8)

	Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	Part Correlations	Tolerance	
Step 1	Gender	.370	.082	.205	.198	.937	
	Level[a]	.245	.220	.050	.049	.941	R^2 = .114**
	Level[b]	.421	.111	.185	.166	.805	Adjusted
	Level[c]	.404	.151	.133	.117	.779	R^2 = .088
	Level[d]	.327	.124	.134	.115	.744	*R* = .338**
	Level[e]	.133	.176	.037	.033	.808	
	Level[f]	-.177	.178	-.049	-.044	.795	
	Level[g]	.410	.190	.106	.094	.798	
	Managerial Experience[h]	.028	.176	.008	.007	.840	
	Managerial Experience[i]	-.024	.133	-.009	-.008	.717	
	Managerial Experience[j]	-.187	.130	-.077	-.063	.658	
	Managerial Experience[k]	-.324	.132	-.139	-.107	.594	
	Managerial Experience[l]	-.121	.145	-.048	-.037	.586	
	Managerial Experience[m]	-.189	.164	-.061	-.050	.686	
Step 2	Gender	.323	.080	.179	.172	.922	
	Level[a]	.203	.214	.042	.040	.937	
	Level[b]	.353	.108	.155	.138	.793	
	Level[c]	.341	.147	.112	.099	.774	
	Level[d]	.284	.121	.116	.100	.735	R^2 = .170**
	Level[e]	.118	.171	.033	.029	.807	Adjusted
	Level[f]	-.174	.172	-.048	-.043	.795	R^2 = .141
	Level[g]	.372	.184	.096	.086	.794	*R* = .412**
	Managerial Experience[h]	.105	.171	.028	.026	.833	$R^2\Delta$ = .056**
	Managerial Experience[i]	-.011	.129	-.004	-.004	.714	
	Managerial Experience[j]	-.108	.127	-.045	-.036	.650	
	Managerial Experience[k]	-.272	.129	-.117	-.090	.590	
	Managerial Experience[l]	-.120	.140	-.048	-.036	.586	
	Managerial Experience[m]	-.222	.160	-.072	-.059	.677	
	Moral Idealism	.023	.048	.021	.020	.938	
	Moral Relativism	-.204	.037	-.244	-.236	.931	

Note. [a] 1-2 years; [b] 3-5 years; [c] 5-10 years; [d] 11-20 years; [e] more than 20 years; reference group= no experience; [f] salaried-entry; [g] salaried-specialist; [h] supervisor-hourly; [i] supervisor-salaried; [j] director; [k] sr. mgmt.; [l] executive; reference group= hourly.

* p <.05; ** p < .001

Table 15

Results of Exploratory Factor Analysis for the Just Leader Scale

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Factor	Eigenvalue	Variance	Cumulative	Eigenvalue	Variance	Cumulative	Eigenvalue	Variance	Cumulative
1	6.28	25.1%	25.1%	5.58	22.9%	22.9%	3.15	12.6%	12.6%
2	3.45	13.8%	38.9%	2.74	11.5%	34.4%	2.97	11.9%	24.5%
3	1.69	6.7%	45.6%	1.18	4.8%	39.2%	2.35	9.4%	33.9%
4	1.33	5.3%	50.9%	.856	3.7%	42.9%	1.84	7.4%	41.2%
5	1.07	4.3%	55.2%	.507	2.0%	44.9%	.93	3.7%	44.9%

Table 16

Rotated Component Matrix for Five Factor Model of the Just Leader Scale

	Factor				
Item	1	2	3	4	5
1	.429	.095	.104	.165	.314
2	-.004	.270	.333	.045	-.059
3	.069	.178	.477	.058	.111
4	-.034	.267	.426	.120	-.007
5	.390	-.086	.032	.075	.106
8	.478	.073	.121	.237	.124
9	.762	.198	.022	.151	.015
10	.336	.211	.131	.135	.563
12	.133	.208	.443	.079	.072
13	.409	.207	.222	.085	.557
14	.504	.038	.014	.076	.124
15	.529	.097	-.083	.069	.048
20	.732	.120	.105	.171	-.005
23	-.052	.158	.761	-.056	.053
24	.037	.162	.803	-.021	.124
29	.074	.659	.250	.045	.081
30	.040	.475	.213	-.067	.037
31	.124	.725	.223	.067	.162
32	.172	.773	.129	.057	.117
34	.487	.176	-.035	.203	.058
35	.068	.469	.278	-.037	.167
46	.138	.693	.161	.039	-.038
47	.293	-.056	.001	.637	-.032
49	.379	.043	.096	.719	.114
50	.291	.077	.083	.808	.166

Table 17

Results of Exploratory Factor Analysis for the Two Factor Just Leader Scale

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Factor	Eigenvalue	Variance	Cumulative	Eigenvalue	Variance	Cumulative	Eigenvalue	Variance	Cumulative
1	6.28	25.1%	25.1%	5.6	22.6%	22.6%	4.25	17.0%	17.0%
2	3.45	13.8%	38.9%	2.77	11.1%	33.7%	4.17	16.7%	33.7%

Table 18

Rotated Component Matrix for Two Factor Model of the Just Leader Scale

	Factor	
Item	1	2
1	.497	.174
2	.006	.401
3	.099	.426
4	.042	.442
5	.388	-.046
8	.562	.122
9	.677	.179
10	.452	.321
12	.161	.425
13	.473	.368
14	.480	.054
15	.475	.044
20	.661	.154
23	-.055	.513
24	.047	.544
29	.109	.692
30	.009	.526
31	.188	.728
32	.217	.694
34	.533	.114
35	.068	.576
46	.140	.645
47	.579	-.103
49	.713	.047
50	.683	.071

Table 19

Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations for the Just Leader Items

	New Just Leader Pilot Items	*M*	*SD*	$r_{ability}$	r_{it}
1	I am generally pretty good at understanding someone else's point of view.	5.94	0.85	.459	.388
2	I always consider how my business decisions will impact everyone around me.	5.57	1.03	.409	.417
3	Dealing with interpersonal issues distracts from efficient business activity.	4.07	1.65	.308	.277
4	If I know I am right, I don't waste much time listening to other people's perspectives.	5.19	1.38	.535	.521
5	When someone is treated unfairly, sometimes I don't feel much pity for them.	5.76	1.30	.528	.498
6	There are always two sides of the story and I try to understand both.	5.88	0.90	.428	.408
7	If I am in charge, my opinions should matter more than the opinion of others.	5.17	1.43	.447	.476
8	I ascribe to the saying, "it's just business, nothing personal."	4.76	1.54	.303	.286
9	It really bothers me when I see someone being taken advantage of.	6.04	1.15	.356	.297
10	Dealing with the concerns of others can take too much of my energy.	4.74	1.59	.497	.513
11	The misfortunes of others don't usually disturb me a great deal.	5.62	1.28	.502	.486
12	I generally understand why I feel the way I do.	5.63	1.07	.381	.324
13	It is more important for my employees to keep me up to date than for me to share information with them.	5.00	1.49	.378	.387
14	Understanding my own emotions helps me relate to others.	5.87	0.98	.488	.406
15	I can't be overly concerned with what others think of how I treat them.	5.12	1.49	.438	.477
16	I have a good understanding of my own feelings.	5.91	0.92	.418	.358
17	I am keenly aware of the triggers that might cause others to be upset.	5.37	1.11	.366	.322

Table 19 continued

Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations for the Just Leader Items

	New Just Leader Pilot Items	*M*	*SD*	r_{belief}	r_{it}
18	Leaders should be held to a higher standard in how they treat others.	5.85	1.27	.078	.156
19	It is important to help everyone on the team, even if some struggle more than they should.	5.89	0.93	.402	.442
20	All people should be treated with respect, regardless of their own behavior.	5.73	1.31	.344	.345
21	The moral treatment of employees includes sharing important information.	5.55	1.10	.221	.291
22	A leader should never say something that may emotionally harm an employee.	5.13	1.58	.275	.209
23	In today's business world, there is no time for second chances.	5.30	1.29	.249	.358
24	People should never intentionally say something hurtful, even if it was well deserved.	5.31	1.43	.361	.326
25	If it is a matter of important business, not everyone is equally deserving of my time and attention.	4.36	1.62	.427	.426
26	Everyone has a certain amount of capability, and that can't really be changed.	4.40	1.56	.370	.393
27	All employees should be treated the same, regardless of their individual differences.	4.60	1.90	.111	.076
28	Not everyone has the capability of succeeding at business, even if they really try.	3.40	1.54	.429	.356
29	Some people need harsh feedback to get the point.	3.59	1.54	.485	.462
30	I treat others differently based on how they treat me.	4.16	1.63	.520	.527
31	In some cases, no amount of coaching can help someone change the type of person they are.	3.24	1.51	.442	.377
32	As much as I hate to admit it, I treat people differently based on who they are.	4.54	1.62	.470	.464
33	It is impossible to please everyone, so sometimes I don't even try.	4.54	1.59	.441	.497
34	Individuals may do things differently, but the kind of person they are can't really be changed.	4.00	1.50	.390	.402
35	There are occasions when people deserve to be "put in their place".	3.82	1.60	.500	.489

Table 20

Demographic Information of the Participants for Study Two: Sample One

Demographic Question		Frequency	Percent of Total
Gender			
	Male	192	29%
	Female	458	70%
	Missing	9	1%
Ethnicity			
	Asian	25	4%
	African American	40	6%
	Caucasian	525	80%
	Hispanic	36	5%
	Multiracial or Other	22	3%
	Missing	11	2%
Age			
	18-29	131	20%
	30-39	219	33%
	40-49	153	23%
	50-59	104	16%
	60-69	35	5%
	70-73	5	1%
	Missing	12	2%
Industry			
	Agriculture/Natural Resources	3	1%
	Consulting/Professional	58	9%
	Education/Government/Non-Profit	90	14%
	Financial/Legal	41	6%
	Medical/Healthcare	47	7%
	Restaurant/Accommodation/Hospitality	19	3%
	Retail/Wholesale	74	11%
	Sales/Marketing	46	7%
	Technical/Manufacturing/Engineering	63	9%
	Telecommunications/Publishing/Information	4	1%
	Transportation/Utilities	110	17%
	Other	95	14%
	Missing	9	1%
Level of Role			
	Director (manager of managers)	80	12%
	Executive	29	4%
	Hourly	119	18%
	Independent Contributor- entry level	32	5%
	Independent Contributor- specialist	138	21%
	Senior Management	33	5%
	Supervisor- hourly employees	40	6%
	Supervisor- salaried employees	119	18%
	Other	59	9%
	Missing	10	2%

Table 21

Demographic Information of the Participants for Study Two: Sample Two

	Boss Sample		Direct Report Sample	
Demographic	Frequency	% of Total	Frequency	% of Total
Gender				
Male	42	36%	63	32%
Female	67	57%	138	68%
Missing	8	7%	0	0%
Ethnicity				
Asian	2	2%	8	4%
African American	11	9%	9	4%
Caucasian	84	72%	159	80%
Hispanic	8	7%	17	9%
Multiracial or Other	4	3%	5	3%
Missing	8	7%	0	0%
Age				
18-29	7	6%	38	19%
30-39	39	33%	80	40%
40-49	35	30%	59	30%
50-59	22	19%	16	8%
60-69	5	4%	4	2%
Missing	9	8%	1	1%
Industry				
Agriculture/Natural Resources	0	0%	0	0%
Consulting/Professional	9	8%	23	12%
Education/Government/Non-Profit	9	8%	15	7%
Financial/Legal	6	5%	12	6%
Medical/Healthcare	2	1%	4	2%
Restaurant/Accommodation/Hospitality	1	1%	1	1%
Retail/Wholesale	14	12%	18	9%
Sales/Marketing	6	5%	13	7%
Technical/Manufacturing/Engineering	8	7%	25	13%
Telecommunications/Information	1	1%	2	1%
Transportation/Utilities	47	40%	74	37%
Other	6	5%	11	5%
Missing	8	7%	0	0%

Table 21 continued

Demographic Information of the Participants for Study Two: Sample Two

	Boss Sample		Direct Report Sample	
Demographic	Frequency	% of Total	Frequency	% of Total
Level of Role				
Director	44	38%	24	12%
Executive	11	9%	1	1%
Hourly	1	1%	20	10%
Independent Contributor- entry level	0	0%	9	4%
Independent Contributor- specialist	0	0%	83	42%
Senior Management	14	12%	3	1%
Supervisor- hourly employees	6	5%	2	1%
Supervisor- salaried employees	31	27%	39	20%
Other	2	1%	17	9%
Missing	8	7%	0	0%
Performance Rating				
Exceptional- Top 10%			48	25%
Above Average- Top 25%			75	39%
Average- Top 50%			69	35%
Slightly Below- Top 75%			3	2%
Below Average- Bottom 25%			0	0%

Table 22

Preliminary Item Response Theory with Marginal Maximum Likelihood Discrimination

	Unstandardized		Standardized		
Item	Discrimination	*S.E.*	Discrimination	*S.E.*	*Model Fit*
1	1.459	0.130	0.627	0.034	
2	1.265	0.110	0.572	0.034	
4	1.321	0.111	0.589	0.032	2 Parameter Model
5	1.615	0.130	0.665	0.030	Loglikelihood Ho:
6	1.278	0.114	0.576	0.034	-26938.651
7	1.037	0.099	0.496	0.036	AIC: 54271.30
9	1.254	0.112	0.569	0.034	BIC: 55155.975
10	1.203	0.102	0.553	0.033	BIC_{cor}: 54530.495
11	1.271	0.112	0.574	0.034	
12	1.227	0.113	0.560	0.036	
13	0.832	0.090	0.417	0.037	1 Parameter Model
14	1.524	0.126	0.643	0.031	Loglikelihood Ho:
15	1.037	0.099	0.496	0.036	-27000.736
16	1.407	0.130	0.613	0.035	AIC: 54341.472
17	1.128	0.104	0.528	0.035	BIC: 55104.895
19	0.721	0.093	0.369	0.041	BIC_{cor}: 54565.141
20	0.741	0.092	0.378	0.040	
24	0.781	0.091	0.395	0.039	
25	1.022	0.098	0.491	0.036	
26	1.126	0.103	0.527	0.035	
28	1.096	0.103	0.517	0.036	
29	1.277	0.109	0.576	0.033	
30	1.484	0.120	0.633	0.031	
31	1.259	0.111	0.570	0.034	
32	1.267	0.109	0.573	0.033	
33	1.308	0.110	0.585	0.032	
34	1.226	0.107	0.560	0.034	
35	1.411	0.116	0.614	0.031	

Table 23

Preliminary Item Response Theory with Marginal Maximum Likelihood Difficulty

Item	Response Category	Unstandardized Threshold	Calculated B parameter	Standardized Threshold	R^2
1	1	-6.83	-4.68	-2.93	0.39
	2	-6.10	-4.18	-2.62	
	3	-4.99	-3.42	-2.14	
	4	-4.31	-2.96	-1.85	
	5	-1.51	-1.04	-0.65	
	6	1.55	1.06	0.66	
2	1	-6.57	-5.19	-2.97	0.33
	2	-5.01	-3.96	-2.26	
	3	-3.94	-3.12	-1.78	
	4	-2.54	-2.00	-1.15	
	5	-0.37	-0.29	-0.17	
	6	2.03	1.60	0.92	
4	1	-5.15	-3.90	-2.29	0.35
	2	-3.86	-2.92	-1.72	
	3	-2.23	-1.69	-1.00	
	4	-1.50	-1.13	-0.67	
	5	0.03	0.02	0.01	
	6	2.21	1.67	0.99	
5	1	-5.87	-3.63	-2.42	0.44
	2	-4.64	-2.87	-1.91	
	3	-3.40	-2.10	-1.40	
	4	-2.46	-1.53	-1.01	
	5	-1.35	-0.84	-0.56	
	6	1.06	0.66	0.44	
6	1	-6.60	-5.16	-2.97	0.33
	2	-5.46	-4.27	-2.46	
	3	-4.62	-3.62	-2.08	
	4	-3.72	-2.91	-1.68	
	5	-1.27	-0.99	-0.57	
	6	1.56	1.22	0.70	
7	1	-5.37	-5.18	-2.57	0.25
	2	-3.57	-3.44	-1.71	
	3	-2.01	-1.94	-0.96	
	4	-1.13	-1.09	-0.54	
	5	-0.06	-0.05	-0.03	
	6	1.79	1.73	0.86	
9	1	-4.64	-3.70	-2.10	0.32
	2	-4.24	-3.38	-1.92	
	3	-3.95	-3.15	-1.79	
	4	-3.50	-2.79	-1.59	
	5	-1.75	-1.40	-0.80	
	6	0.60	0.48	0.27	

Table 23 continued

Preliminary Item Response Theory with Marginal Maximum Likelihood Difficulty

Item	Response Category	Unstandardized Threshold	Calculated B parameter	Standardized Threshold	R^2
10	1	-4.12	-3.42	-1.89	0.31
	2	-2.78	-2.31	-1.28	
	3	-1.42	-1.18	-0.65	
	4	-0.65	-0.54	-0.30	
	5	0.43	0.35	0.20	
	6	2.50	2.08	1.15	
11	1	-5.64	-4.44	-2.55	0.33
	2	-4.42	-3.47	-1.99	
	3	-3.04	-2.39	-1.37	
	4	-2.07	-1.62	-0.93	
	5	-0.72	-0.57	-0.33	
	6	1.28	1.00	0.58	
12	1	-6.48	-5.28	-2.96	0.31
	2	-4.43	-3.61	-2.02	
	3	-3.44	-2.80	-1.57	
	4	-2.68	-2.18	-1.22	
	5	-0.84	-0.69	-0.38	
	6	2.11	1.72	0.96	
13	1	-4.16	-5.00	-2.08	0.17
	2	-2.84	-3.41	-1.42	
	3	-1.92	-2.30	-0.96	
	4	-0.82	-0.99	-0.41	
	5	0.01	0.01	0.01	
	6	2.11	2.54	1.06	
14	1	-7.55	-4.96	-3.19	0.41
	2	-5.44	-3.57	-2.29	
	3	-4.69	-3.08	-1.98	
	4	-3.34	-2.19	-1.41	
	5	-1.34	-0.88	-0.57	
	6	1.47	0.97	0.62	
15	1	-5.18	-4.99	-2.48	0.25
	2	-3.21	-3.10	-1.54	
	3	-1.74	-1.68	-0.83	
	4	-1.14	-1.10	-0.55	
	5	-0.09	-0.09	-0.04	
	6	1.89	1.82	0.90	
16	1	-7.40	-5.26	-3.22	0.38
	2	-5.99	-4.26	-2.61	
	3	-4.59	-3.26	-2.00	
	4	-3.18	-2.26	-1.38	
	5	-1.59	-1.13	-0.69	
	6	1.53	1.08	0.66	

Table 23 continued

Preliminary Item Response Theory with Marginal Maximum Likelihood Difficulty

Item	Response Category	Unstandardized Threshold	Calculated B parameter	Standardized Threshold	R^2
17	1	-7.09	-6.29	-3.32	0.28
	2	-4.39	-3.89	-2.05	
	3	-3.11	-2.76	-1.46	
	4	-1.92	-1.70	-0.90	
	5	-0.05	-0.05	-0.02	
	6	2.38	2.11	1.12	
19	1	-6.73	-9.33	-3.45	0.14
	2	-6.03	-8.37	-3.09	
	3	-4.13	-5.73	-2.12	
	4	-2.96	-4.11	-1.52	
	5	-0.95	-1.31	-0.49	
	6	1.11	1.54	0.57	
20	1	-4.64	-6.26	-2.37	0.14
	2	-3.59	-4.85	-1.83	
	3	-2.58	-3.48	-1.32	
	4	-2.07	-2.79	-1.06	
	5	-0.82	-1.10	-0.42	
	6	0.87	1.18	0.45	
24	1	-4.95	-6.34	-2.51	0.16
	2	-3.28	-4.20	-1.66	
	3	-1.94	-2.48	-0.98	
	4	-1.35	-1.72	-0.68	
	5	-0.27	-0.35	-0.14	
	6	1.50	1.91	0.76	
25	1	-3.94	-3.85	-1.89	0.24
	2	-2.13	-2.08	-1.02	
	3	-0.81	-0.79	-0.39	
	4	0.03	0.03	0.01	
	5	0.89	0.87	0.43	
	6	2.77	2.71	1.33	
26	1	-4.20	-3.73	-1.97	0.28
	2	-2.34	-2.07	-1.09	
	3	-0.87	-0.77	-0.41	
	4	-0.15	-0.13	-0.07	
	5	1.04	0.92	0.49	
	6	3.10	2.75	1.45	
28	1	-2.91	-2.65	-1.37	0.27
	2	-0.99	-0.90	-0.47	
	3	0.57	0.52	0.27	
	4	1.30	1.18	0.61	
	5	2.30	2.10	1.09	
	6	3.86	3.52	1.82	

Table 23 continued

Preliminary Item Response Theory with Marginal Maximum Likelihood Difficulty

Item	Response Category	Unstandardized Threshold	Calculated B parameter	Standardized Threshold	R^2
29	1	-3.70	-2.90	-1.67	0.33
	2	-1.48	-1.16	-0.67	
	3	0.50	0.39	0.22	
	4	1.16	0.91	0.52	
	5	2.20	1.72	0.99	
	6	3.55	2.78	1.60	
30	1	-4.09	-2.76	-1.75	0.40
	2	-2.47	-1.67	-1.05	
	3	-0.47	-0.31	-0.20	
	4	0.34	0.23	0.14	
	5	1.30	0.88	0.55	
	6	3.17	2.14	1.35	
31	1	-2.75	-2.19	-1.25	0.33
	2	-0.90	-0.61	-0.38	
	3	0.94	0.63	0.40	
	4	1.57	1.06	0.67	
	5	2.63	1.77	1.12	
	6	4.19	2.83	1.79	
32	1	-4.87	-3.84	-2.20	0.33
	2	-2.68	-2.12	-1.21	
	3	-0.92	-0.72	-0.41	
	4	-0.17	-0.13	-0.08	
	5	0.83	0.65	0.37	
	6	2.42	1.91	1.09	
33	1	-4.47	-3.42	-2.00	0.34
	2	-2.70	-2.13	-1.22	
	3	-0.93	-0.73	-0.42	
	4	-0.29	-0.22	-0.13	
	5	0.79	0.62	0.36	
	6	2.87	2.27	1.30	
34	1	-3.94	-3.21	-1.80	0.31
	2	-1.97	-1.61	-0.90	
	3	-0.42	-0.34	-0.19	
	4	0.45	0.36	0.20	
	5	1.75	1.43	0.80	
	6	4.02	3.27	1.83	
35	1	-3.92	-2.78	-1.70	0.38
	2	-1.86	-1.52	-0.85	
	3	0.07	0.06	0.03	
	4	0.96	0.78	0.44	
	5	1.75	1.43	0.80	
	6	3.47	2.83	1.58	

Table 24

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Nested Model Comparisons

Model	X^2	*Df diff*	X^2 *scale factor*	CFI	SRMR	RMSEA	RMSEA 90% CI	ΔX^2 from model 5
1. One-Factor	1081.35	152	1.168	.63	.09	.096	(.091-.102)	412(6)***
2. Two-Factor (conceptual)	842.02	151	1.134	.73	.08	.083	(.078-.089)	433(5)***
3. Two-Factor (method effect)	609.04	151	1.154	.82	.06	.068	(.062-.074)	161(5)***
4. Three-Factor (conceptual)	830.17	149	1.125	.73	.08	.084	(.079-.900)	664(3)***
5. Three-Factor (method effect)	431.61	149	1.135	.89	.05	.054	(.048-.060)	63(3)***
6. Four-Factor	407.75	146	1.131	.92	.04	.047	(.041-.053)	n/a

Note. Rescaled -2ΔLL with degrees of freedom equal to the rescaled difference in the number of parameters between the models are used for X^2 values, all of which are significant a $p < .001$. CFI = comparative fit index; SRMR= Standardized Root Mean Residual RMSEA = root-mean-square error of approximation.

