

APPRAISAL TENDENCY FRAMEWORK: EMOTIONS AND PERCEPTIONS OF
SOCIAL INJUSTICE

by

Sarah Tucker

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Committee Chair:

Dr. Alexander T. Jackson

Thesis Committee:

Dr. Judith Van Hein, Committee Member

Dr. Patrick McCarthy, Critical Reader

To Tucky, Bubbles, Buddy, and Gail. Always.

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ABSTRACT

This thesis implemented the ideas based on the Appraisal-Tendency Framework. Specifically, it observed whether felt emotions, such as sadness or anger, in an educational setting, affected judgments made on whether a situation was just or unjust. Previous research indicated evidence of an impact on justice perceptions when differing emotions were felt, and blame was attributed either situationally or individually. Further evaluation with the efforts related to this study may help move related research forward. For example, findings of this research provided supporting evidence that the emotion of anger indirectly negatively affects fairness perceptions when mediated by individual blame. However, evidence was not found to support sadness negatively impacting fairness perceptions when mediated by situational blame, contrary to the findings of earlier researchers (Kausel et al., 2016). Overall, findings suggest that emotion influences judgments of fairness when mediated by blame, but further research is recommended, especially to overcome a few limitations of this study.

In addition, past and current researchers appear divided regarding the impact of gender differences on judgments and decision-making. Therefore, this study also presented several research questions related to the question: do gender differences impact perceptions of fairness? After evaluating gender as a moderator of the relationship between emotion, blame, and fairness perceptions, however, support for gender differences was not found. Follow up research is needed to further evaluate these findings.

In summary, this study helped provide greater generalizability to previous findings suggesting emotions impact judgments of social injustice in the workplace.

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Considering the injustices highlighted by the #metoo movement and Black Lives Matter protests, organizations face pressure to change their policies and routines (Murad, 2020; Zheng, 2020). For example, Zheng (2020) urges managers to reevaluate their practices and attempts to provide tips on how to address racism at work. Zheng (2020) claims that downplaying racism can negatively impact the organization and offers tips, such as providing support to employees and acknowledging racism, to improve justice in the workplace. Murad (2020) discusses sexual harassment in the workplace and points out the trend towards increasing claims of harassment to the EEOC over the last few years. Injustices are occurring in the workplace, warranting an interest in researching organizational justice.

Fairness in organizations is an important topic and a growing concern, as perceived organizational injustices have the potential for impacting the organization, the consumer, and the employee negatively (Yean & Yusof, 2016). Current issues demonstrate the importance of developing a better understanding of perceptions of organizational decision-making and justice, as the impact on employee and organizational well-being is evident (Yean & Yusof, 2016). Specifically, perceived injustices can result in negative employee attitudes, workplace deviance, ineffective performance and production, and increased turnover (Yean & Yusof, 2016; Greenberg, 1990). To prevent these negative outcomes, it is necessary to understand the antecedents of organizational justice perceptions (Colquitt et al., 2001).

Perceptions of justice have been studied broadly in human resource and industrial-organizational psychology fields over the last several years (Bakhshi et al.,

2009). Findings suggest organizational decisions and workplace situations often impact the way in which employees perceive justice (Crawshaw et al., 2013). In one sector of organizational psychology, research has focused on understanding how employee emotions and justice perceptions impact decisions and judgments in the workplace.

Previous researchers, such as Kausel et al. (2016), have found that emotions and attributions of blame impact employee perceptions of justice. Their findings are particularly important, as blame is identified as a mediator of the relationship between emotion and justice, and the emotions of sadness and anger are found to influence perceptions of justice uniquely (Kausel et al., 2016). For further evaluation, I intend to replicate and extend Kausel et al.'s (2016) study in an educational setting, in hopes of providing generalizability to their findings. Specifically, I will explore the influence of sadness and anger on perceptions of social injustice, mediated by blame. Additionally, other researchers have found mixed results surrounding whether gender impacts perceptions of justice (e.g., Matlin, 2008; Hyde, 2014). Therefore, I plan to assess the relationship between gender differences and perceptions of justice with the aim of alleviating some confusion that exists in gender research. I explore existing research related to emotion, blame, organizational justice, and gender before presenting informed hypotheses and research questions.