Table 25

Intercepts and Standard Deviations of Final Just Leader Items

		Unstandardized		Standardized	
	Item	Estimates	*S.E.*	Estimates	*S.E.*
All Item Intercepts					
	1	5.94	0.03	6.95	0.37
	2	5.57	0.04	5.41	0.22
	4	5.19	0.05	3.77	0.13
	5	5.76	0.05	4.42	0.19
	6	5.89	0.04	6.55	0.34
	7	5.17	0.06	3.62	0.11
	9	6.04	0.05	5.25	0.33
	10	4.74	0.06	2.98	0.09
	11	5.62	0.05	4.41	0.18
	15	5.12	0.06	3.45	0.11
	16	5.91	0.04	6.37	0.30
	17	5.37	0.04	4.83	0.18
	28	3.40	0.06	2.21	0.05
	29	3.59	0.06	2.33	0.05
	30	4.17	0.06	2.56	0.06
	31	3.24	0.06	2.15	0.05
	33	4.54	0.06	2.86	0.08
	34	4.00	0.06	2.66	0.07
	35	3.82	0.06	2.39	0.05

Table 26

Final Item Response Theory with Marginalized-Information Maximum Likelihood Difficulty

		Unstandardized		Calculated	Standardized		
Item	Response Category	Disc.	Threshold	B parameter	Disc.	Threshold	R^2
1	1	2.155	-8.176	-3.794	0.765	-2.903	0.585
	2		-7.387	-3.428		-2.623	
	3		-6.106	-2.833		-2.168	
	4		-5.292	-2.456		-1.879	
	5		-1.865	-0.865		-0.662	
	6		1.892	0.878		0.672	
2	1	1.533	-7.043	-4.594	0.646	-2.966	0.417
	2		-5.435	-3.545		-2.289	
	3		-4.307	-2.810		-1.814	
	4		-2.772	-1.808		-1.167	
	5		-0.415	-0.271		-0.175	
	6		2.169	1.415		0.913	
4	1	1.679	-5.635	-3.356	0.679	-2.280	0.461
	2		-4.206	-2.505		-1.702	
	3		-2.439	-1.453		-0.987	
	4		-1.637	-0.975		-0.662	
	5		0.046	0.027		0.019	
	6		2.452	1.460		0.992	
5	1	1.756	-6.109	-3.479	0.696	-2.420	0.484
	2		-4.778	-2.721		-1.893	
	3		-3.479	-1.981		-1.378	
	4		-2.506	-1.427		-0.993	
	5		-1.364	-0.777		-0.540	
	6		1.121	0.638		0.444	
6	1	1.511	-6.997	-4.631	0.640	-2.964	0.410
	2		-5.836	-3.862		-2.472	
	3		-4.956	-3.280		-2.099	
	4		-3.986	-2.638		-1.688	
	5		-1.373	-0.909		-0.582	
	6		1.659	1.098		0.703	
7	1	1.296	-5.686	-4.387	0.581	-2.551	0.338
	2		-3.775	-2.913		-1.693	
	3		-2.130	-1.644		-0.955	
	4		-1.192	-0.920		-0.535	
	5		-0.048	-0.037		-0.022	
	6		1.927	1.487		0.864	
9	1	1.146	-4.583	-3.999	0.534	-2.136	0.285
	2		-4.176	-3.644		-1.946	
	3		-3.873	-3.380		-1.805	
	4		-3.415	-2.980		-1.592	
	5		-1.679	-1.465		-0.783	
	6		0.595	0.519		0.277	

Table 26 continued

Final Item Response Theory with Marginalized-Information Maximum Likelihood Difficulty

		Unstandardized		Calculated	Standardized		
Item	Response Category	Disc.	Threshold	B parameter	Disc.	Threshold	R^2
10	1	1.600	-4.556	-2.848	0.662	-1.884	0.438
	2		-3.089	-1.931		-1.277	
	3		-1.575	-0.984		-0.651	
	4		-0.716	-0.448		-0.296	
	5		0.505	0.316		0.209	
	6		2.806	1.754		1.160	
11	1	1.562	-6.102	-3.907	0.653	-2.549	0.426
	2		-4.766	-3.051		-1.991	
	3		-3.266	-2.091		-1.364	
	4		-2.222	-1.423		-0.928	
	5		-0.780	-0.499		-0.326	
	6		1.390	0.890		0.581	
15	1	1.351	-5.561	-4.116	0.597	-2.459	0.357
	2		-3.461	-2.562		-1.530	
	3		-1.877	-1.389		-0.830	
	4		-1.232	-0.912		-0.545	
	5		-0.090	-0.067		-0.040	
	6		2.074	1.535		0.917	
16	1	1.816	-8.176	-4.502	0.708	-3.185	0.501
	2		-6.734	-3.708		-2.624	
	3		-5.241	-2.886		-2.042	
	4		-3.638	-2.003		-1.417	
	5		-1.819	-1.002		-0.709	
	6		1.725	0.950		0.672	
17	1	1.440	-7.588	-5.269	0.622	-3.276	0.387
	2		-4.770	-3.313		-2.060	
	3		-3.415	-2.372		-1.475	
	4		-2.137	-1.484		-0.923	
	5		-0.071	-0.049		-0.031	
	6		2.589	1.798		1.118	
28	1	1.606	-3.378	-2.103	0.663	-1.394	0.439
	2		-1.137	-0.708		-0.469	
	3		0.703	0.438		0.290	
	4		1.561	0.972		0.644	
	5		2.714	1.690		1.120	
	6		4.427	2.757		1.827	

Table 26 continued

Final Item Response Theory with Marginalized-Information Maximum Likelihood Difficulty

		Unstandardized		Calculated	Standardized		
Item	Response Category	Disc.	Threshold	B parameter	Disc.	Threshold	R^2
29	1	1.689	-4.157	-2.461	0.681	-1.677	0.464
	2		-1.662	-0.984		-0.671	
	3		0.579	0.343		0.234	
	4		1.330	0.787		0.537	
	5		2.492	1.475		1.005	
	6		3.959	2.344		1.597	
30	1	1.309	-3.969	-3.032	0.585	-1.774	0.342
	2		-2.344	-1.791		-1.048	
	3		-0.385	-0.294		-0.172	
	4		0.376	0.287		0.168	
	5		1.263	0.965		0.565	
	6		2.990	2.284		1.337	
31	1	2.275	-3.705	-1.629	0.782	-1.273	0.611
	2		-1.203	-0.919		-0.538	
	3		1.290	0.985		0.577	
	4		2.145	1.639		0.959	
	5		3.539	2.704		1.582	
	6		5.526	4.222		2.470	
33	1	1.259	-4.408	-3.501	0.570	-1.996	0.325
	2		-2.703	-2.133		-1.222	
	3		-1.004	-0.792		-0.454	
	4		-0.368	-0.290		-0.166	
	5		0.719	0.567		0.325	
	6		2.816	2.223		1.273	
34	1	1.485	-4.250	-2.862	0.633	-1.813	0.401
	2		-2.110	-1.421		-0.900	
	3		-0.376	-0.253		-0.160	
	4		0.571	0.385		0.244	
	5		1.958	1.319		0.835	
	6		4.303	2.898		1.836	
35	1	1.944	-4.554	-2.343	0.731	-1.713	0.535
	2		-2.169	-1.461		-0.925	
	3		0.124	0.084		0.053	
	4		1.170	0.788		0.499	
	5		2.090	1.407		0.892	
	6		4.047	2.725		1.726	

Table 27

Correlations between the Just Leader Facets, Empathy and Emotional Intelligence

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	Mean	SD
1- JLM- Positive Empathy													5.78	0.68
2- JLM- Non Empathy	.383**												5.30	0.97
3- JLM Moral Beliefs	.217**	.487**											3.86	1.23
4- JLM Non-Entity Beliefs	.124**	.332**	.503**										3.54	1.19
5- Just Leader	.610**	.809**	.754**	.648**									4.89	0.69
6- Cognitive Empathy	.589**	.534**	.394**	.254**	.635**								4.39	0.59
7- Affective Empathy	.479**	.565**	.286**	.181**	.552**	.511**							4.78	0.64
8- Empathy	.611**	.632**	.389**	.249**	.681**	.857**	.881**						4.58	0.54
9- Self- Emotional Appraisal	.608**	.187**	.201**	.072	.376**	.382**	.229**	.347**					5.69	0.91
10- Other- Emotional Appraisal	.608**	.244**	.079*	.076	.361**	.390**	.415**	.464**	.500**				5.41	0.93
11- Use of Emotion	.414**	.186**	.155**	.083*	.304**	.263**	.141**	.230**	.461**	.230**			5.79	0.86
12- Regulation of Emotion	.473**	.266**	.247**	.130**	.397**	.436**	.172**	.343**	.489**	.316**	.465**		5.40	1.07
13- Emotional Intelligence	.707**	.296**	.231**	.120**	.483**	.501**	.327**	.472**	.820**	.700**	.666**	.785**	5.55	0.71

JLM= Just Leader Measure.

Note. *p<.05 **p<.01 (N= 659)

Table 28

Correlations between the Just Leader Facets, Implicit Theory, and Moral Ideology

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Mean	SD
1- JLM- Positive Empathy											5.78	0.68
2- JLM- Non Empathy	.383**										5.30	0.97
3- JLM- Moral Beliefs	.217**	.487**									3.86	1.23
4- JLM- Non-Entity Beliefs	.124**	.332**	.503**								3.54	1.19
5- JLM	.610**	.809**	.754**	.648**							4.89	0.69
6- IPT- Non-entity Beliefs	.183**	.404**	.371**	.634**	.541**						4.63	1.05
7- IPT Incremental Beliefs	.216**	.157**	.170**	.400**	.307**	.563**					3.71	1.01
8- Implicit Person Theory	.225**	.320**	.308**	.586**	.482**	.889**	.879**				4.17	0.91
9- Moral Idealism	.211**	.140**	.117**	.025	.175**	-.109**	.154**	.022			5.10	0.96
10- Moral Relativism	-.108**	-.262**	-.259**	-.140**	-.280**	-.193**	.048	-.085*	.067		3.75	0.98
11- Moral Ideology	.069	-.086*	-.099*	-.079*	-.074	-.207**	.139**	-.043	.725**	.735**	4.42	0.71

JLM= Just Leader Measure.

Note. *p<.05 **p<.01 (N=659)

Table 29

Correlations between Just Leader Facets and the Big Five Personality Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Mean	SD
1- JLM- Positive Empathy										5.78	0.68
2- JLM- Non Empathy	.383**									5.30	0.97
3- JLM- Moral Beliefs	.217**	.487**								3.86	1.23
4- JLM- Non-Entity Beliefs	.124**	.332**	.503**							3.54	1.19
5- JLM	.610**	.809**	.754**	.648**						4.89	0.69
6- Extroversion	.166**	.171**	.132**	.115**	.208**					4.50	1.48
7- Agreeableness	.333**	.347**	.327**	.087*	.387**	.054				5.20	1.10
8- Openness	.317**	.208**	.104**	.173**	.274**	.331**	.137**			5.34	1.03
9- Neuroticism	.331**	.257**	.261**	.140**	.350**	.208**	.319**	.260**		5.16	1.27
10- Conscientiousness	.311**	.215**	.136**	.042	.257**	.019	.171**	.101**	.265**	5.99	0.93

JLM= Just Leader Measure.

Note. *p<.05 **p<.01 (N= 659)

Table 30

Steiger's Z-Scores for Correlation Comparisons for Convergent and Discriminant Validity

	Extroversion	Agreeableness	Openness	Neuroticism	Conscientiousness
Empathy	11.33**	9.15**	11.13**	8.74**	10.72**
Emotional Intelligence	6.33**	2.49*	5.11**	3.78**	5.65**
IPT	5.76**	2.11*	4.64**	3.04**	4.74**
Moral Idealism	-0.626	-4.52**	-1.95	-3.36**	-1.65

Note. *DF*= 656 for all comparisons. *p<.05 **p<.01

Table 31

Means, Standard Deviations for Demographic Groups in Sample Two

		Interpersonal Justice		Informational Justice	
		M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Employee Gender	Male	6.49	1.05	5.83	1.20
	Female	6.30	1.18	5.74	1.30
	F(1,193)	1.192, *p*= .276		.216, *p* = .642	
Boss Gender	Male	6.32	1.23	5.69	1.40
	Female	6.46	.909	5.83	1.13
	F(1,184)	.848, *p*= .358		.576, *p* = .449	
Employee Ethnicity	Asian	6.32	1.03	5.73	1.08
	African American	6.17	1.17	5.93	1.28
	Caucasian	6.35	1.20	5.71	.79
	Hispanic	6.68	.47	6.25	1.82
	Multiracial or Other	6.20	1.30	5.56	1.82
	F(4,190)	.421, *p*=.793		.727, *p*=.575	
Boss Ethnicity	Asian	7.00	.00	5.80	1.69
	African American	6.69	.48	6.23	.89
	Caucasian	6.39	1.08	5.74	1.28
	Hispanic	5.88	1.43	5.33	1.37
	Multiracial or Other	6.50	.71	5.90	1.03
	F(4,180)	1.14, *p*=.339		.921, *p*=.453	
Employee Age	20-29	6.61	.83	5.91	1.22
	30-39	6.29	1.14	5.81	1.26
	40-49	6.32	1.30	5.64	1.29
	50-59	6.05	1.21	5.58	1.44
	60-69	7.00	.00	6.0	.88
	F(5,189)	.992, *p* =.424		.379, *p* =.863	
Boss Age	20-29	6.64	.94	5.66	1.75
	30-39	6.39	1.04	5.79	1.32
	40-49	6.42	1.06	5.79	1.17
	50-59	6.31	1.12	5.76	1.18
	60-69	6.57	1.13	5.77	1.28
	F(5,189)	1.039, *p*=.396		.095, *p*=.993	
Industry	Agriculture/Natural	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
	Professional	6.48	1.04	5.80	1.44
	Education/Government	5.65	1.68	5.19	1.37
	Financial/Legal	5.65	1.43	5.47	1.12
	Medical/Healthcare	5.50	1.73	5.35	1.80
	Restaurant/Hospitality	6.56	1.01	6.16	1.14
	Retail/Wholesale	6.25	1.22	5.49	1.33
	Sales/Marketing	6.50	1.03	5.37	1.48
	Technical/Manufacturing	6.50	0.90	5.66	1.31
	Telecommunications	7.00	0.00	7.00	0.00
	Transportation/Utilities	6.54	0.98	6.01	1.10
	F(10,184)	1.751, *p*= .072		1.313, *p* = .226	
Rating	Exceptional- Top 10%	6.69	.76	6.00	1.15
	Above Average- Top 25%	6.22	1.20	5.65	1.32
	Average- Top 50%	6.43	1.05	5.85	1.18
	Slightly Below- Top 75%	4.33	2.89	3.87	1.89
	Below Average- Bottom 25%	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
	F (3, 188)	5.398, *p*= .001**		3.289, *p* =.022	

Table 32

Correlations between Organizational Justice and Predictor Variables for Sample Two

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	Mean	SD
1																	6.36	1.14
2	.700**																5.76	1.27
3	.252**	.122															5.89	0.51
4	.153*	.128	.214**														5.39	0.72
5	.032	.074	.015	.342**													4.04	1.02
6	.022	.002	.118	.325**	.411**												3.59	1.21
7	.141	.137	.349**	.541**	.260**	.290**											4.56	0.39
8	.110	.040	.659**	.077	.057	.091	.110										5.68	0.52
9	-.057	-.053	.157*	.288**	.236**	.556**	.297**	.170*									4.22	0.88
10	-.020	.009	.102	.003	.089	.097	.088	.149*	-.070								3.92	0.64
11	-.046	-.020	.137	.105	.055	.042	-.007	.152*	.013	.011							4.96	1.33
12	.148*	.119	.222**	.321**	.270**	.089	.517**	.159*	.109	.007	.124						5.05	1.05
13	.016	.010	.185**	.011	.004	.187**	.124	.071	.060	.046	.190**	-.019					5.45	0.98
14	.117	.058	.407**	.145*	.130	.018	.062	.499**	.107	-.172*	.056	.337**	.095				5.55	1.15
15	.129	.141*	.236**	.344**	.253**	.208**	.234**	.286**	.143*	-.090	-.052	.150*	.004	.278**			5.93	0.91
16	.627**	.585**	.242**	.053	.033	-.033	.107	.080	-.103	-.069	-.084	.162*	.043	.069	.011		5.91	0.99
17	.138	.073	.145*	.316**	.332**	.342**	.123	.195**	.113	.270**	-.024	.068	.074	.113	.340**	-.014	10.42	1.65

Note. 1=Interpersonal Justice, 2= Informational Justice, 3= Just Leader Positive Empathy, 4= Just Leader Non Empathy, 5= Just Leader Moral Beliefs, 6= Just Leader Non-entity Beliefs, 7= Empathy, 8= Emotional Intelligence, 9= Implicit Person Theory, 10= Moral Ideology, 11= Extroversion, 12= Agreeableness, 13= Openness, 14= Neuroticism, 15= Conscientiousness, 16= Leader Member Exchange, 17=Social Desirability. *p<.05 **p<.01

Table 33

Multi-Level Model Results for Interpersonal Justice

Fixed Effects	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Intercept	6.64	4.32*	5.82*	5.80*	5.13*	5.02*
	(.08)	(.63)	(.67)	(.21)	(.84)	(1.26)
Rate 1		2.38*	.81	.82	.78	.76
		(.65)	(.69)	(.69)	(.68)	(.67)
Rate 2		1.86*	.35	.37	.33	.27
		(.64)	(.68)	(.68)	(.62)	(.66)
Rate 3		2.11*	.60	.63	.62	.54
		(.64)	(.68)	(.68)	(.67)	(.67)
Positive Empathy				.52*	.43*	.43*
				(.17)	(.17)	(.19)
Non- Empathy				.20	.117	.09
				(.13)	(.13)	(.14)
Non-entity Beliefs				-.023	-.03	-.031
				(.08)	(.08)	(.08)
Moral Beliefs				-.016	-.03	-.054
				(.09)	(.09)	(.10)
Social Desirability					.069	.06
					(.05)	(.05)
Extroversion						-.10
						(.06)
Agreeableness						.09
						(.09)
Openness						.01
						(.09)
Neuroticism						-.01
						(.09)
Conscientiousness						.04
						(.10)
Random Effects						
Intercept	.04	0.04	.01	.02	.01	.09
	(.14)	(.13)	(.14)	(.12)	(.11)	(.13)
Rate 1			.00	.00	.00	.00
			(.59)	(.33)	(.30)	(.29)
Rate 2			.29	.03	.04	.03
			(.35)	(.32)	(.33)	(.35)
Rate 3			.29	.02	.01	.01
			(.29)	(.25)	(.11)	(.24)
Residual	1.26*	1.15*	1.10*	1.10*	1.07*	1.05*
	(.18)	(.63)	(.20)	(.21)	(.20)	(.19)
Model Fit Statistics						
Deviance	-301.751	-293.361	-295.741	-286.283	-272.185	-270.451
AIC	609.502	598.722	609.482	598.566	572.371	578.901
BIC	609.818	599.353	610.482	599.800	573.188	580.010

* P<.01

Table 34

Multi-level Model for Informational Justice

Fixed Effects	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Intercept	5.76*	4.66*	5.31*	5.35*	5.05*	4.09*
	(.093)	(.73)	(.80)	(.82)	(1.02)	(1.45)
Rate 1		1.35	.68	.62	.57	.56
		(.74)	(.81)	(.83)	(.81)	(.76)
Rate 2		.95	.28	.24	.22	.16
		(.74)	(.82)	(.84)	(.81)	(.77)
Rate 3		1.16	.50	.46	.48	.56
		(.75)	(.82)	(.84)	(.82)	(.78)
Positive Empathy				.24	.14	.09
				(.20)	(.21)	(.22)
Non- Empathy				.19	.10	.04
				(.14)	(.15)	(.16)
Non-entity Beliefs				.06	.07	.04
				(.10)	(.11)	(.11)
Moral Beliefs				-.058	-.055	-.06
				(.09)	(.10)	(.09)
Social Desirability					.03	.02
					(.06)	(.06)
Extroversion						-.05
						(.07)
Agreeableness						.09
						(.10)
Openness						.028
						(.10)
Neuroticism						-.02
						(.10)
Conscientiousness						.16
						(.11)
Random Effects						
Intercept	.044	.015	.02	.01	.01	.01
	(.17)	(.16)	(.21)	(.21)	(.21)	(.23)
Rate 1			.01	.02	.019	.03
			(.41)	(.38)	(.36)	(.35)
Rate 2			.01	.01	.01	.01
			(.37)	(.63)	(.55)	(.17)
Rate 3			.28	.02	.02	.02
			(.38)	(.40)	(.37)	(.34)
Residual	1.55*	1.51*	1.52*	1.50*	1.47*	1.44*
	(.22)	(.21)	(.25)	(.30)	(.28)	(.20)
Model Fit Statistics						
Deviance	-322.248	-317.747	-319.280	-314.197	-300.885	-299.359
AIC	650.496	647.495	656.561	654.394	629.770	636.717
BIC	650.811	648.126	657.507	655.628	630.587	637.826

*p<.01

Figure 1. Scree Plot for the Just Leader pilot items in Study 1.

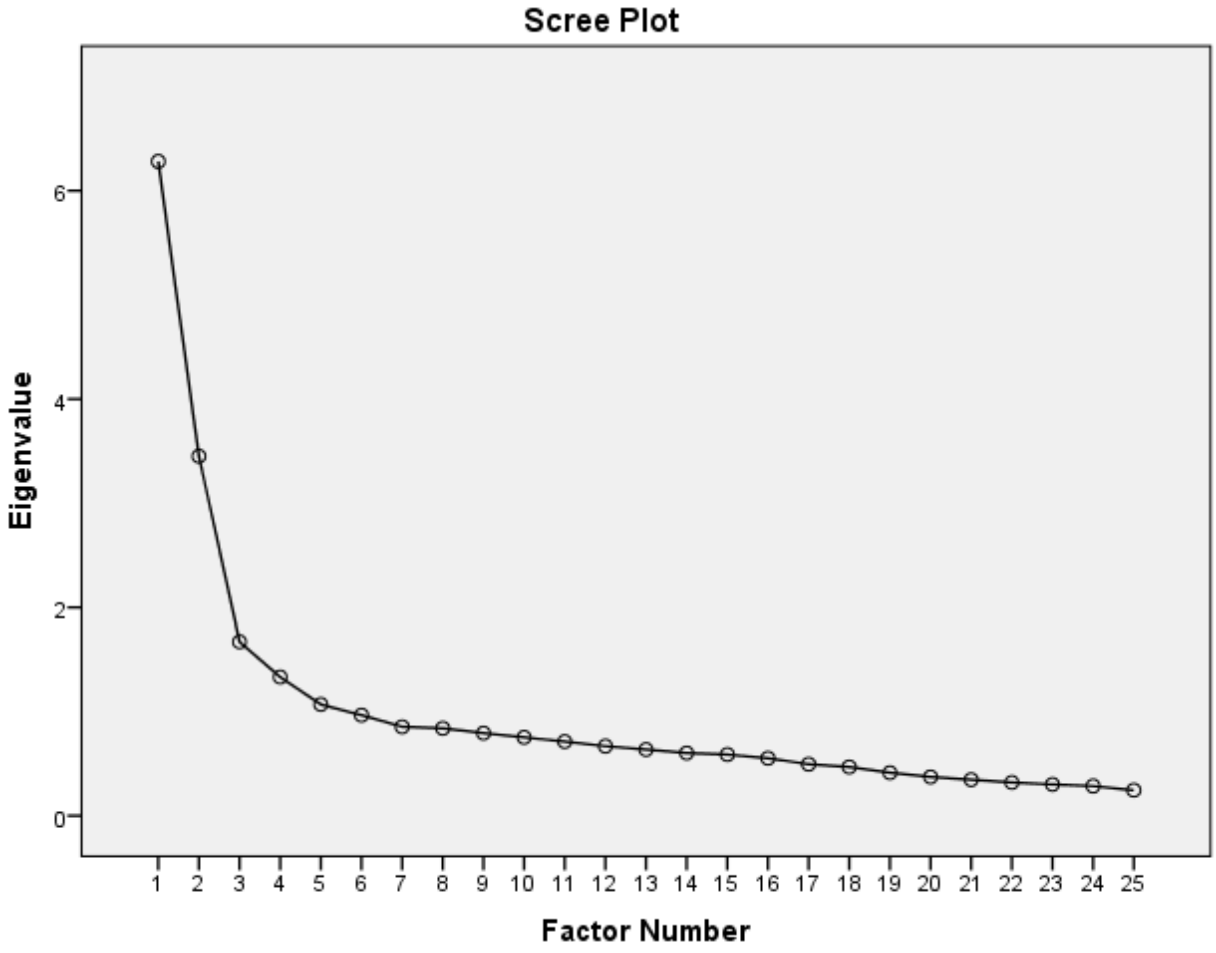
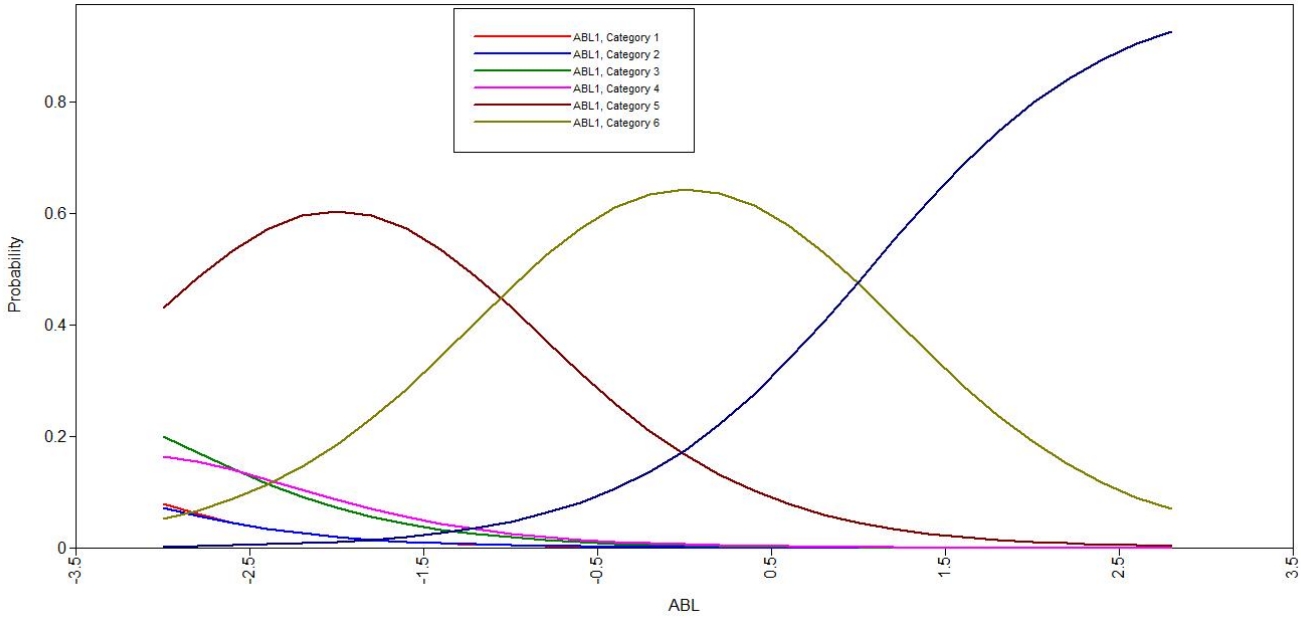
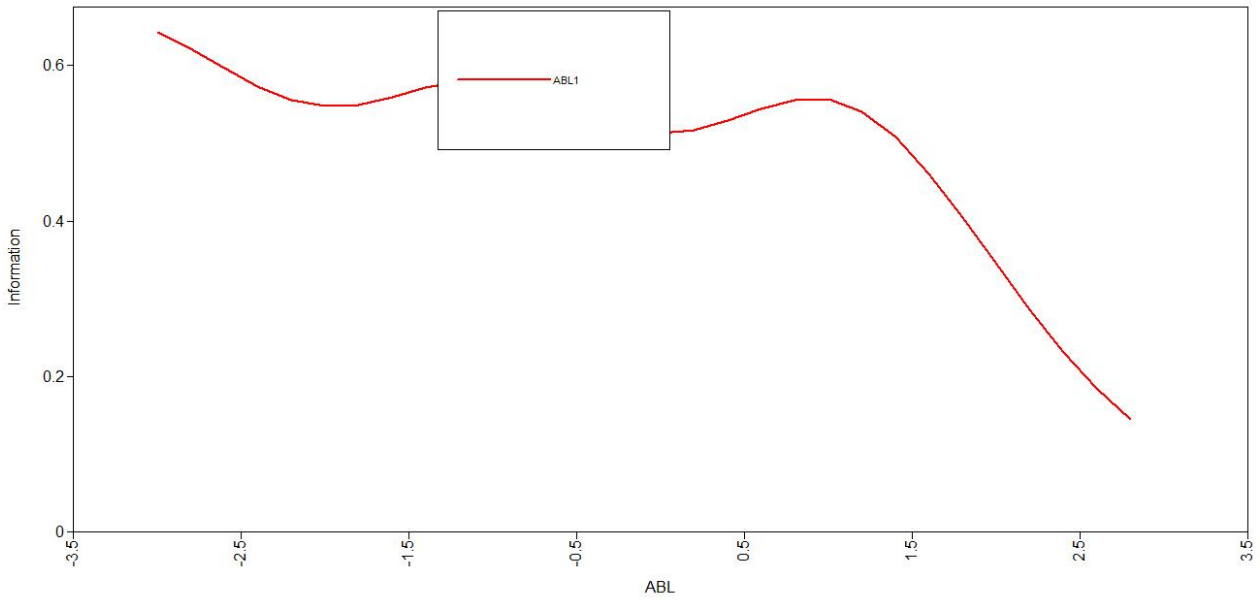


Figure 2. ICC and IIC graphs for Just Leader Item 1

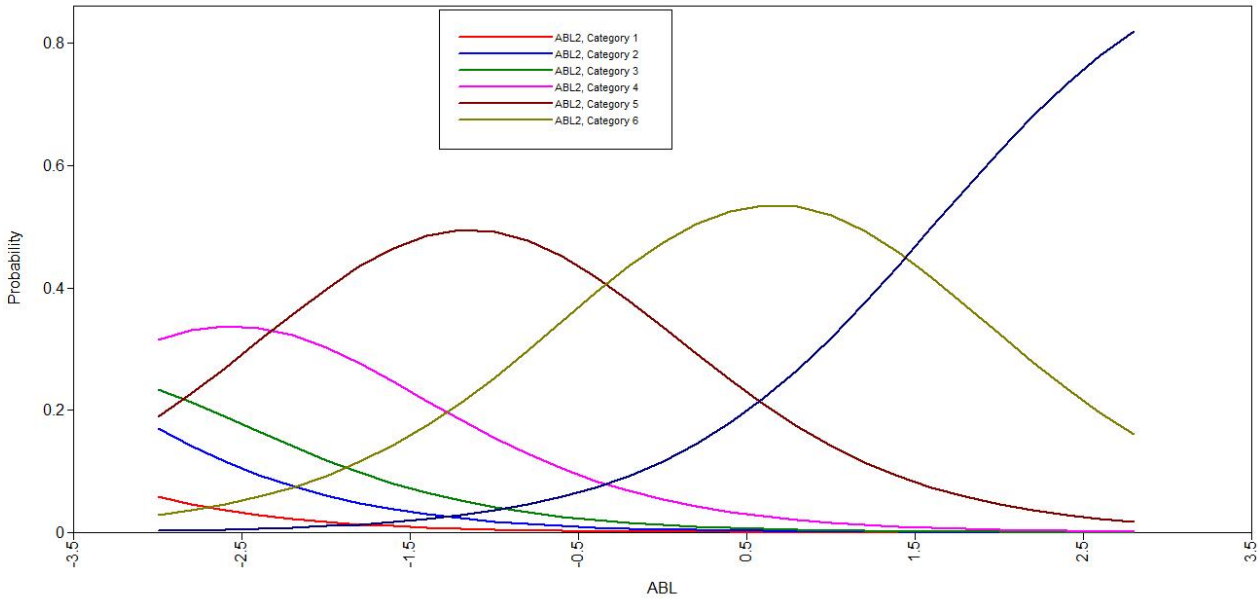


Ability

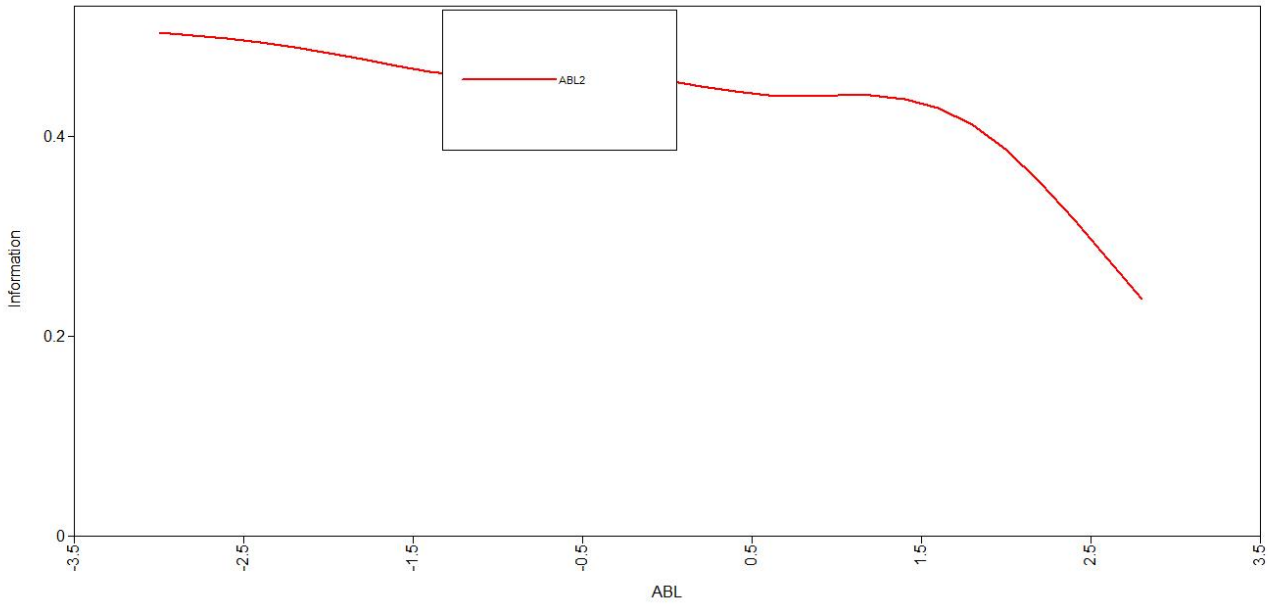


Ability

Figure 3. ICC and IIC graphs for Just Leader Item 2

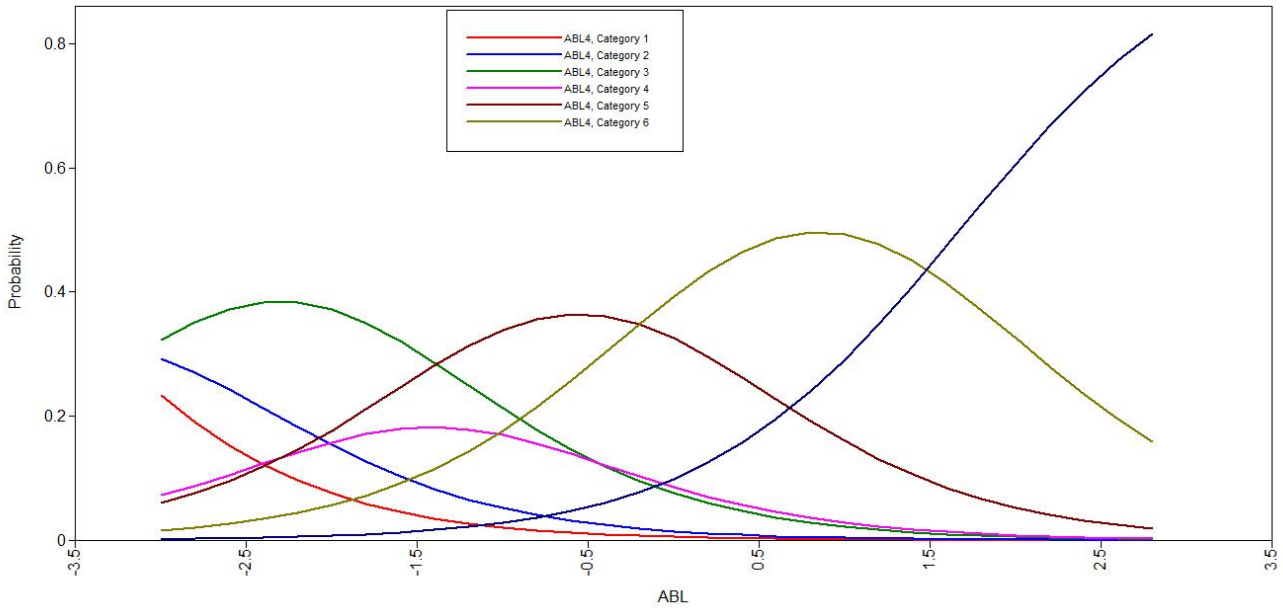


Ability

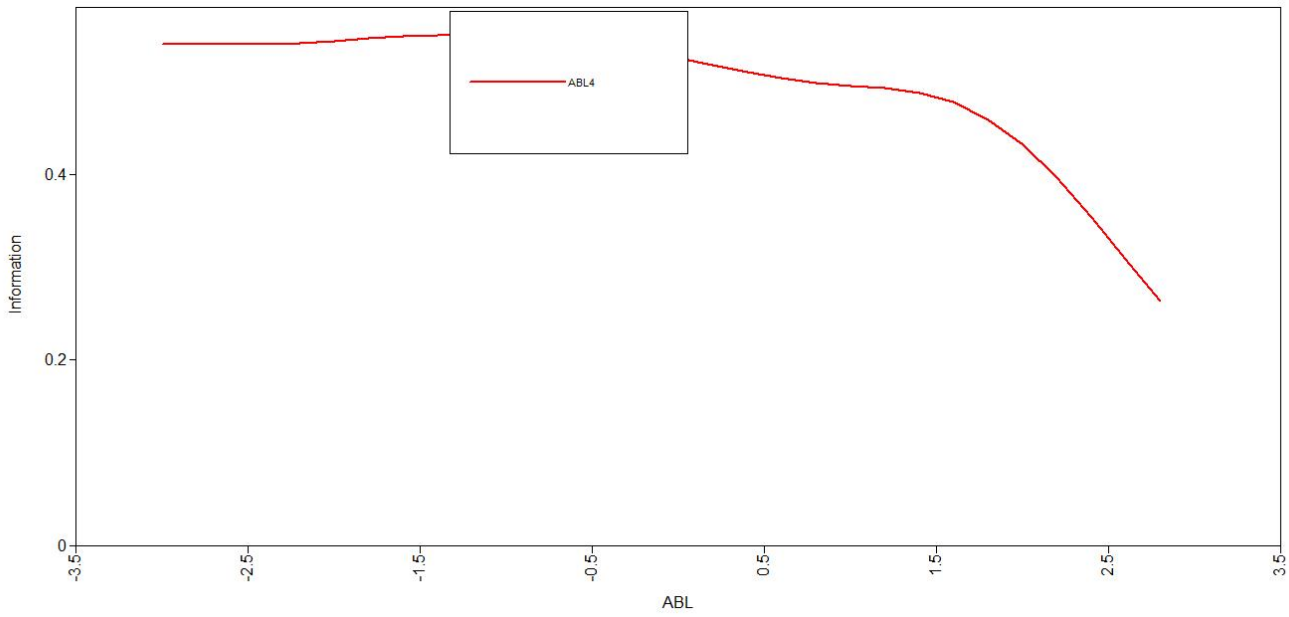


Ability

Figure 4. ICC and IIC graphs for Just Leader Item 4

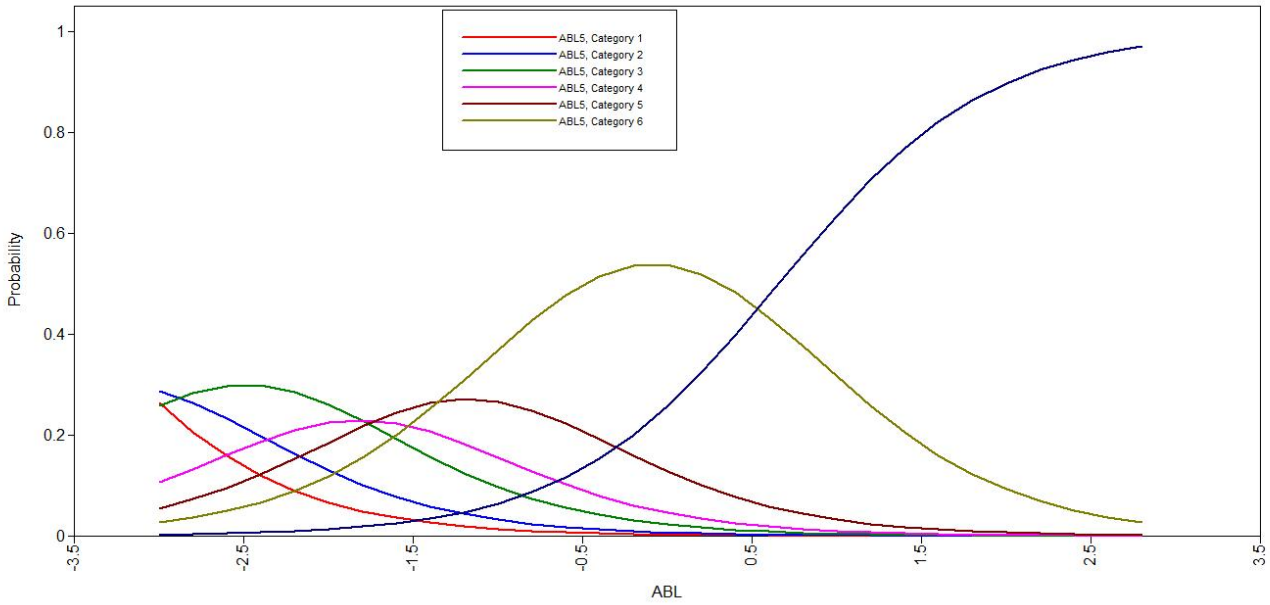


Ability

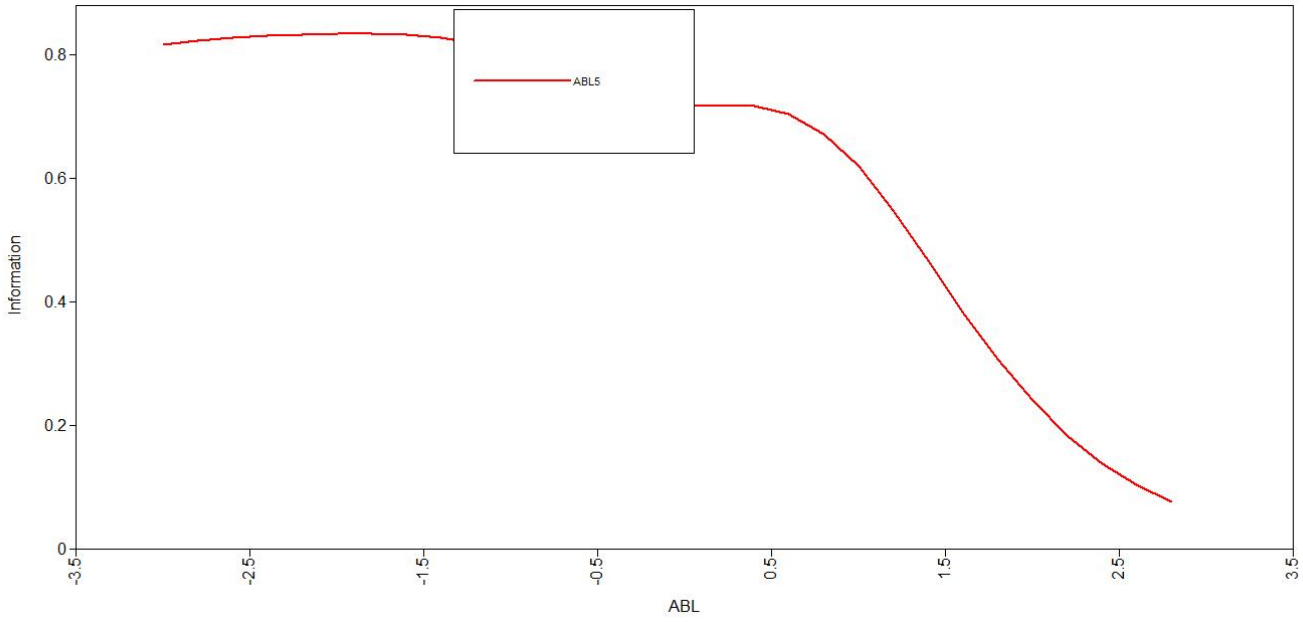


Ability

Figure 5. ICC and IIC graphs for Just Leader Item 5

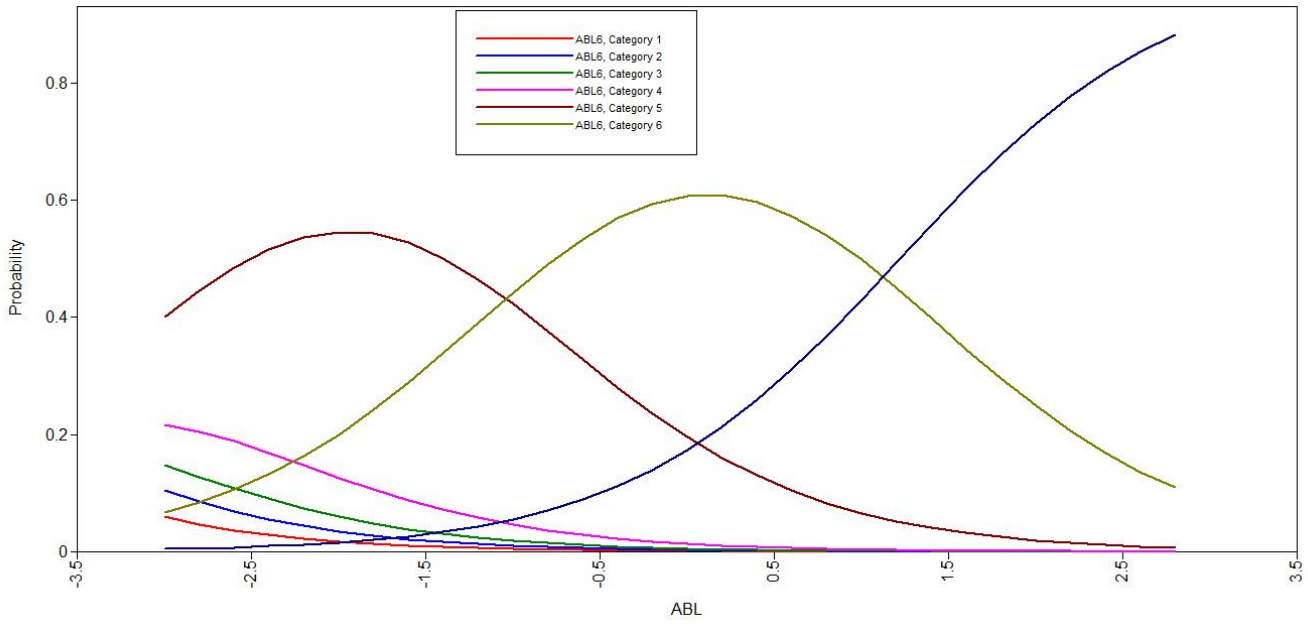


Ability

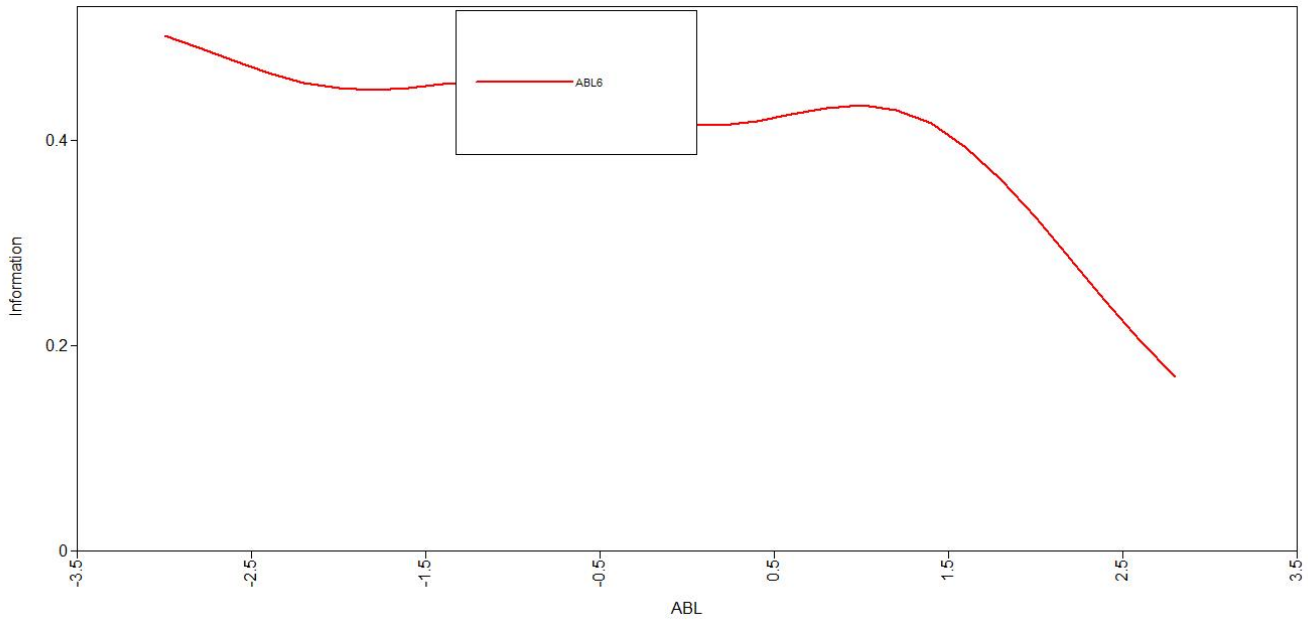


Ability

Figure 6. ICC and IIC graphs for Just Leader Item 6

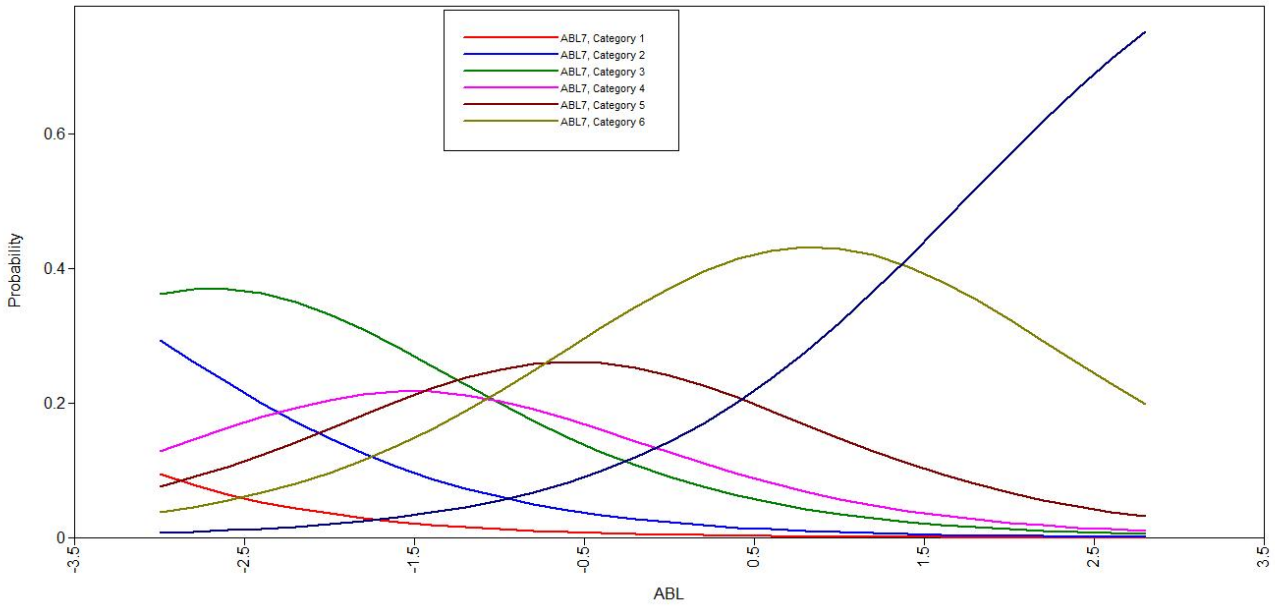


Ability

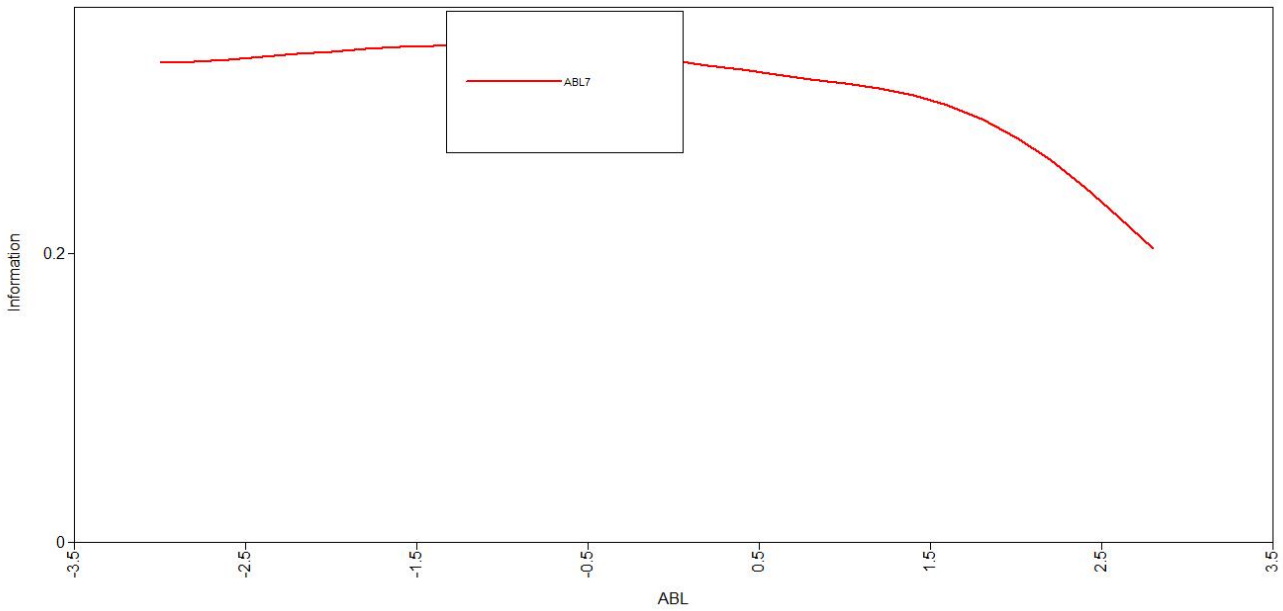


Ability

Figure 7. ICC and IIC graphs for Just Leader Item 7

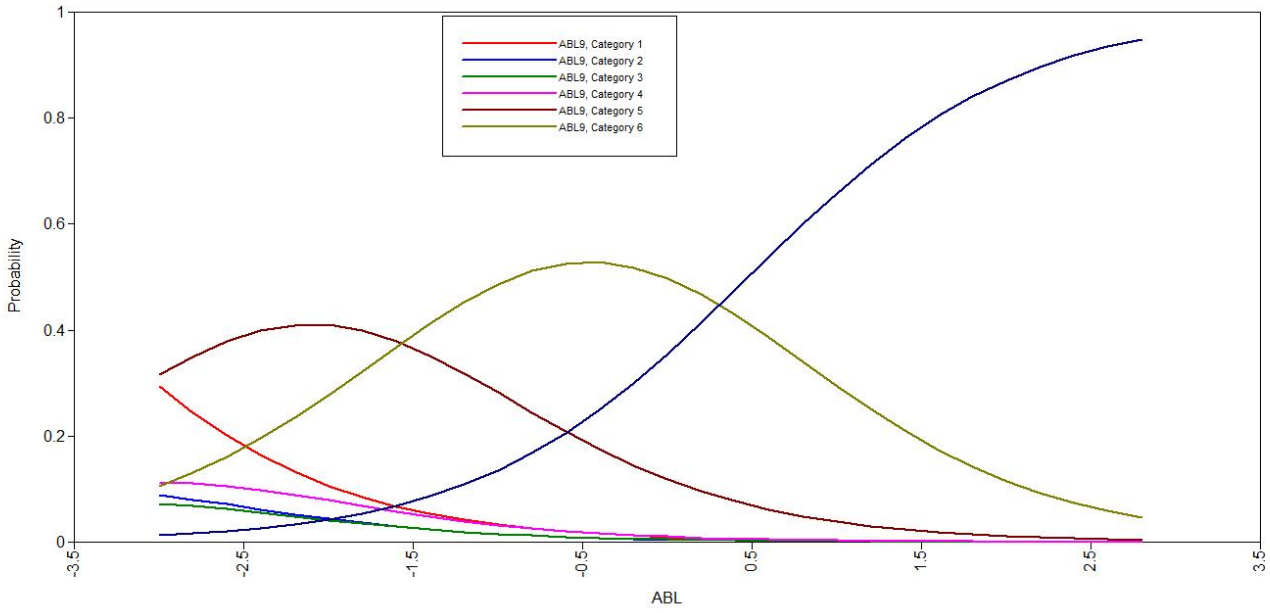


Ability

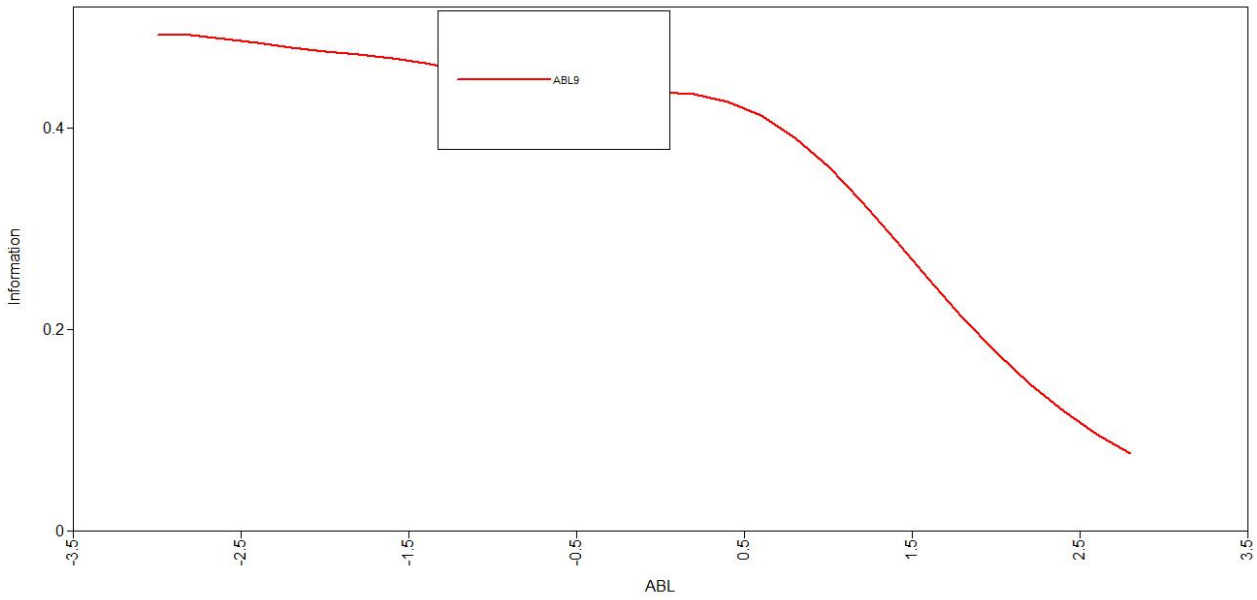


Ability

Figure 8. ICC and IIC graphs for Just Leader Item 9

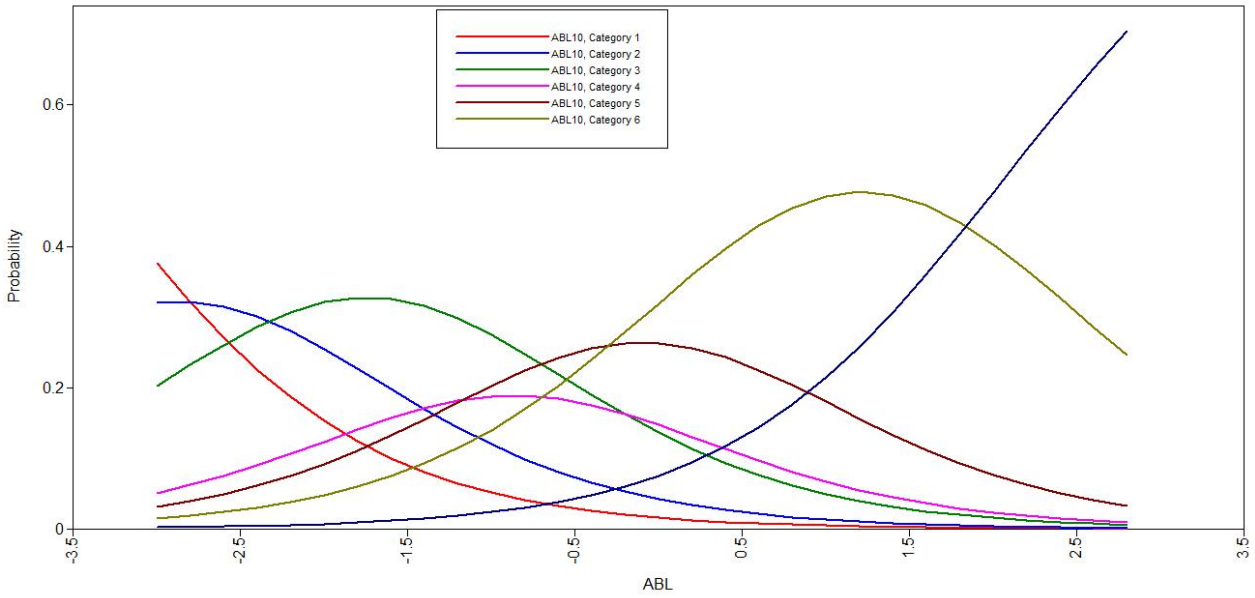


Ability

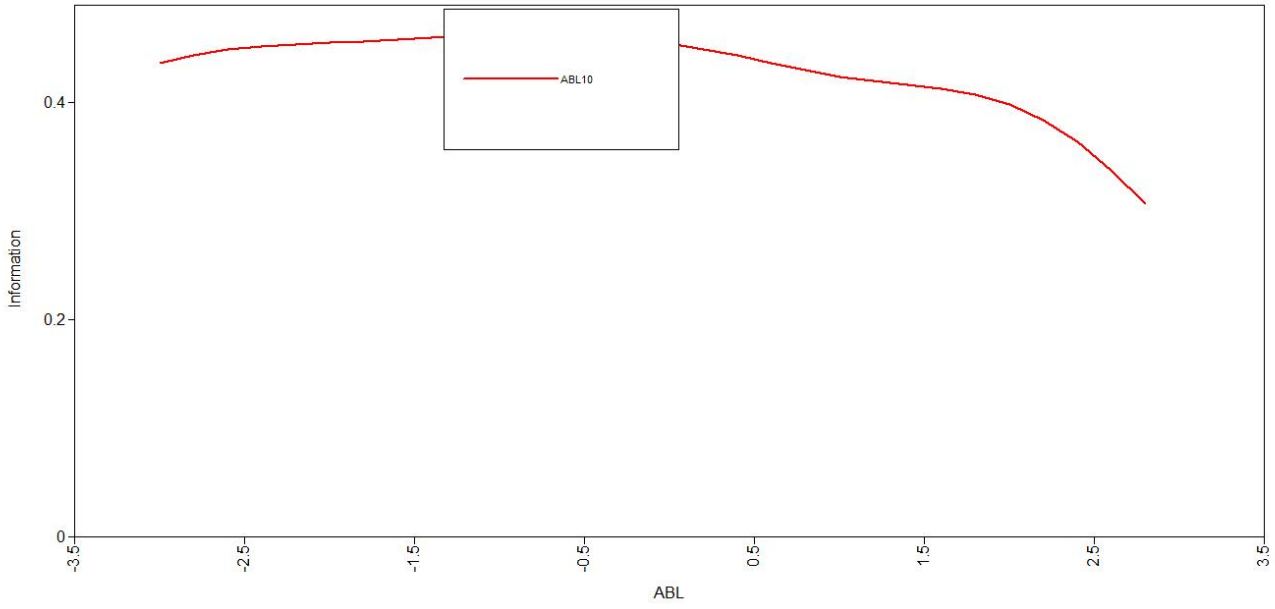


Ability

Figure 9. ICC and IIC graphs for Just Leader Item 10

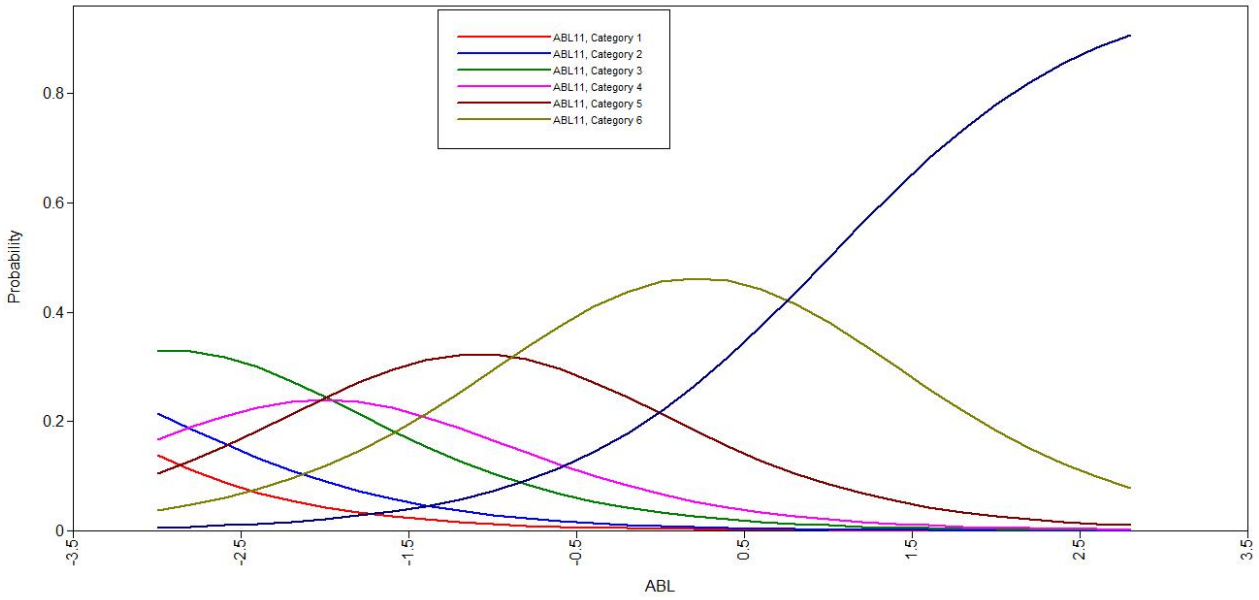


Ability



Ability

Figure 10. ICC and IIC graphs for Just Leader Item 11



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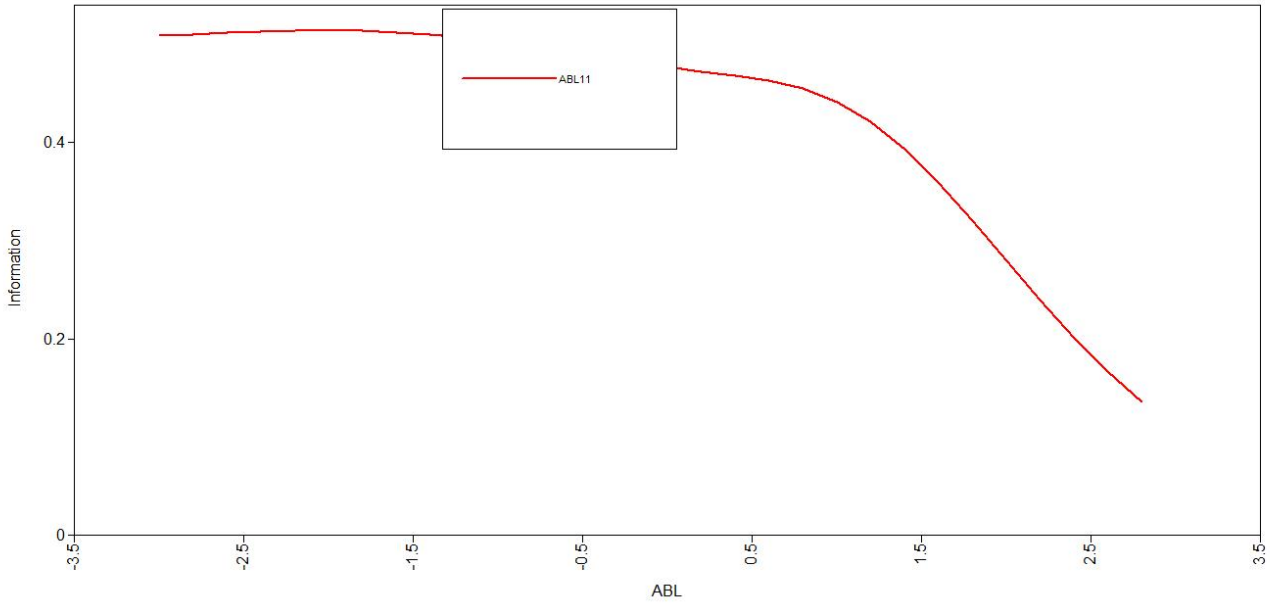
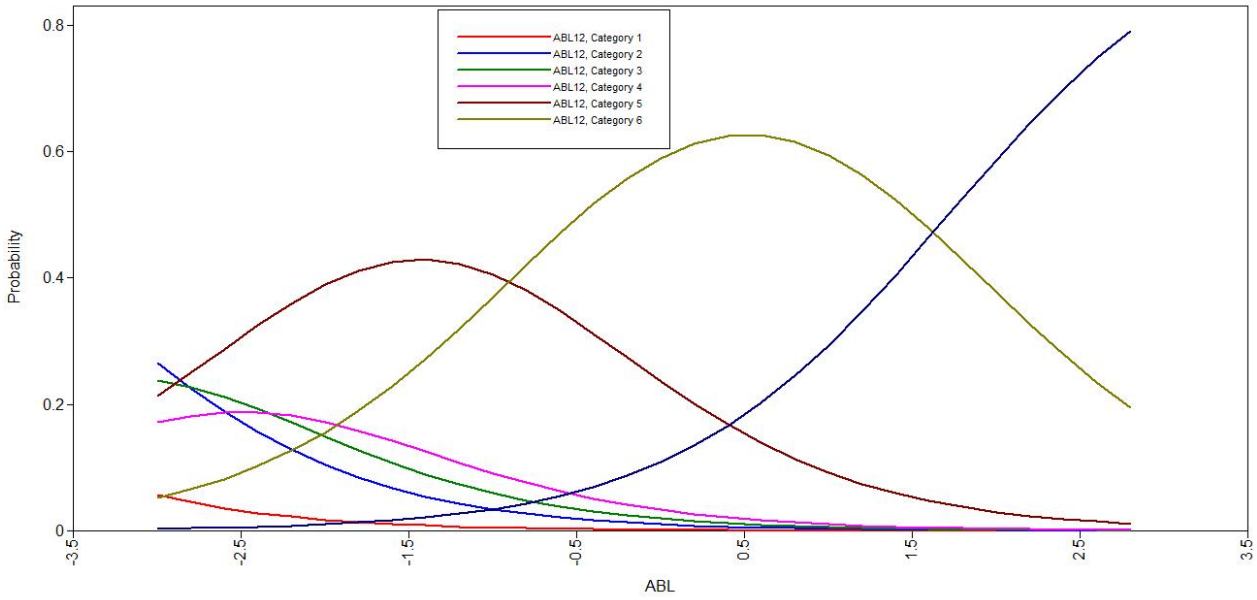
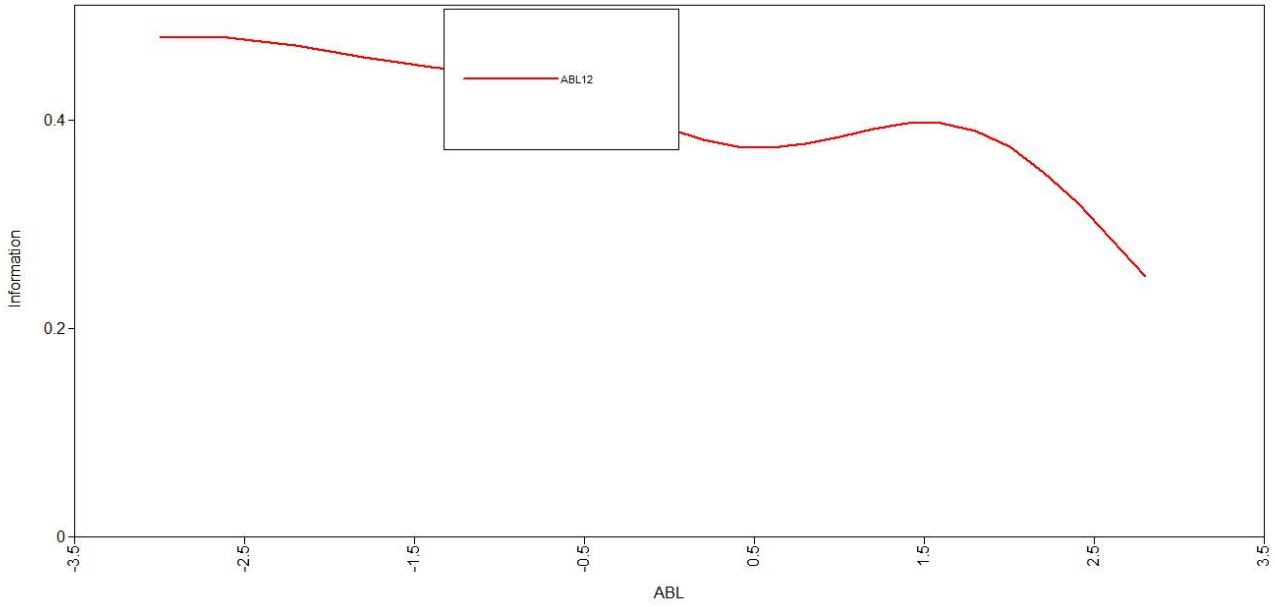


Ability

Figure 11. ICC and IIC graphs for Just Leader Item 12

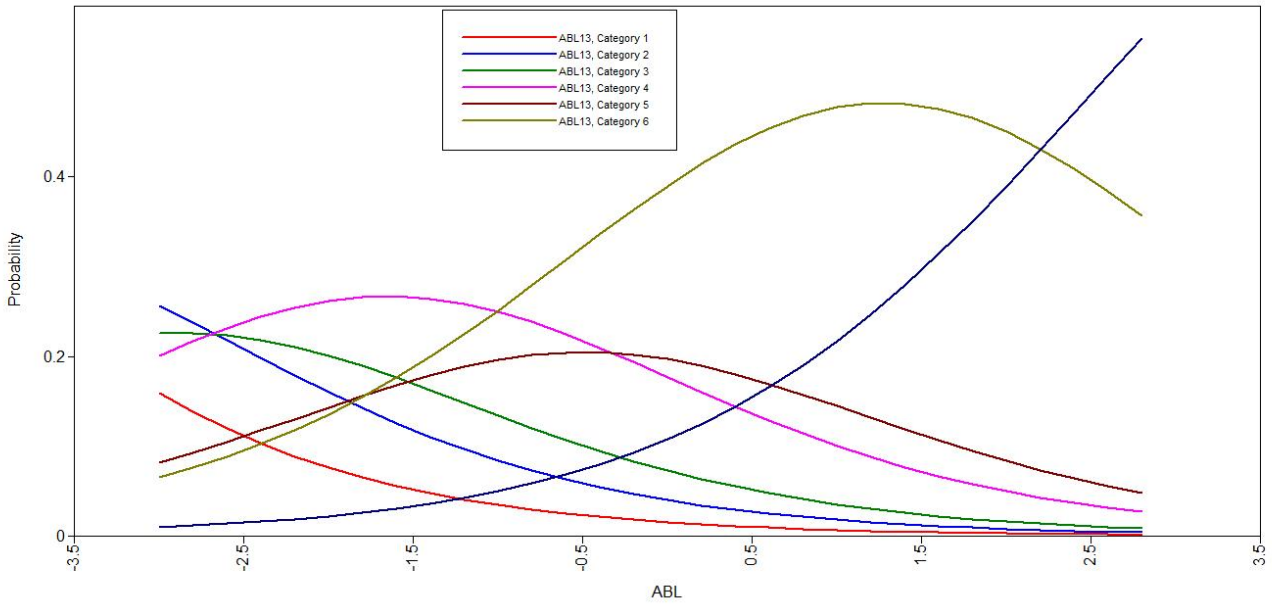


Ability

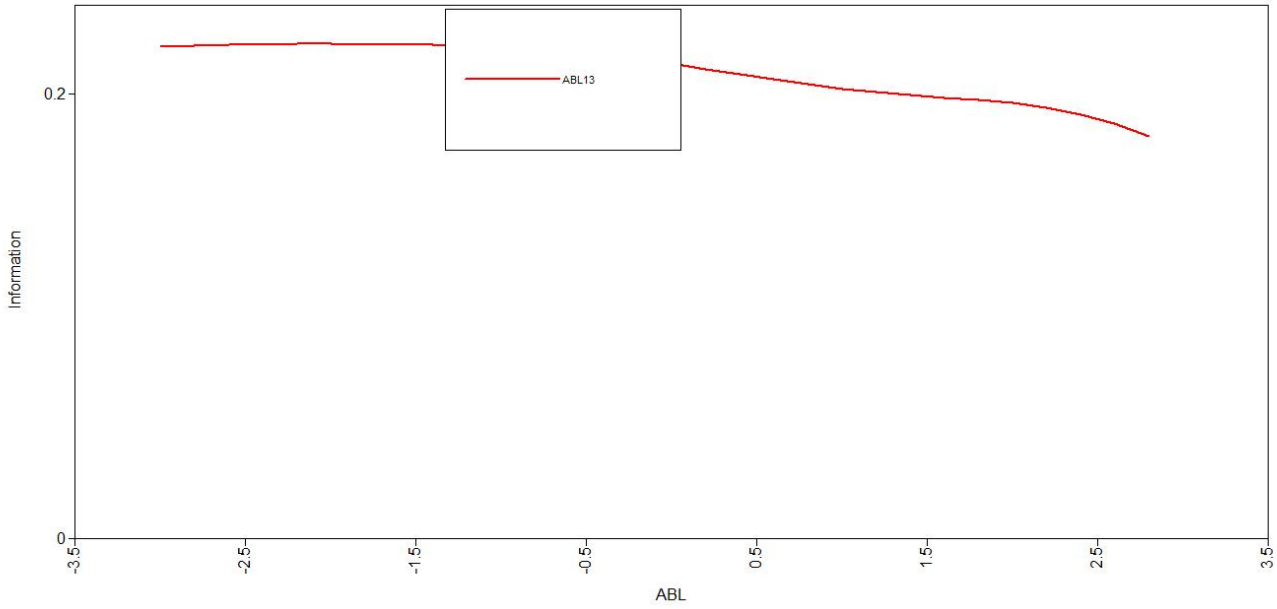


Ability

Figure 12. ICC and IIC graphs for Just Leader Item 13

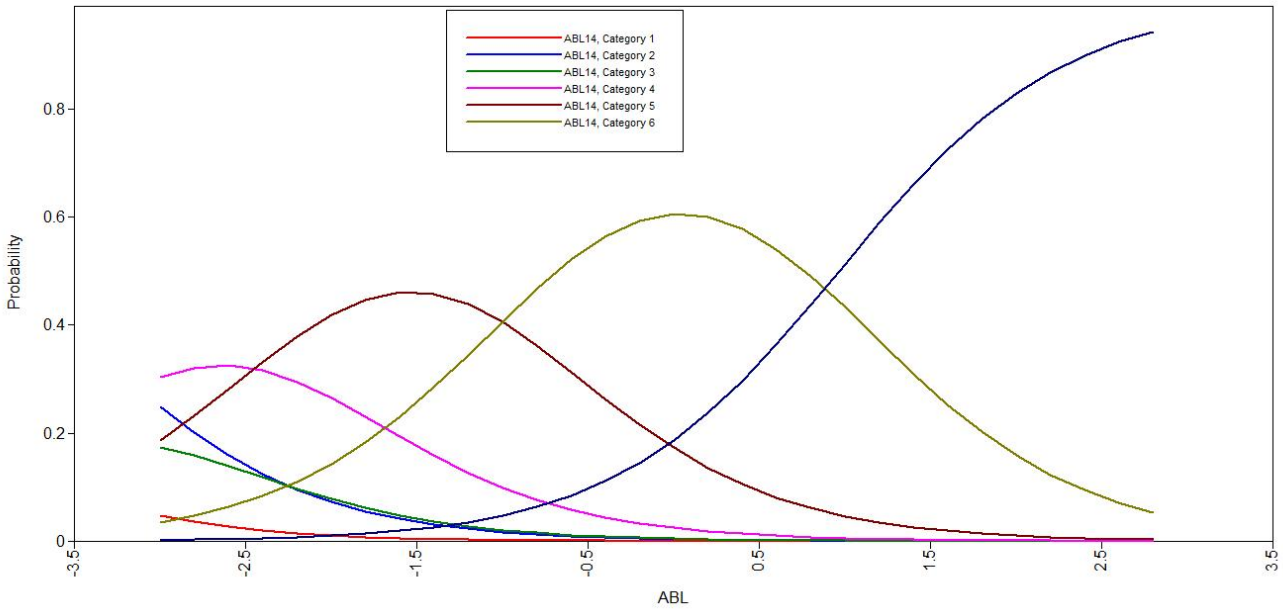


Ability

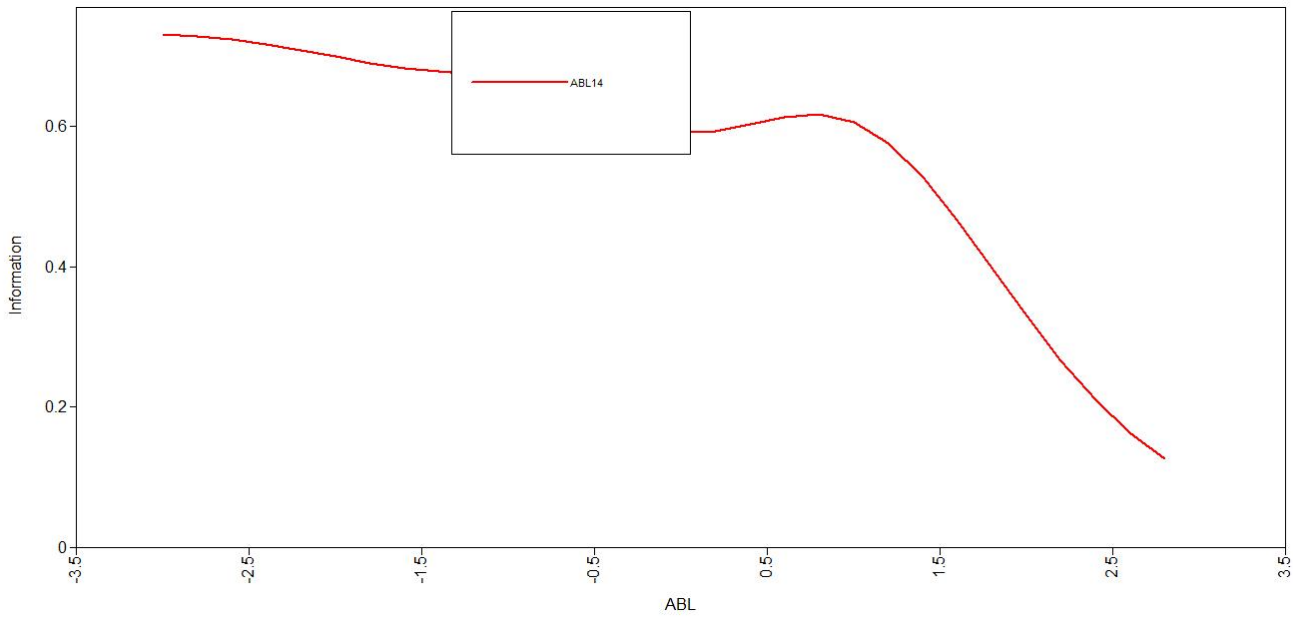


Ability

Figure 13. ICC and IIC graphs for Just Leader Item 14

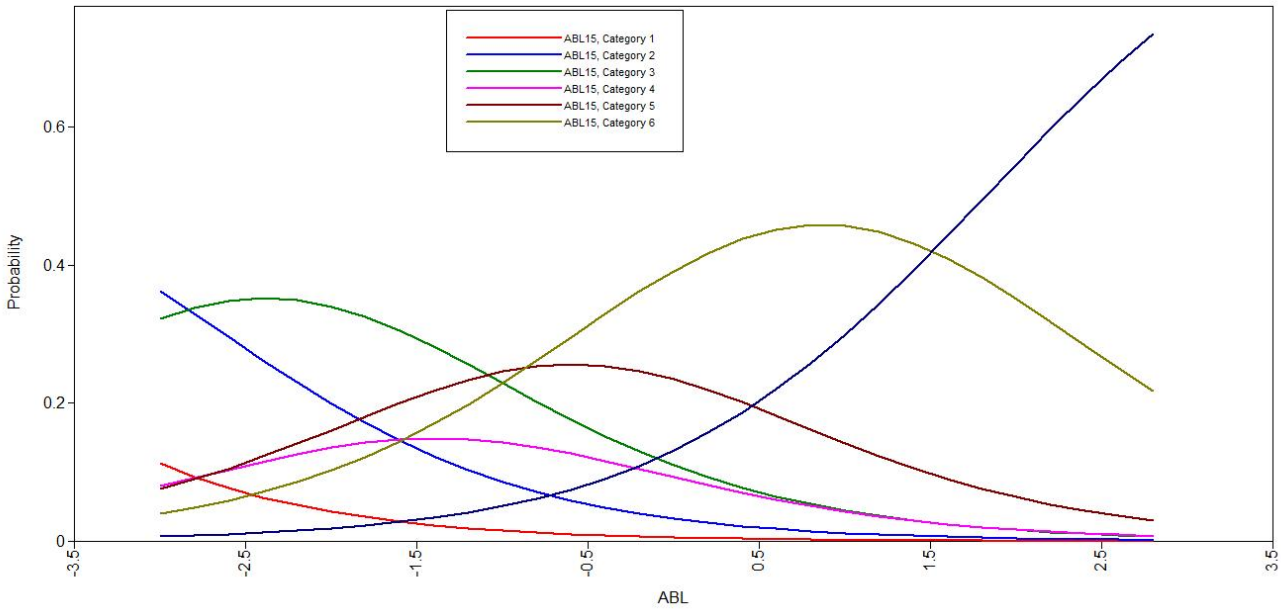


Ability

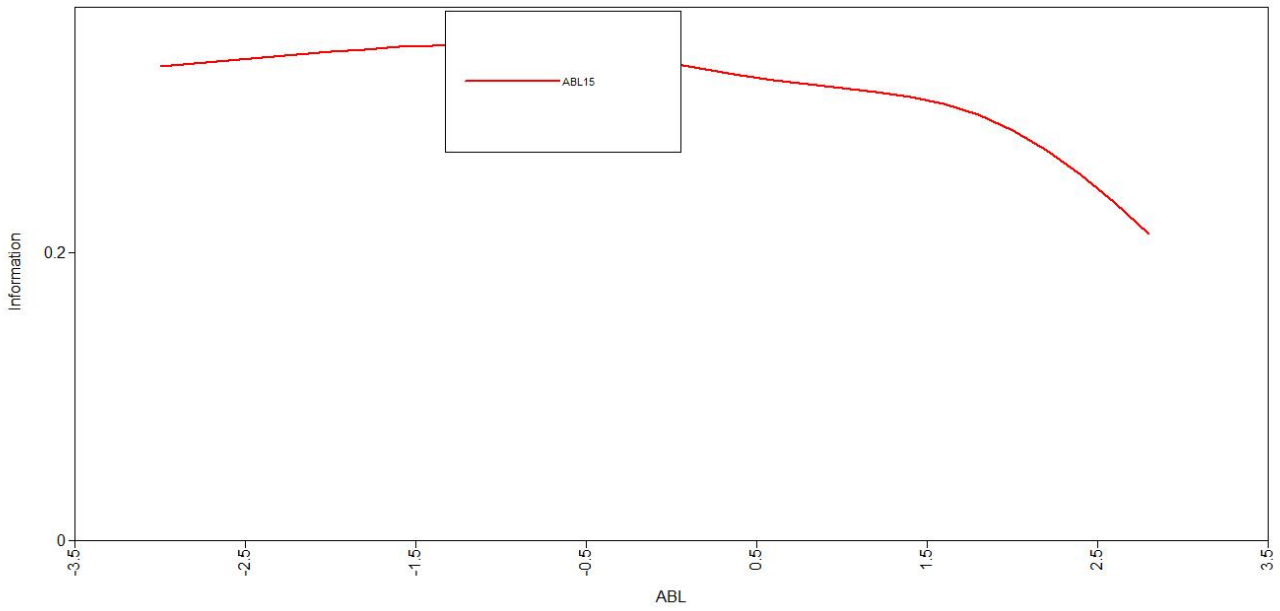


Ability

Figure 14. ICC and IIC graphs for Just Leader Item 15

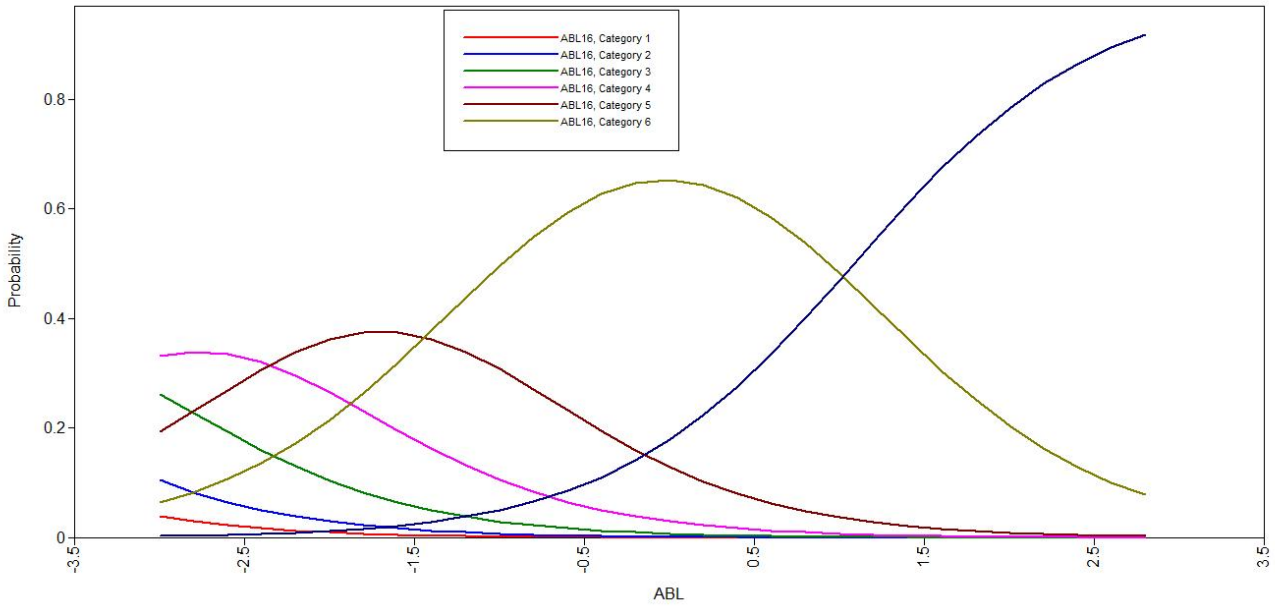


Ability

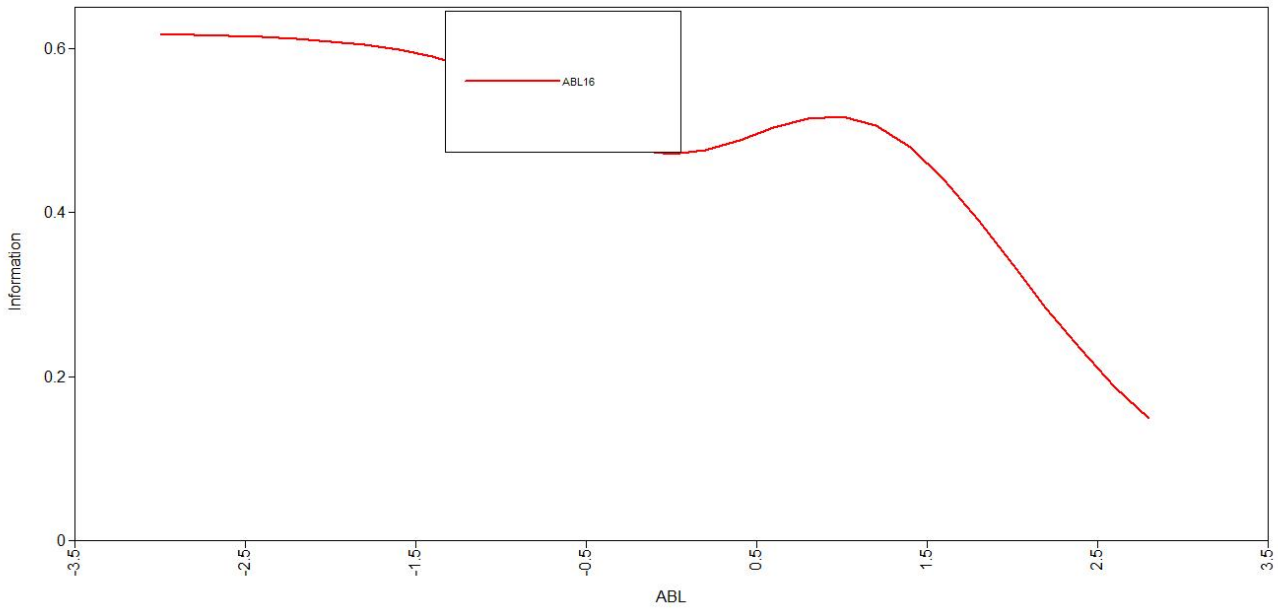


Ability

Figure 15. ICC and IIC graphs for Just Leader Item 16

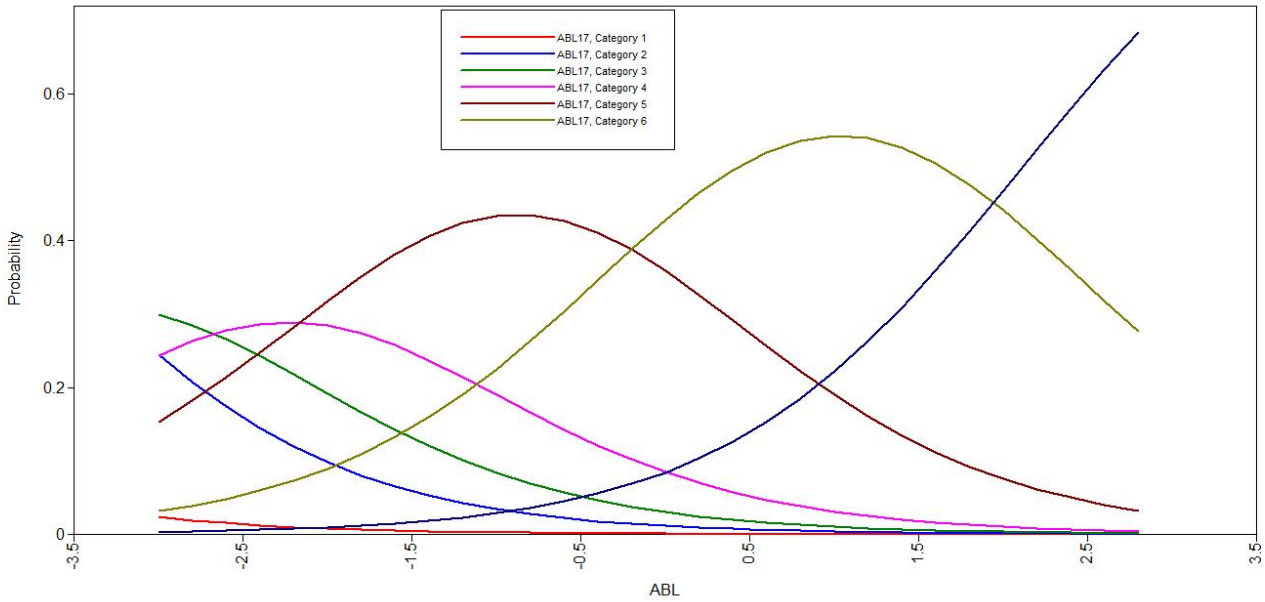


Ability

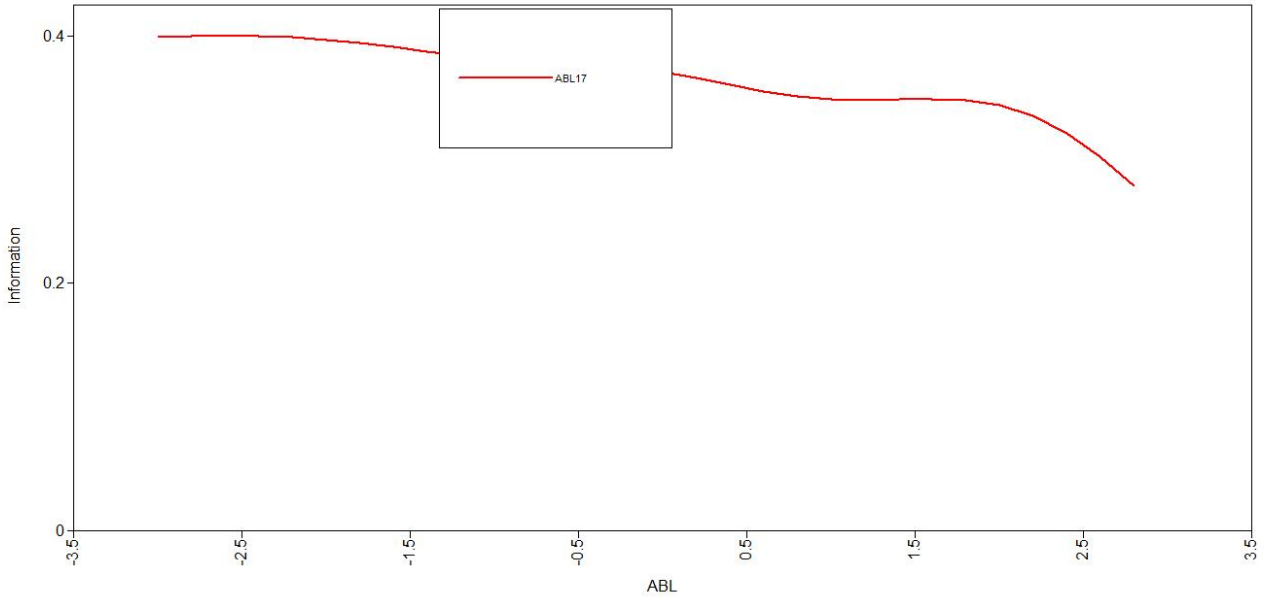


Ability

Figure 16. ICC and IIC graphs for Just Leader Item 17

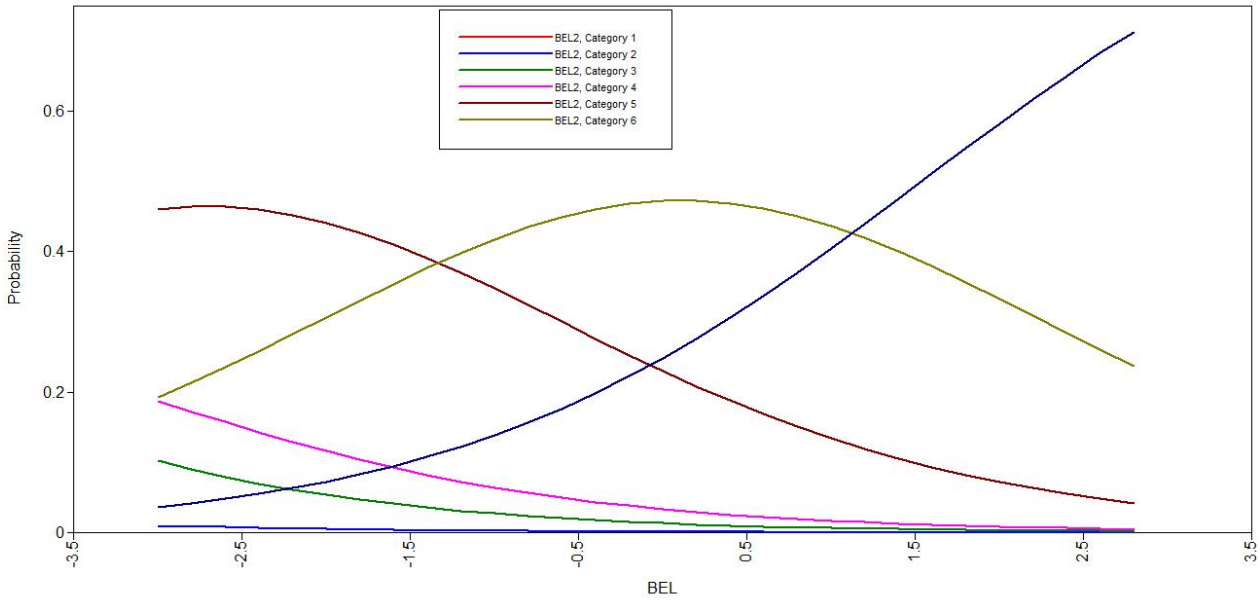


Ability

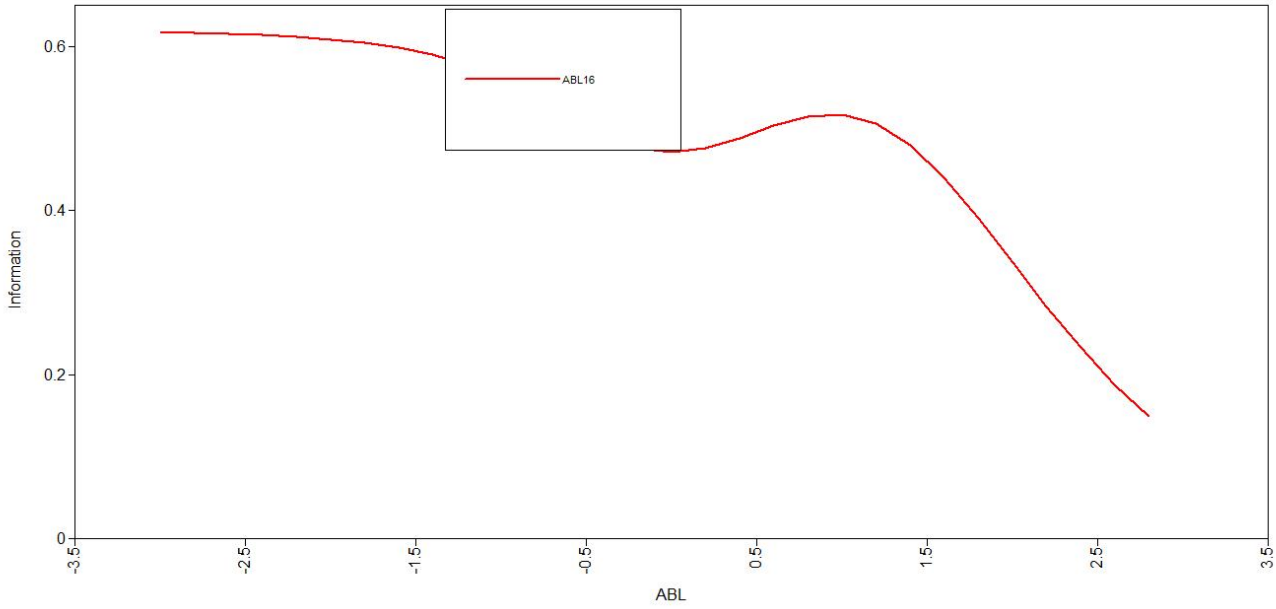


Ability

Figure 17. ICC and IIC graphs for Just Leader Item 19

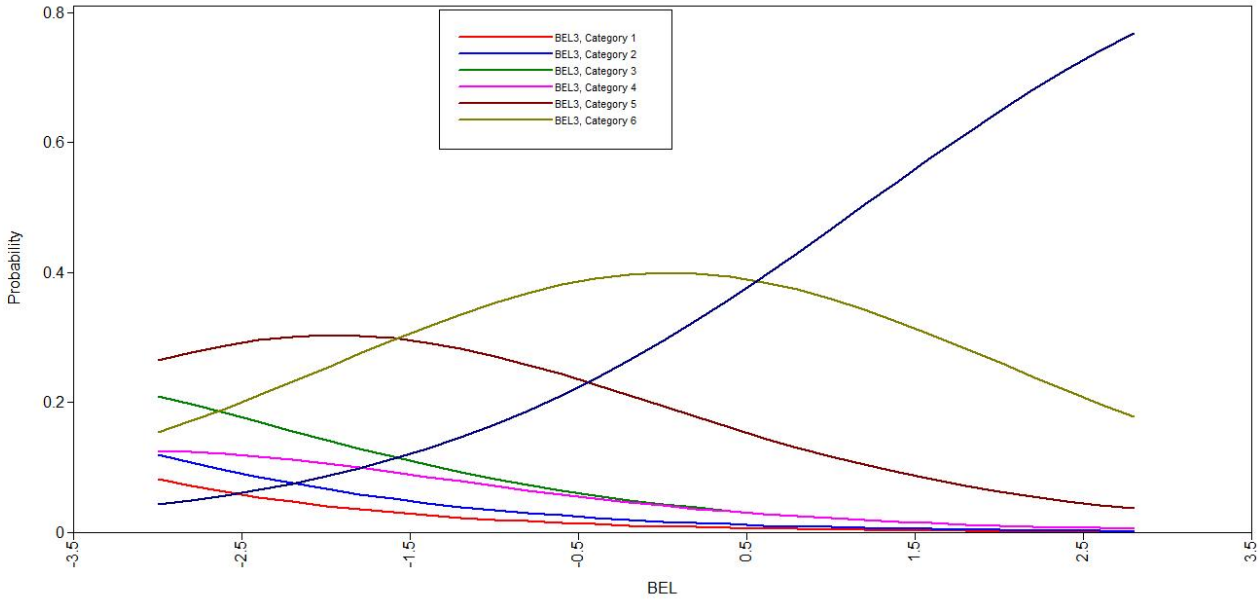


Belief

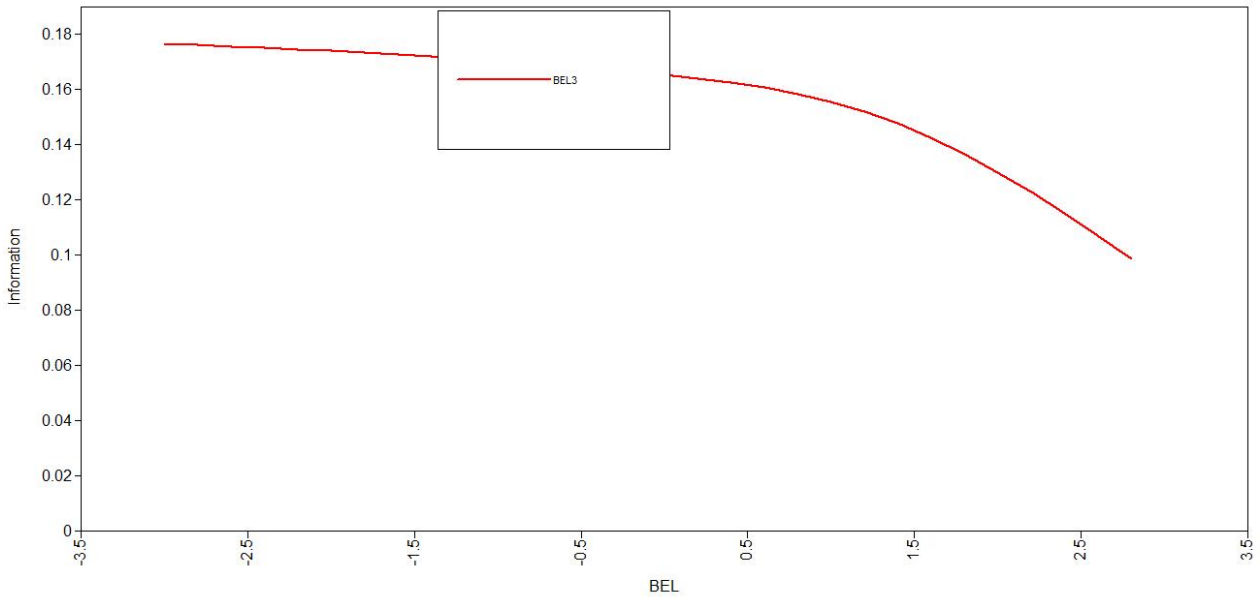


Belief

Figure 18. ICC and IIC graphs for Just Leader Item 20

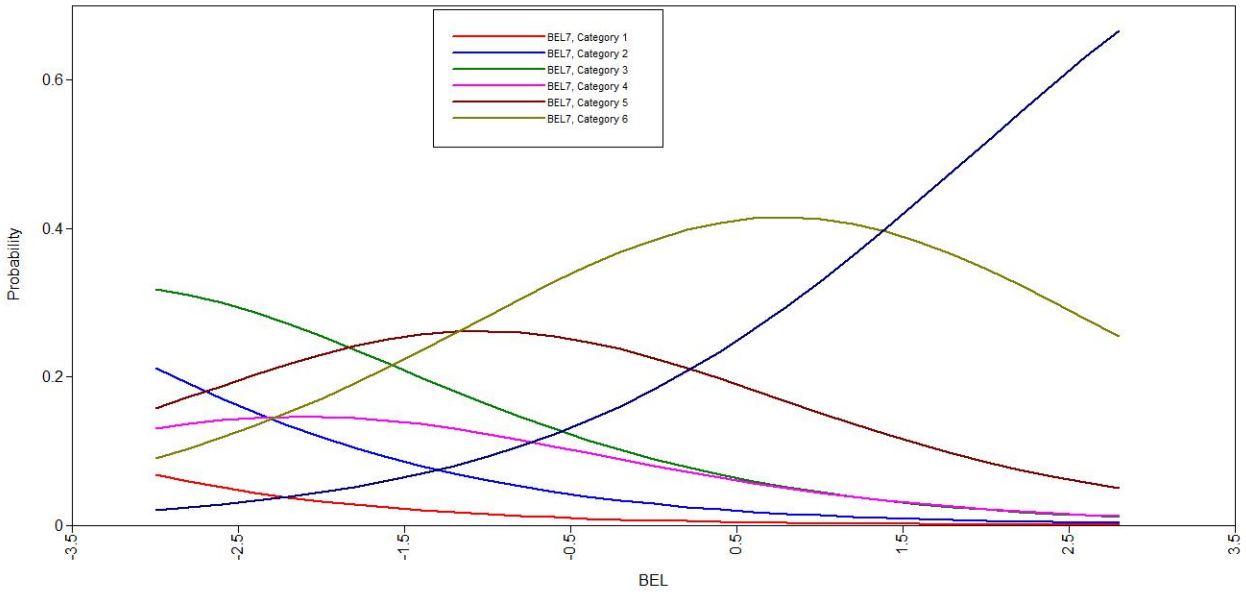


Belief

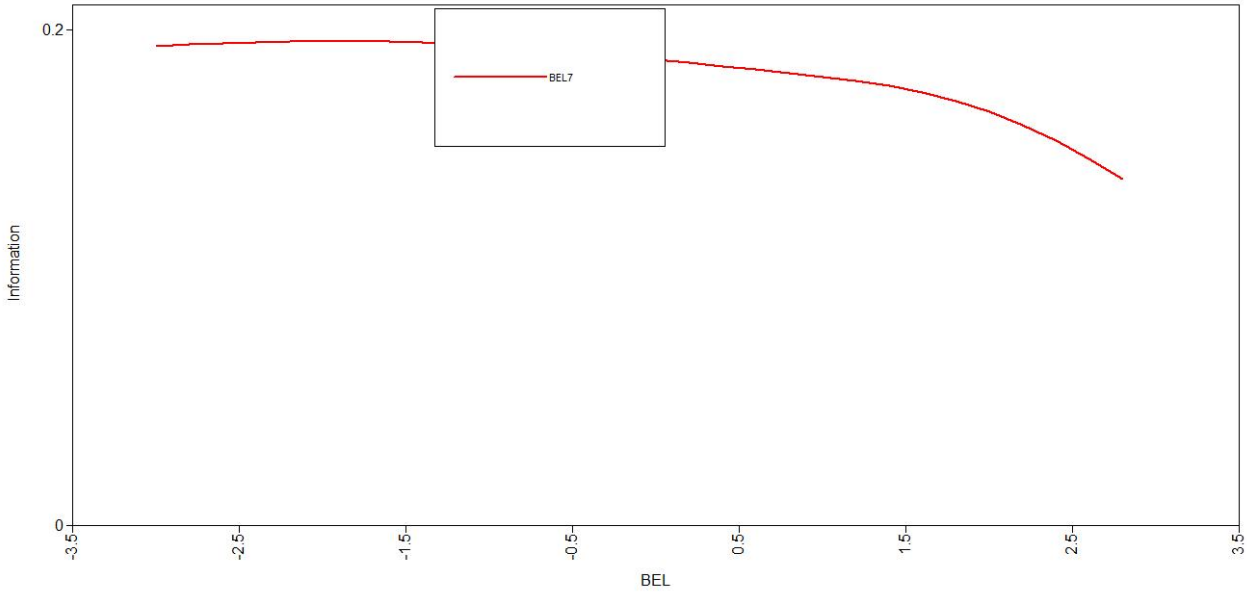


Belief

Figure 19. ICC and IIC graphs for Just Leader Item 24

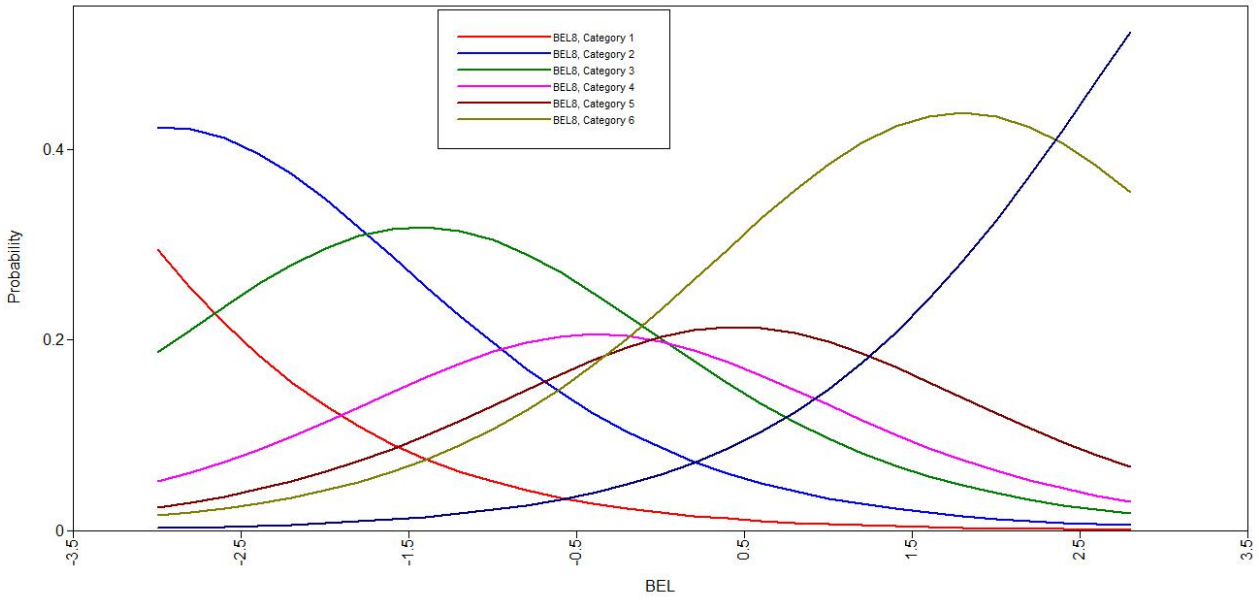


Belief



Belief

Figure 20. ICC and IIC graphs for Just Leader Item 25



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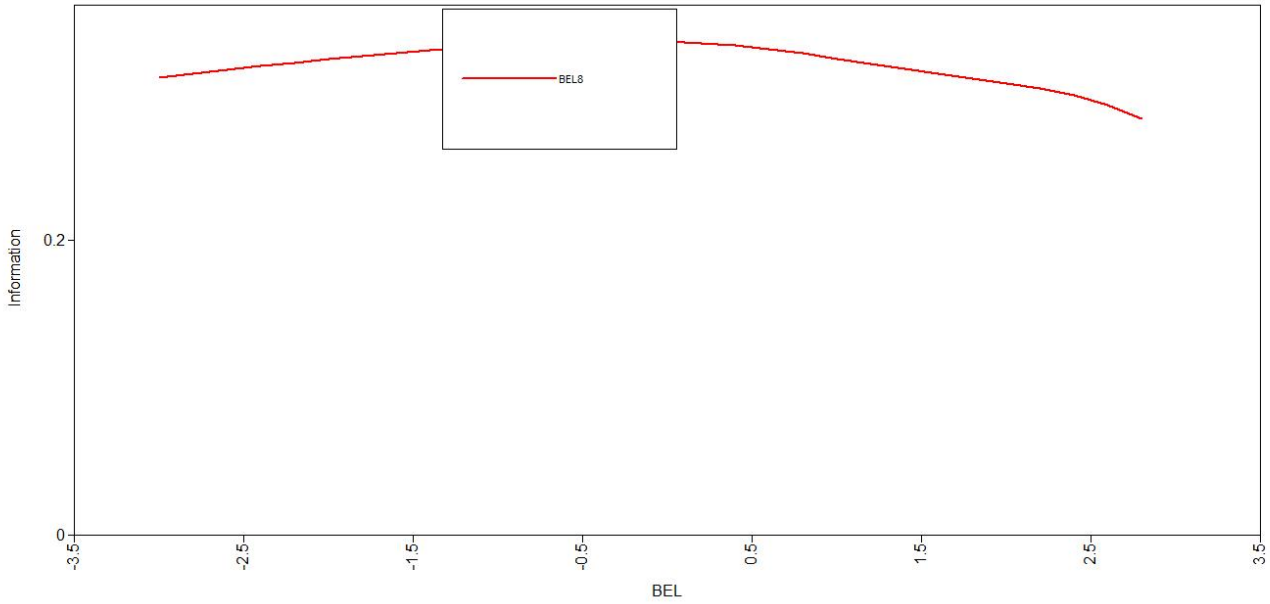
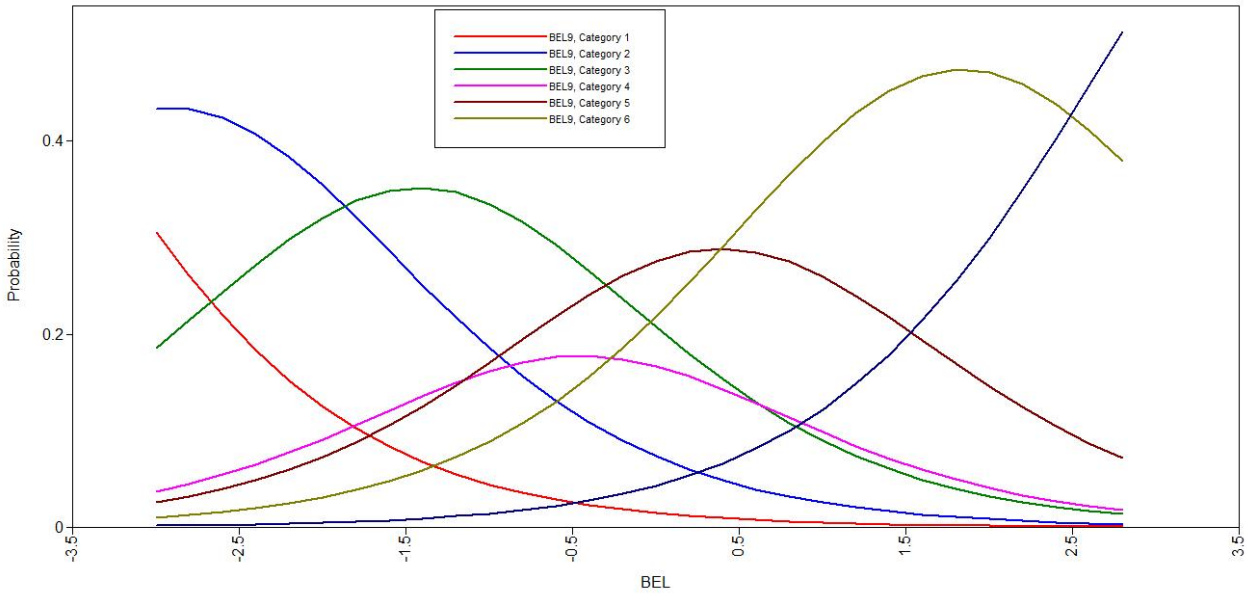
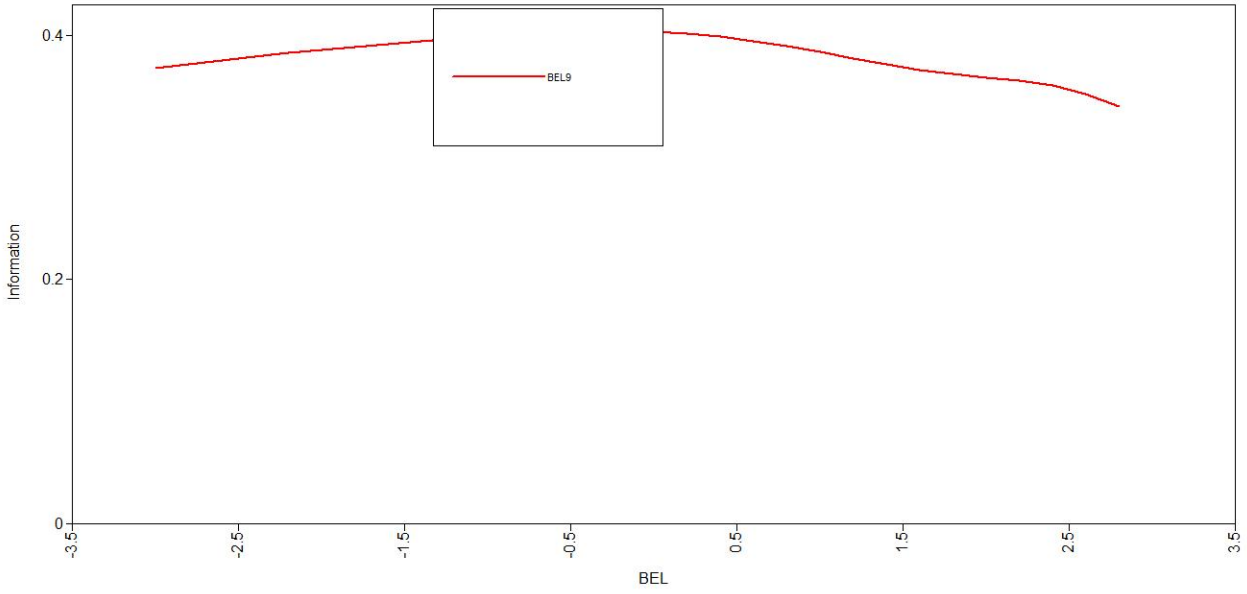


Belief

Figure 21. ICC and IIC graphs for Just Leader Item 26

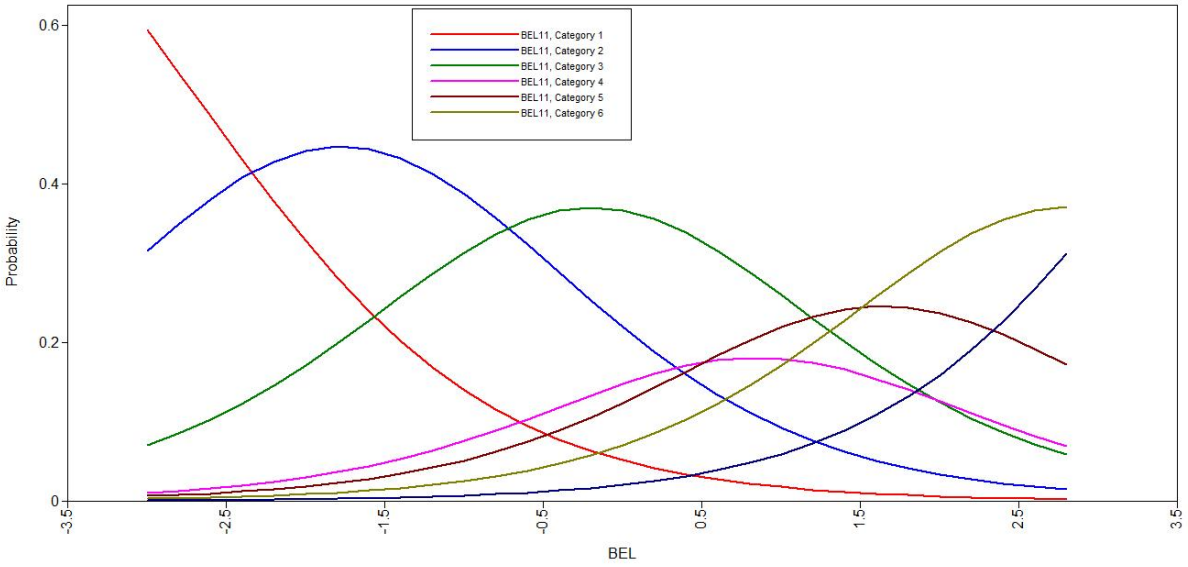


Belief

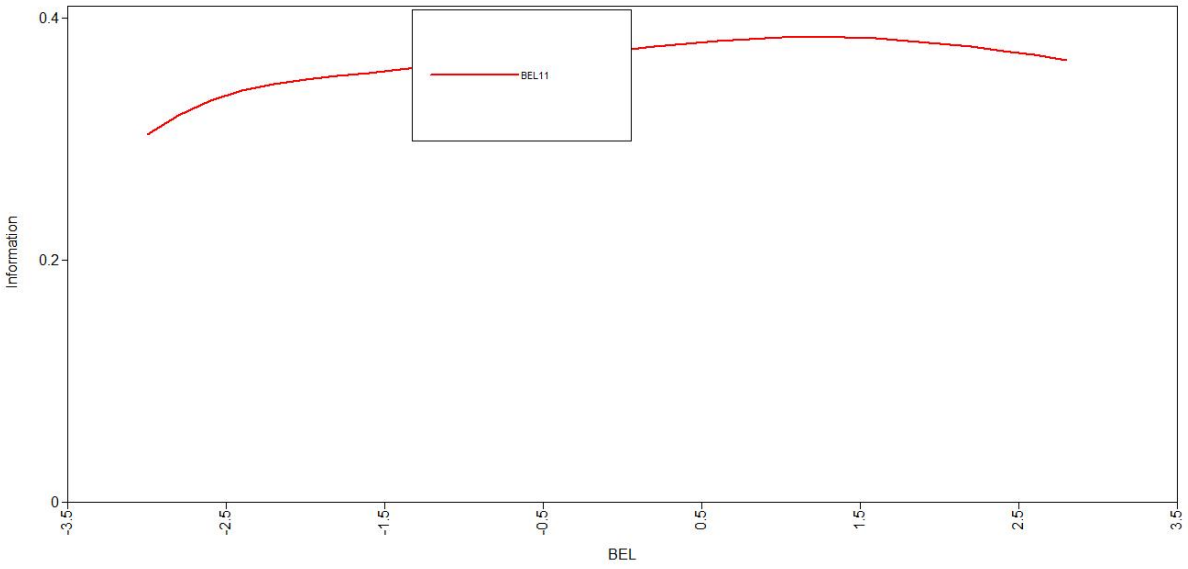


Belief

Figure 22. ICC and IIC graphs for Just Leader Item 28

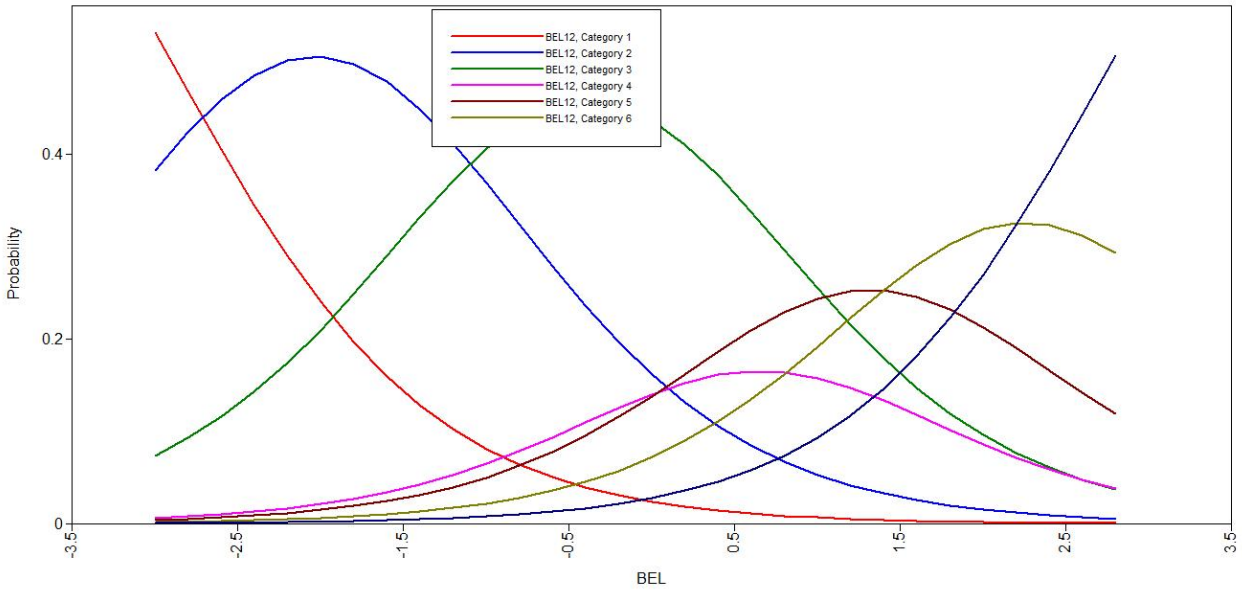


Belief

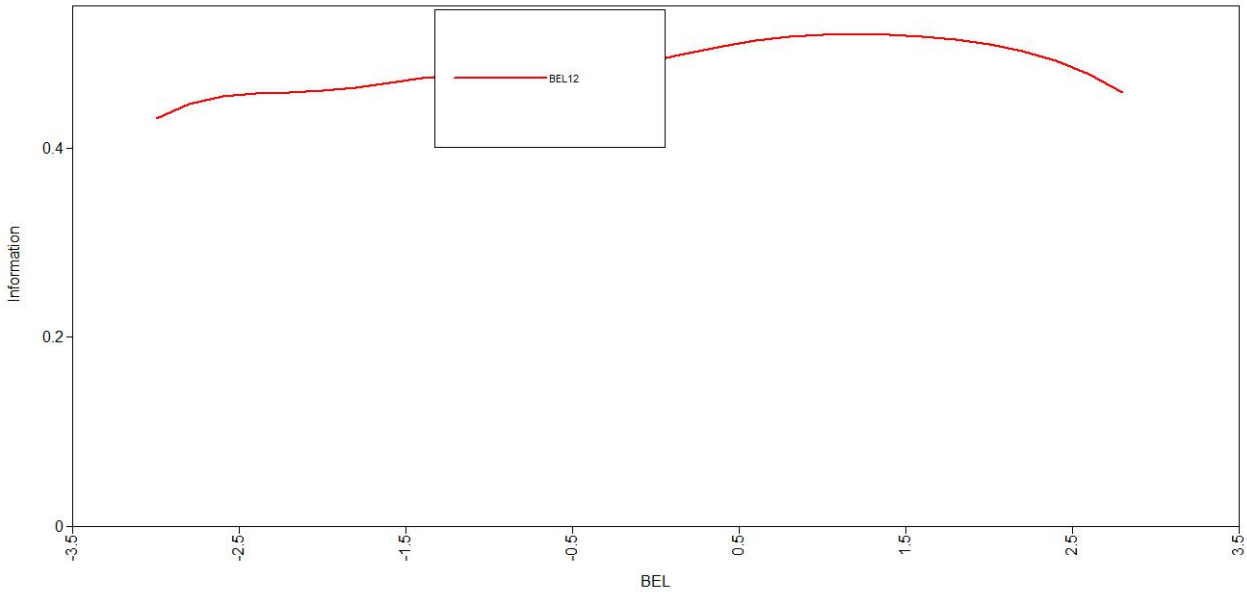


Belief

Figure 23. ICC and IIC graphs for Just Leader Item 29

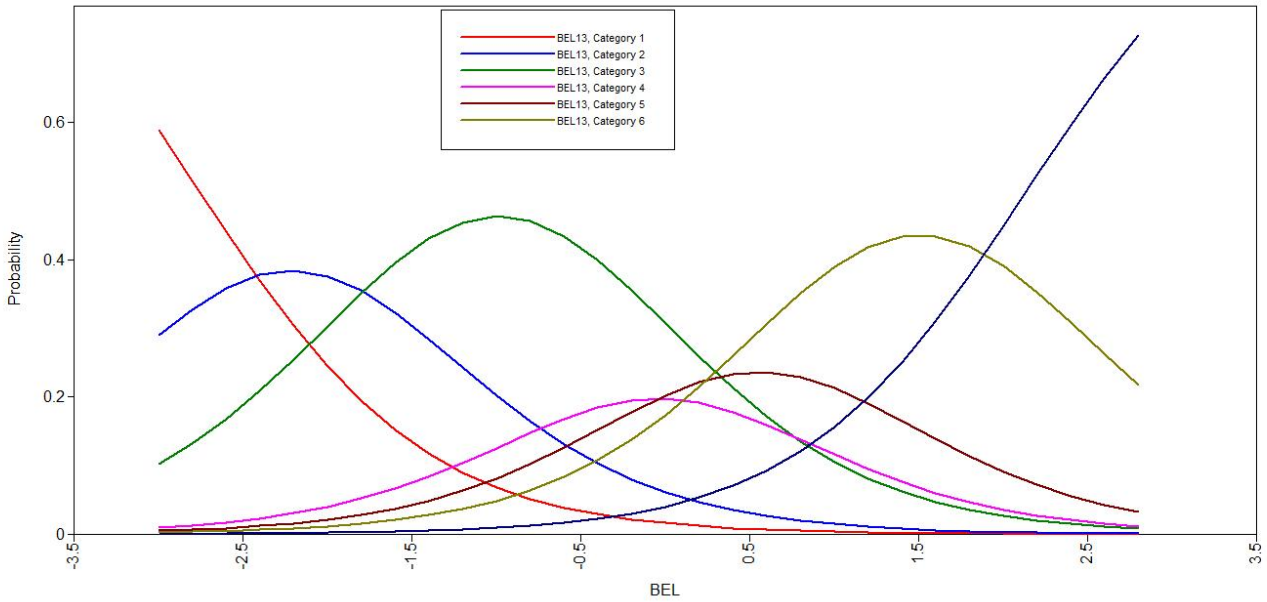


Belief

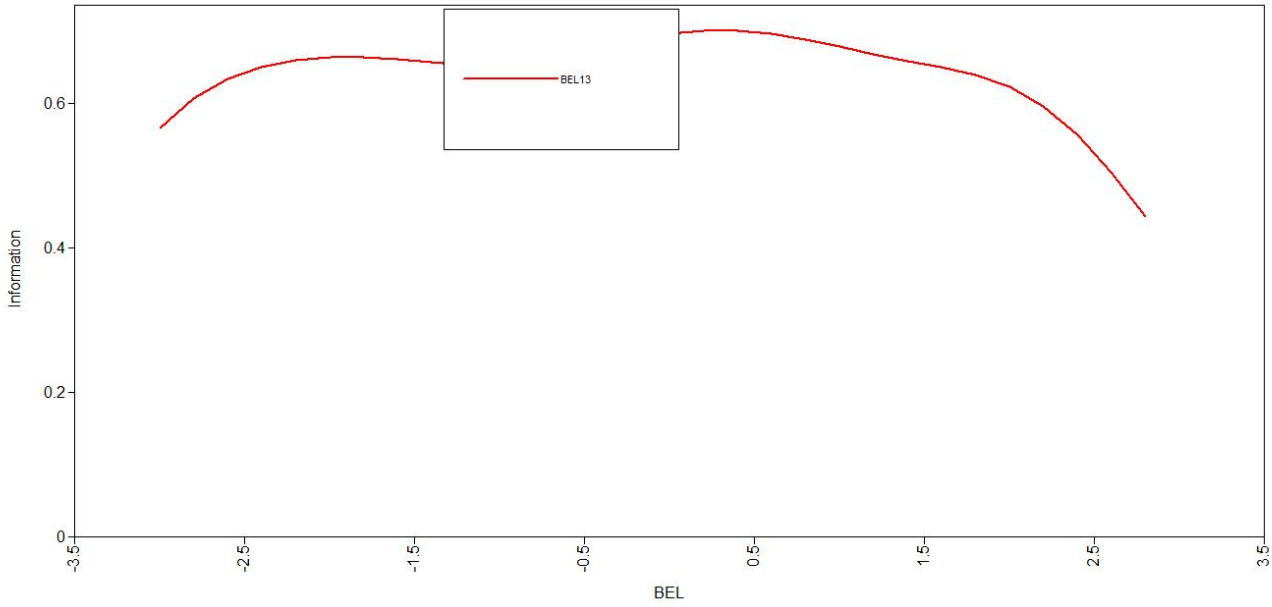


Belief

Figure 24. ICC and IIC graphs for Just Leader Item 30

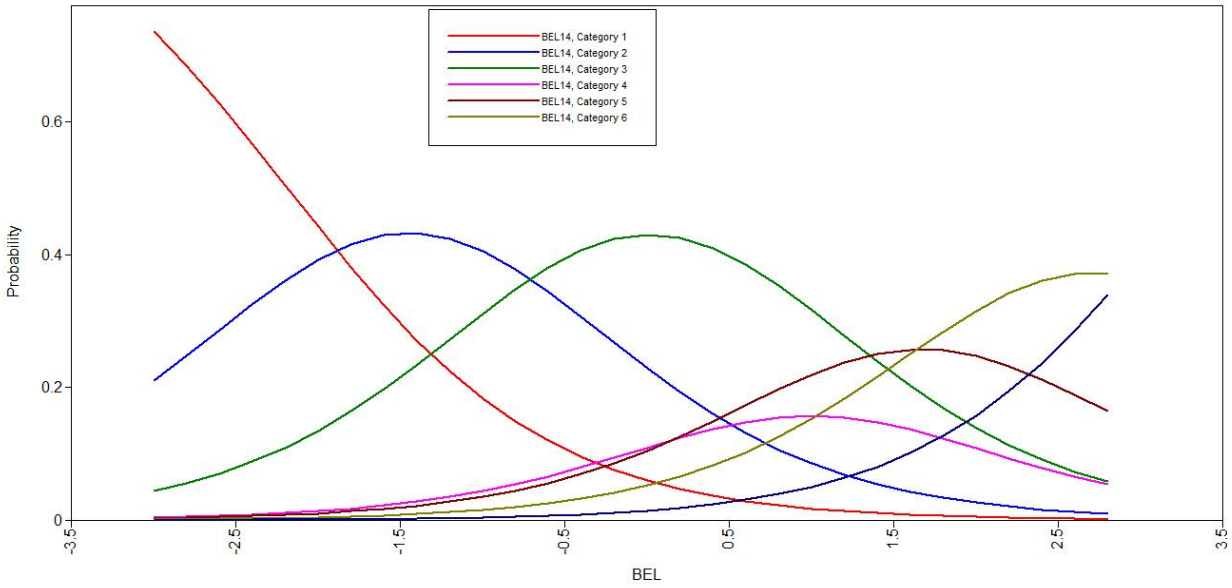


Belief

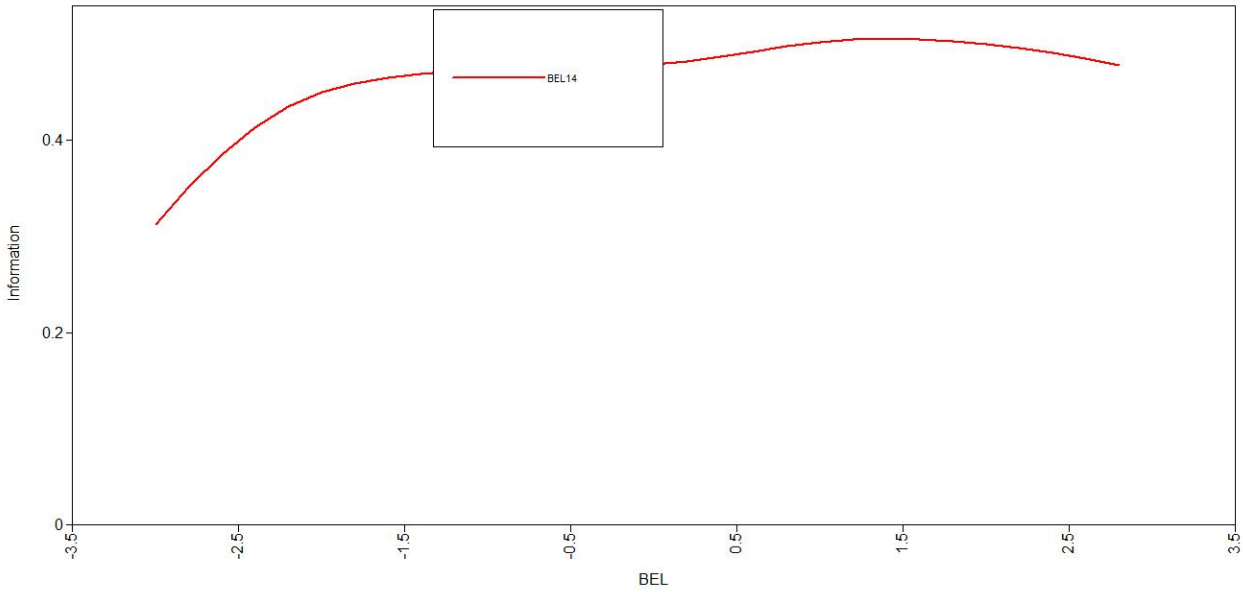


Belief

Figure 25. ICC and IIC graphs for Just Leader Item 31

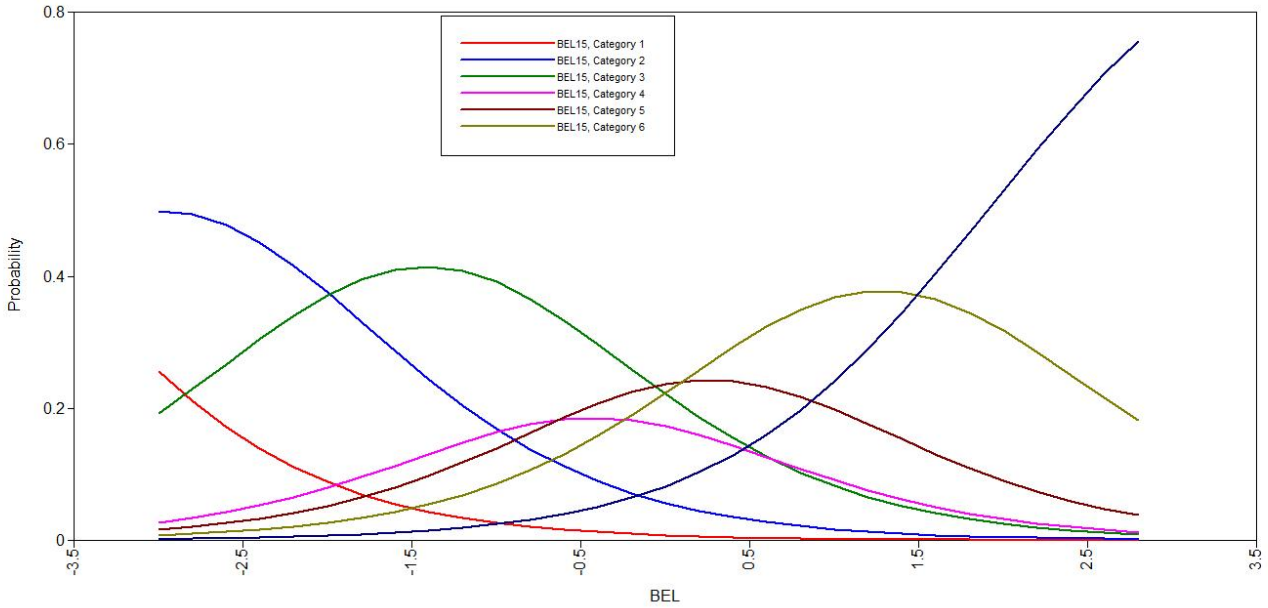


Belief

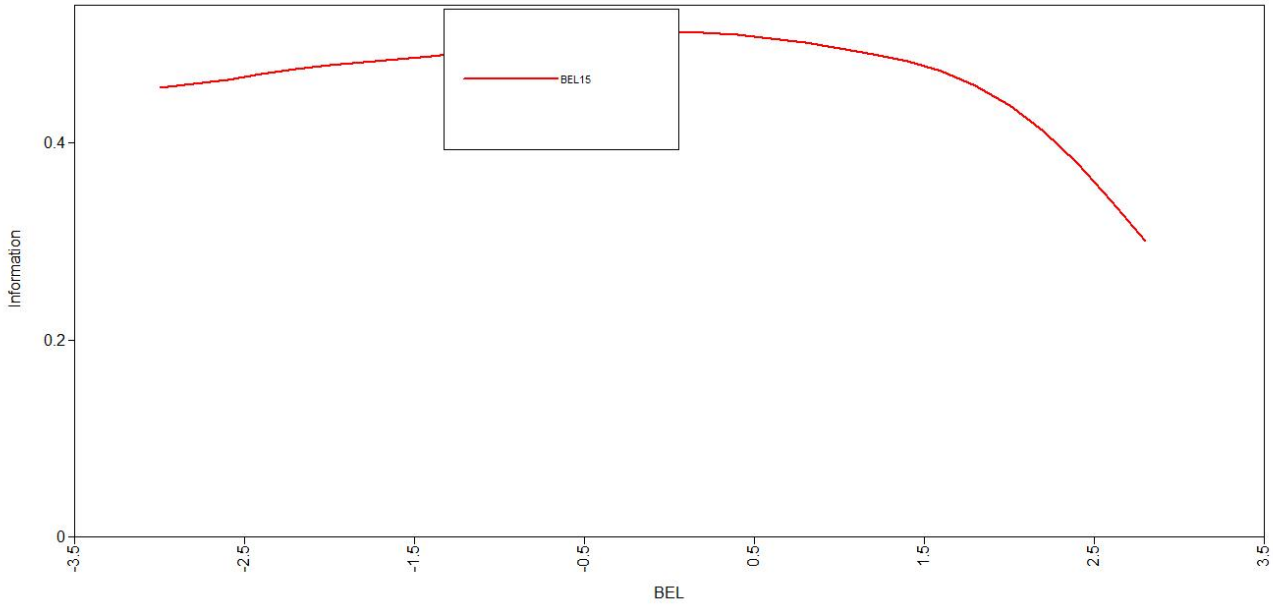


Belief

Figure 26. ICC and IIC graphs for Just Leader Item 32

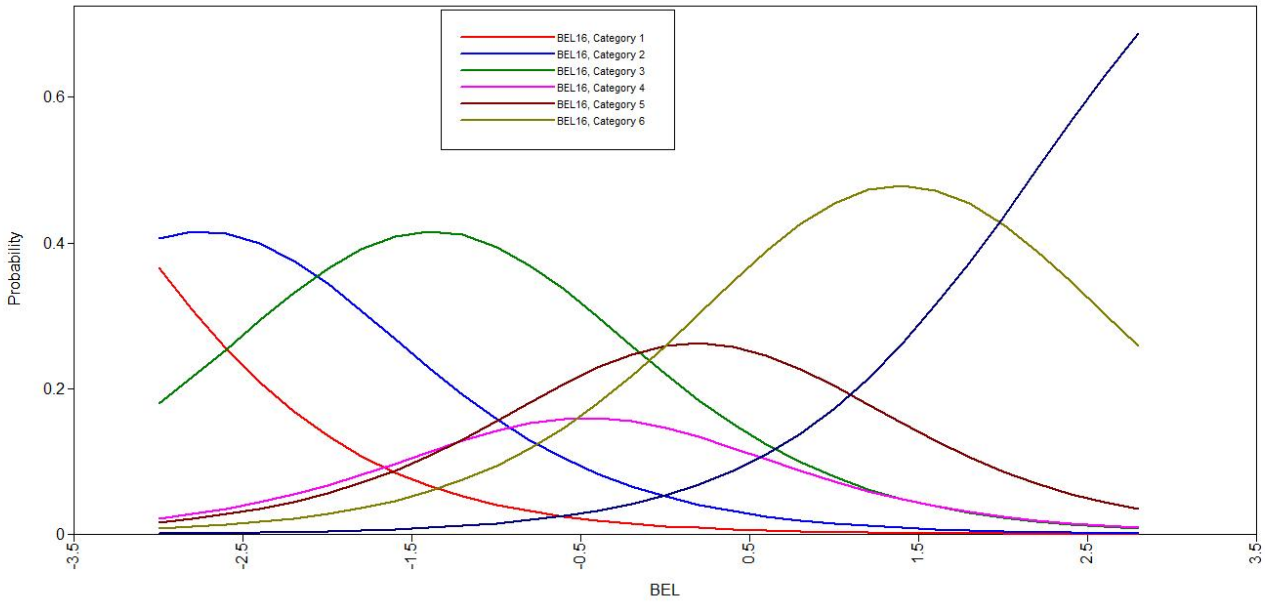


Belief

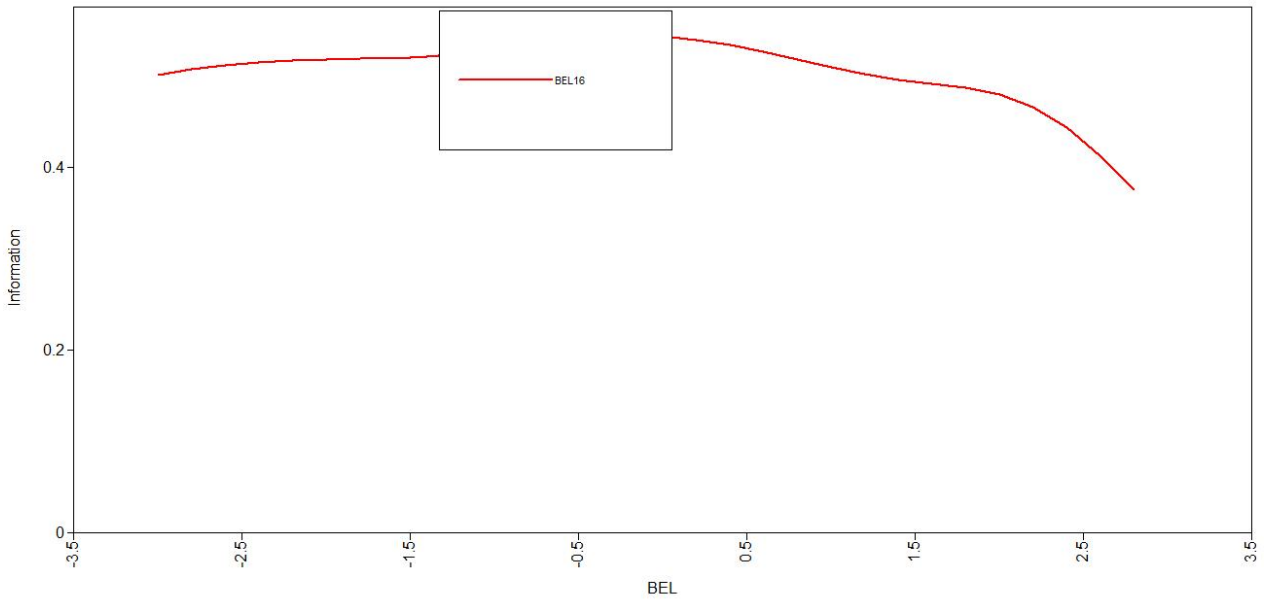


Belief

Figure 27. ICC and IIC graphs for Just Leader Item 33

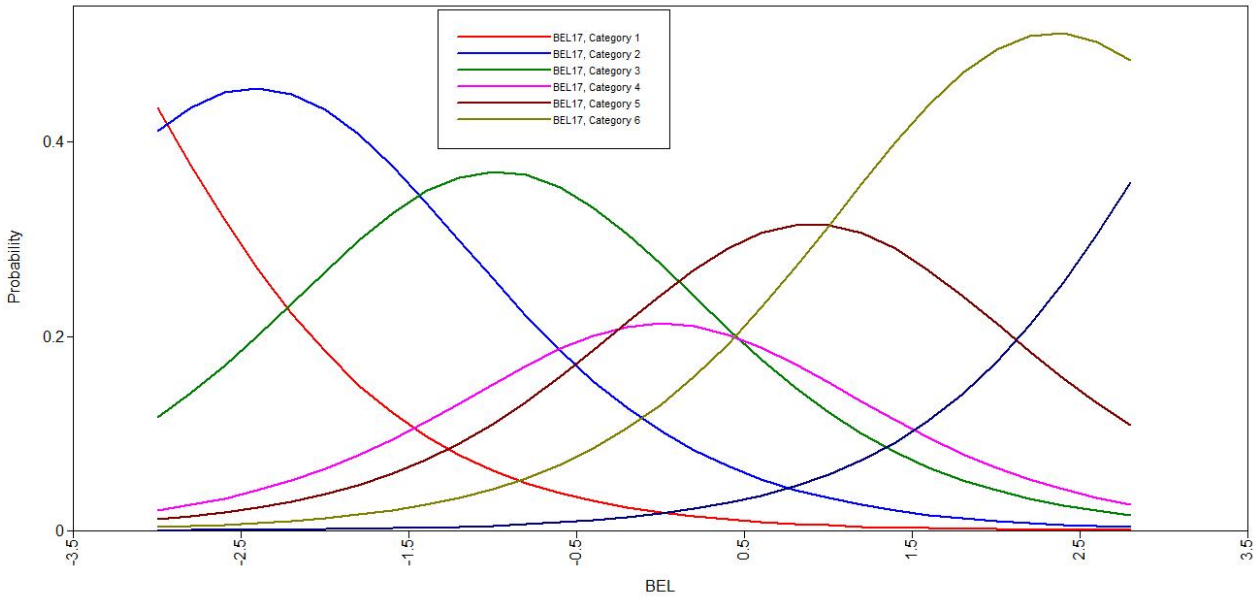


Belief

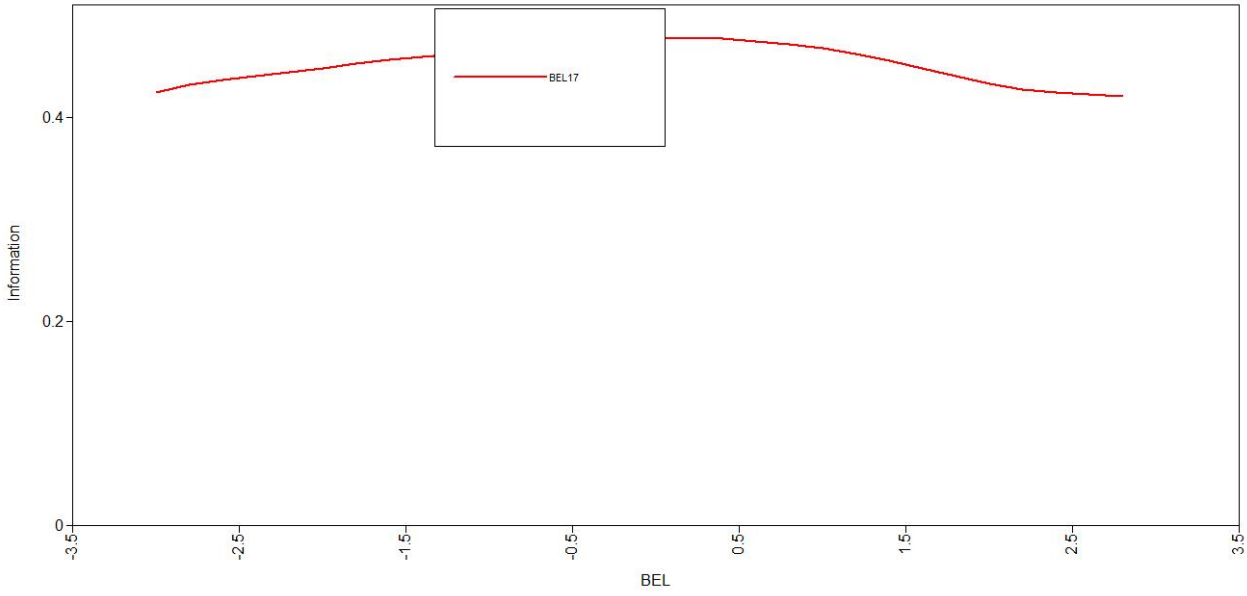


Belief

Figure 27. ICC and IIC graphs for Just Leader Item 34

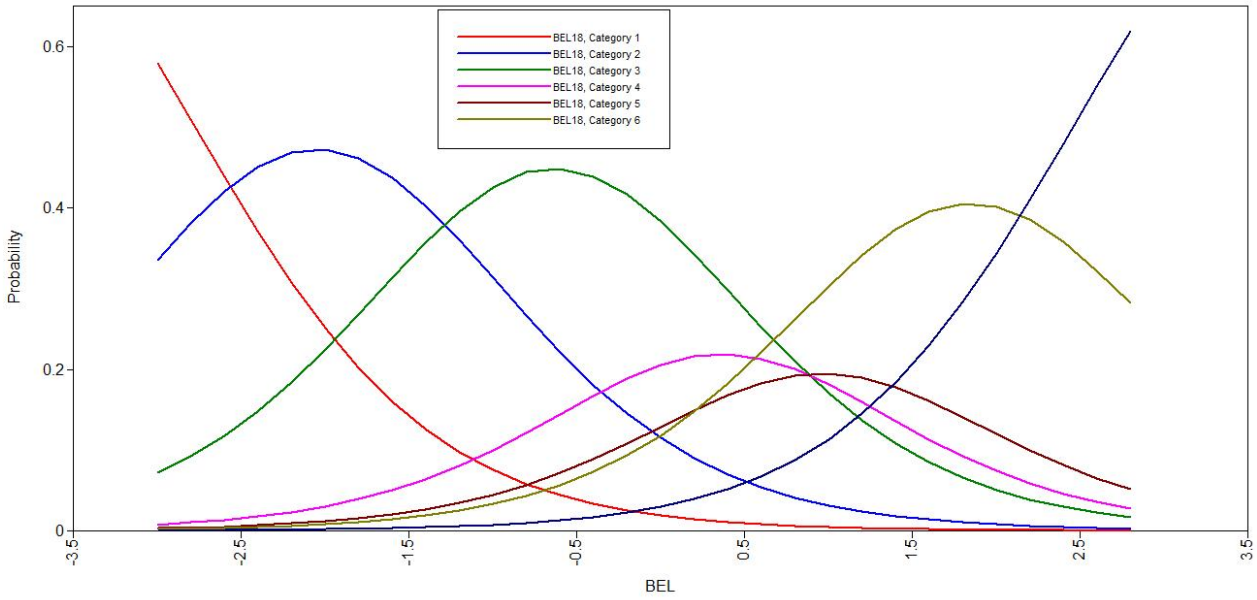


Belief

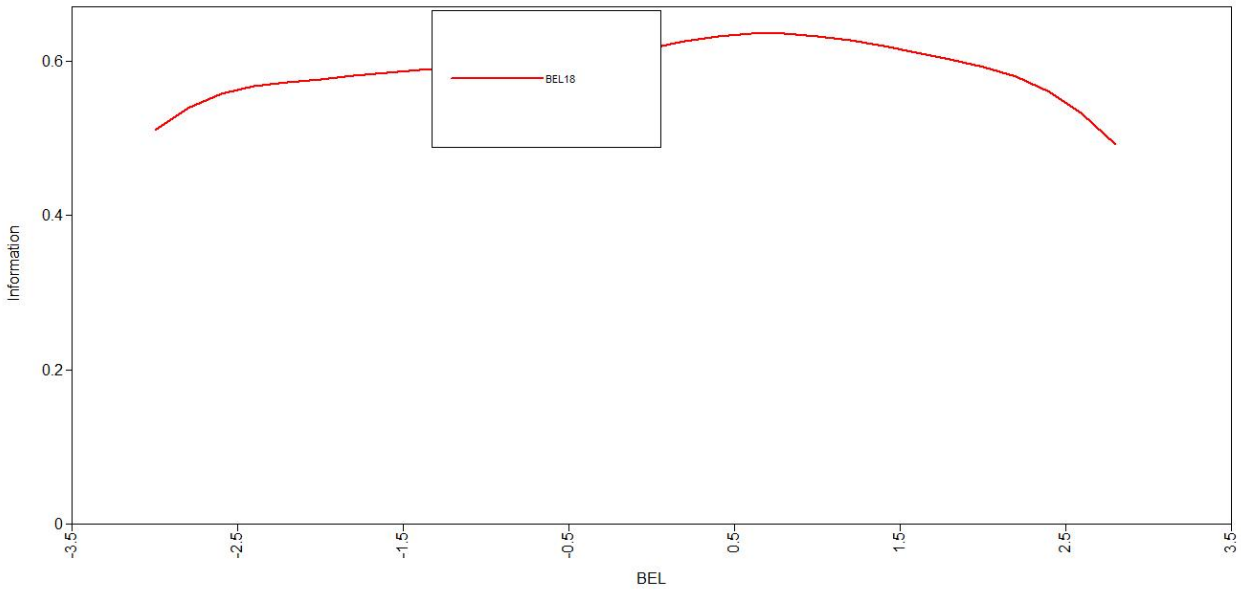


Belief

Figure 28. ICC and IIC graphs for Just Leader Item 35



Belief



Belief

Figure 29. Test Information Curve for Empathy Factor

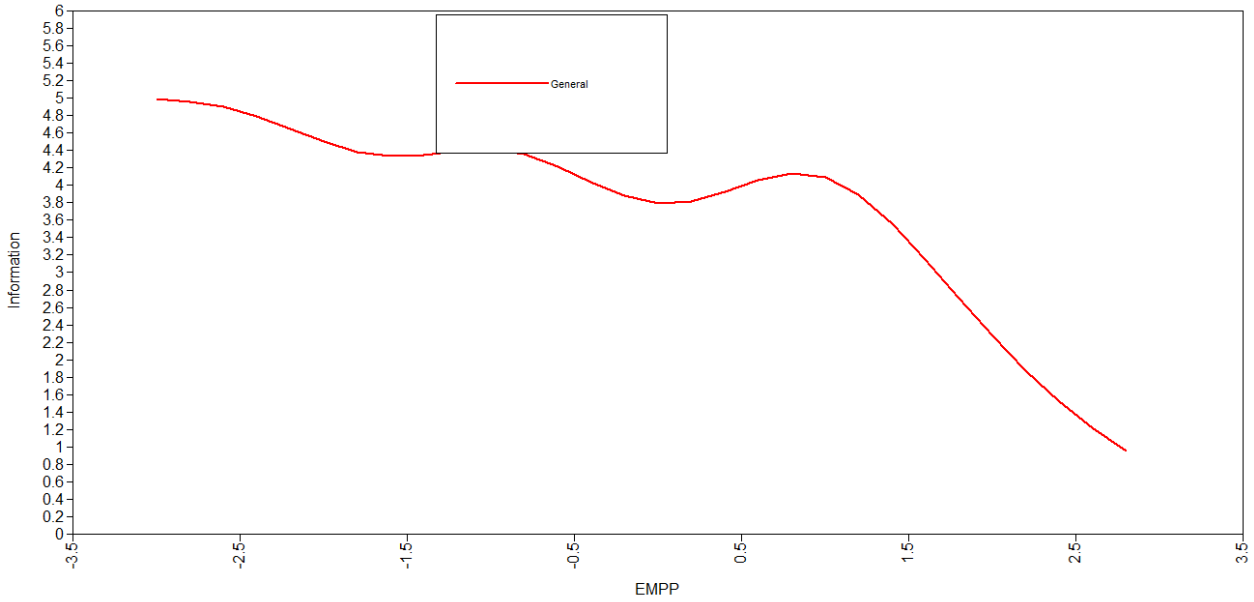


Figure 30. Test Information Curve for Non-Empathy Factor

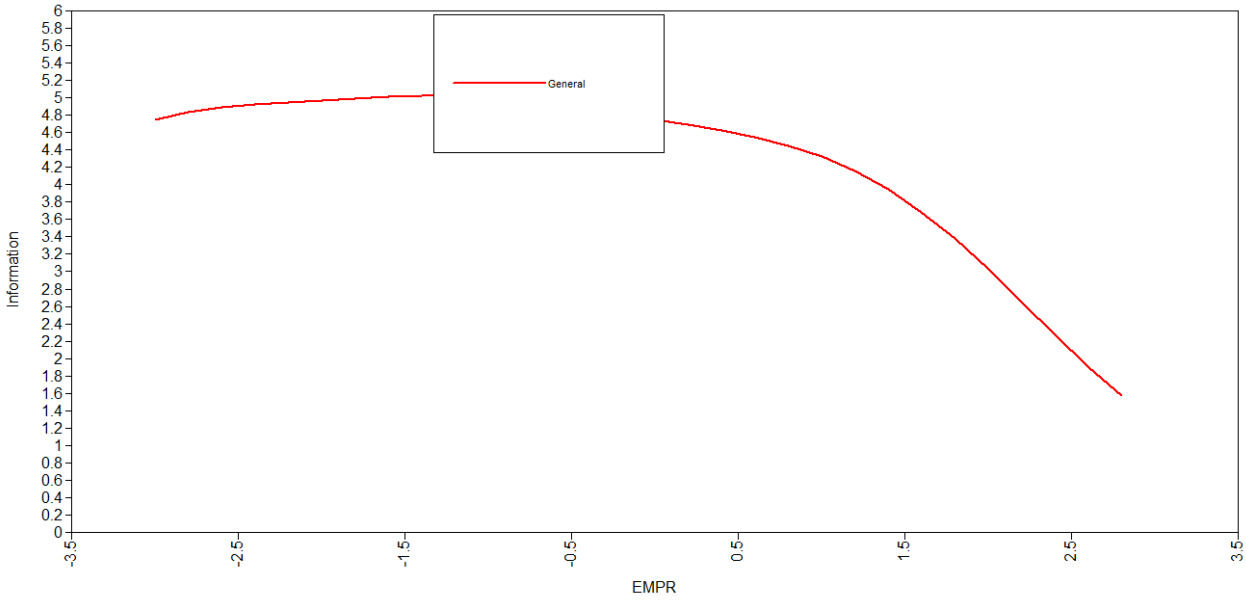


Figure 31. Test Information Curve for Moral Belief Factor

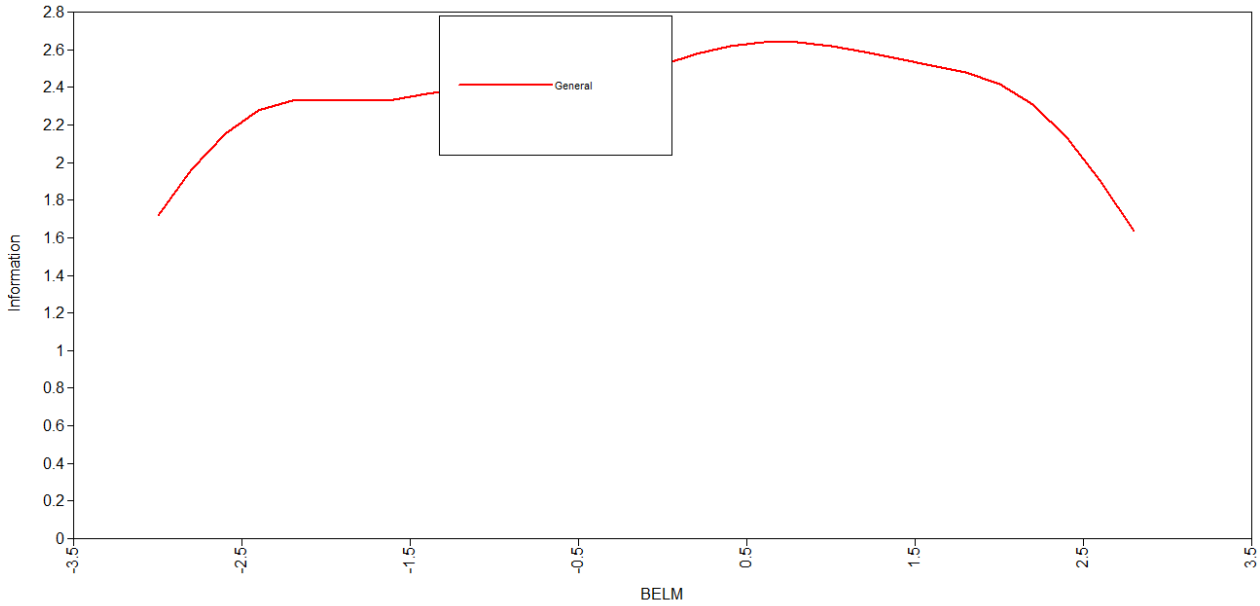
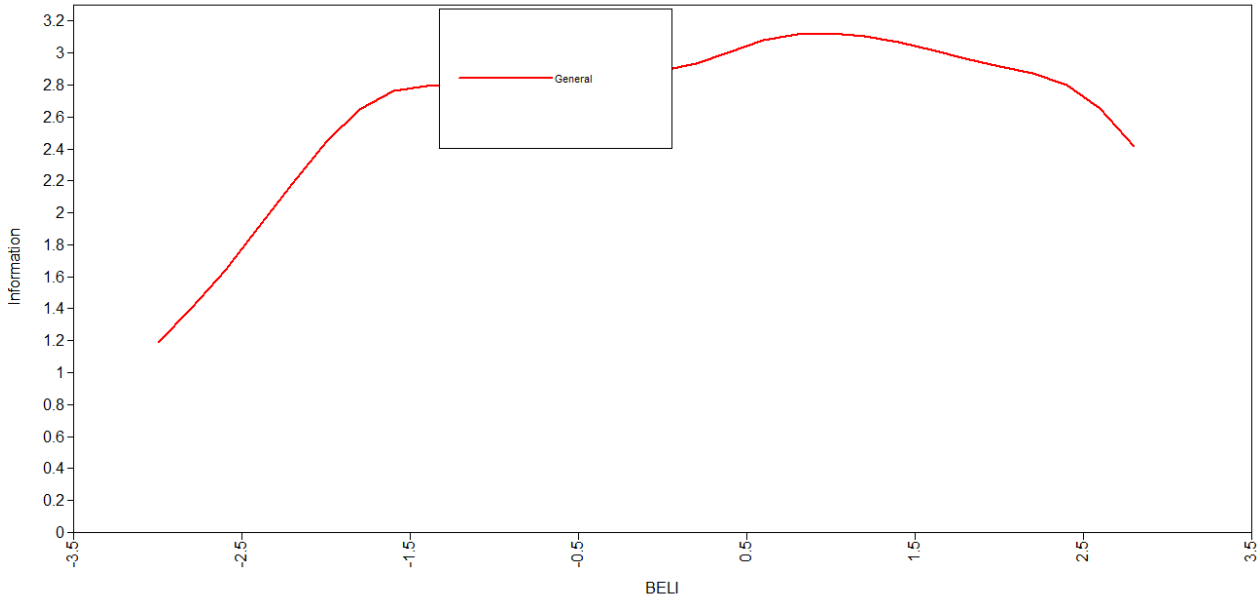


Figure 32. Test Information Curve for Non-Entity Belief Factor



Appendix A

Fourteen Item Measure of Empathy (Interpersonal Reactivity Index) from Davis, 1994

Items 1-7 measure empathetic concern and items 8-14 measure perspective taking. Items marked with an * are Reverse coded.

1. I am often quite touched by things that I see happen.
2. I would describe myself as a pretty soft-hearted person.
3. Sometimes I don't feel very sorry for other people when they are having problems.*
4. When I see someone being treated unfairly, I sometimes don't feel very much pity for them.*
5. When I see someone being taken advantage of, I feel kind of protective toward them.
6. I often have tender, concerned feelings for people less fortunate than me.
7. Other people's misfortunes do not usually disturb me a great deal.*
8. I believe that there are two sides to every question and I try to look at them both.
9. When I am upset at someone, I usually try to "put myself in his shoes" for a while.
10. I try to look at everybody's side of a disagreement before I make a decision.
11. I sometimes find it difficult to see things from the "other guy's" point of view.*
12. Before criticizing somebody, I try to imagine how I would feel if I were in their place.
13. If I'm sure I'm right about something, I don't waste much time listening to other people's arguments.*
14. I sometimes try to understand my friends better by imagining how things look from their perspective.

Sixteen Item Measure of Emotional Intelligence (Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS)) from Wong & Law, 2002

Items 1-4 measure Self Emotional Appraisal (SEA), items 5-8 measure Others' Emotional Appraisal (OEA), items 9-12 measure Use of Emotion (UOE) and items 13-16 measure Regulation of Emotion (ROE). There are no reverse scored items.

1. I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time.
2. I have a good understanding of my own emotions.
3. I really understand what I feel.
4. I always know whether or not I am happy.
5. I always know my friends' emotions from their behavior.
6. I am a good observer of others' emotions.
7. I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others.
8. I have a good understanding of the emotions of people around me.
9. I always set goals for myself and then try my best to achieve them.
10. I always tell myself I am a competent person.
11. I am a self-motivated person.
12. I would always encourage myself to try my best.
13. I am able to control my temper and handle difficulties rationally.
14. I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions.
15. I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry.
16. I have good control of my own emotions.

Eight Item General Measure of Implicit Theory from Levy et al., 1998

Items 1-4 measure entity beliefs when unchanged. Items 5-8 measure incremental beliefs. Items 1-4 are intended to be reversed scored such that they also measure incremental beliefs. For the purposes of this paper, these two factors were kept separate but items 1-4 were reversed for analysis, indicating a non-empathy factor.

1. People can do things differently, but the important parts of who they are can't really be changed.
2. The kind of person someone is, is something very basic about them and can't be changed very much.
3. As much as I hate to admit it, you can't teach an old dog new tricks. People can't really change their deepest attributes.
4. Everyone is a certain type of person, and there is not much that can be done to really change that.
5. No matter what kind of person someone is, they can always change very much.
6. People can change even their most basic qualities.
7. People can substantially change the kind of person they are.
8. Everyone, no matter who they are, can significantly change their basic characteristics.

Adapted Twenty Item Measure of Moral Ideology (Ethics Position Questionnaire) from Forsyth, 1980

Items 1-10 measure idealism and Items 11-20 measure relativism. There are no reverse scored items.

1. A person should make certain that their actions never intentionally harm another even to a small degree.
2. Risks to another should never be tolerated, regardless of how small the risk might be.
3. Potential harm to another is always wrong, regardless of the potential benefits. .
4. One should never emotionally or physically harm another person.
5. One should never behave in any way that might threaten the dignity and welfare of another individual.
6. If an action could harm someone innocent, then it should not be done.
7. Deciding whether or not do something by considering the positive consequences versus the negative consequences is immoral.
8. The self-esteem and well-being of people should be the most important concern of any society.
9. It is never necessary to sacrifice the happiness of others.
10. Moral actions are those which closely resemble “perfect actions”.
11. There really isn’t a need for an ethical code of ethics.
12. What is right and wrong varies from one situation to another.
13. Moral standards should be individually determined; what one person considers to be moral may be judged to be immoral by another person.
14. Someone’s morals should not be considered “more right” than someone else’s.
15. There shouldn’t be a standard of morality because what is moral or immoral is up to the individual.
16. Moral standards are personal rules and shouldn’t be applied in making judgments of others.
17. Individuals should be allowed to formulate their own ethical standards.
18. Strict ethical beliefs can stand in the way of building better relationships.
19. Rules about lying should not exist; whether a lie is permissible or not totally depends upon the situation.
20. Whether a lie is moral or immoral depends upon the circumstances surrounding the action.

Twelve-Item Measure of Leader-Member Exchange (LMX-MDM) Liden & Maslyn, 1998

Items
Items 1-3 measure affect, items 4-6 measure loyalty, items 7-9 measure contribution and items 10-12 measure professional respect. There are no reverse scored items.

1. I like my supervisor very much as a person.
2. My supervisor is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend.
3. My supervisor is a lot of fun to work with.
4. My supervisor defends my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question.
5. My supervisor would come to my defense if I were “attacked” by others.
6. My supervisor would defend me to others in the organization if I made an honest mistake.
7. I do work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job description.
8. I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required to meet my supervisor’s work goals.
9. I do not mind working my hardest for my supervisor.
10. I am impressed with my supervisor’s knowledge of his/her job.
11. I respect my supervisor’s knowledge of and competence on the job.
12. I admire my supervisor’s professional skills.

Twenty Item Measure of Organizational Justice (Colquitt, 2001)

Procedural justice

The following items refer to the procedures regarding your most recent performance review. Indicate your agreement:

1. Have you been able to express your views and feelings during those procedures?
2. Have you had influence over the decisions made by those procedures?
3. Have those procedures been applied consistently?
4. Have those procedures been free of bias?
5. Have those procedures been based on accurate information?
6. Have you been able to appeal the decisions dictated by those procedures?
7. Have those procedures upheld ethical and moral standards?

1.

Distributive justice

The following items refer to the outcomes regarding your most recent performance review. Indicate your agreement:

1. Did the outcome reflect the effort you have put into your work?
2. Was the outcome appropriate for the work you have completed?
3. Does the outcome reflect what you have contributed to the organization?
4. Is the outcome justified, given your performance?

2.

Interpersonal justice

The following items refer to the authority figure who enacted the performance review. Indicate your agreement:

1. Has (he/she) treated you in a polite manner?
2. Has (he/she) treated you with dignity?
3. Has (he/she) treated you with respect?
4. Has (he/she) refrained from improper remarks or comments?

Informational justice

The following items refer to the authority figure who enacted the performance review. Indicate your agreement:

1. Has (he/she) been candid in (his/her) communications with you?
2. Has (he/she) explained the procedures thoroughly?
3. Were (his/her) explanations regarding the procedures reasonable?
4. Has (he/she) communicated details in a timely manner?
5. Has (he/she) seemed to tailor (his/her) communications to individuals' specific needs?

WHO IS THE FAIREST

Demographic Questionnaire

Please answer the following questions by marking one of the respective choices.

1. Which best describes you?

Male

Female

2. Please indicate your age in years (please report numbers only).

3. Please indicate the ethnicity that best describes you:

a- Asian (Origins in Far East, Asia, Japan, India, Philippines, Thailand, etc.)

b- African American/Black (Origins in Africa, Haiti, etc.)

c- Caucasian/White (Origins in Europe, North Africa, Middle East, etc)

d- Hispanic/Latino (Origins in Spanish Mexico, Puerto Rico, Cuba, Central/South America, etc)

e- multi-racial or other

4. Please indicate the industry in which you are primarily employed.

a- Restaurant/Accommodation/Hospitality

b- Retail/Wholesale

c- Sales/Marketing

d- Technical/Manufacturing/Engineering

e- Medical/Healthcare

f- Education/Government/Non-Profit

g- Telecommunications/Publishing/Information

h- Agriculture/Natural Resources

g- Financial/Legal

h- Transportation/Utilities

h- Consulting/Professional

i- Other: Please describe

j- not currently employed

5. Please indicate your organizational level:

a- Hourly

b- Independent contributor- entry level

c- Independent contributor- specialist

d- Supervisor - hourly employees

e- Supervisor- salaried employees

f- Director (manager of managers)

g- Senior Management

h- Executive

i- Other

6. Please indicate the length of time that you have been:

i. employed in your current organization Years____ Months____

ii. at your current organizational level Years____ Months____

iii. in your current role Years____ Months____

Leaders Only

11. Please indicate the number of direct reports you currently have:

Employee Only

11. Please indicate the length of time that you have reported to your current supervisor.

12. Please indicate the month and year of your most recent performance review:

13. Please indicate who conducted your most recent performance review:

a. Current Supervisor

b. Previous Supervisor

c. Other: Please explain

14. With regard to your specific performance review, please indicate the most representative category:

a- Exceptional Performer (Top 10%)

b- Above Average Performer (Within top 25% but below top 10%)

c- Solid/Strong Performer (Within top 50% but below top 25%)

d- Average Performer (Above bottom 25% but within bottom 50%)

e- Below Average Performer (Above bottom 10% but within bottom 25%)

f- Needs Improvement (Bottom 10%)

Appendix B

(From Patient & Skarlicki, 2010)

Scenario 1:
Imagine you are a manager in an organization that needs to lay off some of its employees. You need to tell one of your employees, Jim, that he is being laid off.

Sales in your organization have declined this year, following the loss of several large accounts to competitors. To offset declining revenues, management has decided to put a freeze on purchases of new equipment and to lay off 5% of the organization's non-managerial workforce. The layoffs will be made according to three criteria: (1) the performance of specific divisions, (2) employee seniority, and (3) employee performance evaluations. Layoffs will be effective on July 1. Laid-off employees will be offered 2 weeks of job search assistance through an external agency and a severance package of 2 months' pay.

Your division has been one of the hardest hit by both declining revenues and higher-than-anticipated costs. One problem is that as manager of your division, you hired several new people in anticipation of ongoing sales growth, which never materialized. As a result, you need to lay off 10% of the staff in your division (as compared to 5% for the company as a whole).

The first employee you have to lay off is Jim. Jim has been with the organization for 22 months, which makes him one of the more recent hires. Jim's performance is below average for the division, though it has improved. On his first semi-annual performance review, Jim was criticized for frequently being late for meetings and for preparing sloppy paperwork on several occasions. However, Jim's second performance review indicated improved punctuality and professionalism. In Jim's last review, he was commended for his good effort and reasonable performance.

You are aware that Jim's work performance may have suffered because he is also back at school part-time. Jim and his wife are expecting their first child in August and have recently put a down payment on a house. You also know that the job market for Jim's skill set is not very strong.

You agree that reducing costs—and headcount—in underperforming divisions is the only way to stay in business and get back on track. Unfortunately, because of Jim's low level of seniority and mixed performance reviews, he will be the first layoff in your department. There is less than a 50% chance that you will be able to rehire Jim in the future or that other opportunities will become available for him in the organization.

You need to communicate the bad news to Jim.

WHO IS THE FAIREST

Scenario 2:
Imagine you are a new manager of a project management team in an organization that is participating in annual performance reviews.

Your new team of 4 individual contributors had a tough year prior to your arrival. Many of the projects that the team spent the majority of the year were pulled from the organizational priority list and did not come to fruition, despite their efforts. Additionally, you have heard that the previous leader took somewhat of an apathetic approach to the development of each team member.

Performance appraisals have already been completed by the previous manager on a scale of 1 to 5 (1= poor performance, 2= needs improvement, 3= average performance, 4= above average performance, 5= exceptional performance). Your team was rated:
Sally= 1
George= 3
Rob= 4
Jennifer= 3

Although you have only been in role 2 weeks- you are required to deliver each team member's feedback as the previous manager has already moved on to a new role. The first employee, Sally is scheduled for her performance review tomorrow. Sally had a particularly hard year that did not result in much added value for the organization. The feedback that you received on her is as follows:

From her cross-functional partners- Sally has wavered in her dedication to team projects and stakeholder management. Some days she seems very "in-the moment" and others she seems quite apathetic our partnership.

From her clients- At first Sally seemed very helpful to our project team; however, as the direction changed with our project, Sally seemed to grow increasingly distant. We understand it is very frustrating to have a lot of hard work not come through to fruition because of the changes; but we really need a strong project manager.

From the previous manager- Sally has the potential to be a great asset to the organization, but she seemed to be disengaged from her work the majority of the time. I never really had the chance to talk to her about her performance or engagement.

Please prepare your written review for Sally on her performance.

Appendix C
Study Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Variables*	Analyses	Outcome
***Hypothesis 1, 1a, 1b*:** Leaders' empathetic concern was positively predictive of perceived interpersonal justice.	IV: Empathy DV: Interpersonal Justice	Regression	Supported; Partial support for sub-hypotheses
***Hypothesis 2, 2a, 2b*:** Leaders' empathetic concern was positively predictive of perceived informational justice.	IV: Empathy DV: Informational Justice	Regression	Supported; Partial support for sub-hypotheses
***Hypothesis 3, 3a-3d*:** Leaders' emotional intelligence was positively predictive of perceived interpersonal justice.	IV: Emotional Intelligence DV: Interpersonal Justice	Regression	Supported; Partial support for sub-hypotheses
***Hypothesis 4, 4a-4d*:** Leaders' emotional intelligence was positively predictive of perceived informational justice.	IV: Emotional Intelligence DV: Informational Justice	Regression	Supported; Partial support for sub-hypotheses
***Hypothesis 5*:** Leaders' incrementalism was positively predictive of perceived interpersonal justice.	IV: Implicit Person Theory DV: Interpersonal Justice	Regression	Unsupported
***Hypothesis 6*:** Leaders' incrementalism was positively predictive of perceived interpersonal justice.	IV: Implicit Person Theory DV: Informational Justice	Regression	Unsupported
***Hypothesis 7, 7a, 7b*:** Leaders' moral ideology was positively predictive of perceived interpersonal justice.	IV: Moral Ideology DV: Interpersonal Justice	Regression	Unsupported
***Hypothesis 8, 8a, 8b*:** Leaders' moral ideology was positively predictive of perceived informational justice.	IV: Moral Ideology DV: Interpersonal Justice	Regression	Unsupported
***Hypothesis 9*:** The four constructs of empathy, emotional intelligence, incrementalism and moral ideology were positively related to each of the other three constructs.	Empathy, Emotional Intelligence, Implicit Person Theory and Moral Ideology	Correlation	Supported
***Hypothesis 10a*:** Empathy demonstrated a stronger association with emotional intelligence than with moral ideology or incrementalism.	Empathy, Emotional Intelligence, Implicit Person Theory and Moral Ideology	Steiger's Z transformation	Supported
***Hypothesis 10b*:** Emotional intelligence demonstrated a stronger association with empathy than with moral ideology or incrementalism.	Empathy, Emotional Intelligence, Implicit Person Theory and Moral Ideology	Steiger's Z transformation	Supported
***Hypothesis 10c*:** Incrementalism demonstrated a stronger association with moral ideology than with empathy and emotional intelligence.	Empathy, Emotional Intelligence, Implicit Person Theory and Moral Ideology	Steiger's Z transformation	Unsupported
***Hypothesis 10d*:** Moral ideology demonstrated a stronger association with incrementalism than with empathy and emotional intelligence.	Empathy, Emotional Intelligence, Implicit Person Theory and Moral Ideology	Steiger's Z transformation	Unsupported
***Hypothesis 11*:** The Just Leader construct would be measured using two independent variables.	Just Leader Items (Initial list)	EFA	Mixed Support

***Hypothesis 12*:** The Just Leader construct would be measured using two independent variables.	Just Leader Items (Refined list)	CFA/ IRT	Supported
***Hypothesis 13*:** The Just Leader measure demonstrated a positive association with empathy, emotional intelligence, incrementalist beliefs, and moral ideology.	Just Leader, Empathy, Emotional Intelligence, Implicit Person Theory and Moral Ideology	Correlations	Supported
***Hypothesis 14*:** The Just Leader measure demonstrated higher associations with empathy, emotional intelligence, incrementalism and moral ideology than the big five personality traits (i.e., conscientiousness, openness, extroversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism).	Just Leader, Empathy, Emotional Intelligence, Implicit Person Theory and Moral Ideology, FFM	Correlations & Steiger's Z transformations	Supported
Hypothesis 15: The Just Leader measure predicted interpersonal and informational justice perceptions	IV: Just Leader DV: Interpersonal Justice, Informational Justice	Multi-level Modeling	Unsupported
Hypothesis 16: The Just Leader measure predicted interpersonal and informational justice perceptions over and above other independent measures.	IV: Just Leader, FFM DV: Interpersonal Justice, Informational Justice	Multi-level Modeling	Unsupported

Empathy (IRI, Davis, 1994); Emotional Intelligence (WLEIS, Wong & Law, 2002); Implicit Person Theory (Levy et al., 1998); Moral Ideology (Ethics Position Questionnaire, Forsyth, 1980); Interpersonal and Informational Justice (Organizational Justice, Colquitt, 2001)