Evaluating influencing variables of justice perceptions may provide employers with a better understanding of the emotions and cognitions underlying employee judgments and behavior. In turn, these findings may emphasize the importance of organizational justice and may help employers to make fairer decisions.

Literature Review

Organizational Justice

Over years of research, justice has been conceptualized in many unique ways (Colquitt et al., 2001). Therefore, defining justice as related to organizational and human resource research can be challenging. In broad terms, organizational justice is defined as the degree of fairness in decision-making, especially when comparing one's circumstances or treatment to that of others (Colquitt et al., 2001; Folger & Cropanzano, 2001). To state this differently, organizational justice represents perceiving one's treatment as right or wrong or one's outcomes as positive or negative (Colquitt et al., 2001; Folger & Cropanzano, 2001; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). While justice has been loosely conceptualized as perceptions of fairness, most researchers have further defined justice based on the different forms justice can have, such as justice based on how one is treated versus justice based on how decisions are made (Bakhshi et al., 2009; Colquitt et al., 2001).

Types of Organizational Justice

Justice has been defined based on the different forms it can have (Bakhshi et al., 2009). For example, a review of justice research suggested that distributive justice and procedural justice were the two overarching forms of organizational justice studied (Colquitt et al., 2001). Later in justice research, interactional justice was identified as a third meaningful form of justice research (Bakhshi et al., 2009). In current research, the forms of justice are most often assessed and defined as the following: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009; Bakhshi et al., 2009).

Distributive Justice. Perceptions of distributive justice are based on whether one perceives their own rewards (or punishments) as fair in comparison to others (Bakhshi et al., 2009). More specifically, fairness is based on whether one's ratio of outcomes to inputs is fair in comparison to the ratio of outcomes to inputs of their peers (Folger & Konoysky, 1989). In more general terms, distributive justice perceptions relate to perceptions of whether outcomes were allocated fairly (Folger & Konoysky, 1989). Outcomes, in this sense, may refer to things such as pay, promotion, recognition, better benefits, or rewards (Bakhshi et al., 2009). Inputs may refer to things such as time, resources, or effort (Bakhshi et al., 2009). For example, Hurst et al. (2017) assessed volunteer perceptions of distributive justice as a function of time donated to volunteering (input) and the resources or training received (output) as a result. This was compared to volunteer intentions to quit. They found that volunteers who perceived greater distributive justice had lower intentions to quit.

Adam's (1965) equity theory emphasizes the need for inputs and outputs to be perceived as equal for one to perceive fairness. According to his equity theory, when a balance of inputs and outputs is perceived, people perceive the workplace as fair, and high motivation and positive outcomes are the result (Adams, 1965). Chory-Assad (2002) evaluated the impact of perceived distributive and procedural fairness on college student motivation to learn and satisfaction for learning in a course. Supporting Adam's (1965) claim, Chory-Assad (2002) found that perceived distributive justice positively related to student motivation to learn and satisfaction with learning. However, it is also important to note that when both procedural and distributive justice perceptions of students were

evaluated, procedural justice had greater predictive power for motivation to learn and satisfaction with the course (Chory-Assad, 2002).

Procedural Justice. While distributive justice represents whether the outcome of a decision (i.e., allocation of rewards or resources) is considered fair, procedural justice focuses on whether the process of reaching the decision was fair (Cropanzano & Folger, 1991). Specifically, these perceptions focus on whether the decision-making process was free of bias, was used for employees consistently, was based on accurate information, was ethical, and was comprehensive in considering other opinions (Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Aquino (1995), for example, discusses perceptions of procedural justice as the perceived fairness of procedures and policies when using, conducting, or offering compensation and benefits systems, performance evaluations, promotion opportunities, resources, and training. As previously mentioned, Chory-Assad (2002) found that procedural justice perceptions of college students effectively predicted their motivation to learn and satisfaction with learning in an instructor led college course. Similarly, Kang (2007) argued that procedural justice perceptions positively impacted employee motivation in training programs, which could provide businesses with a better understanding of how to achieve training buy-in, giving them a possible competitive edge against competing businesses.

Interactional Justice. According to Colquitt's et al. (2001) review of the history of organizational justice, interactional justice is the newest type of justice studied. Identified as its own justice type in 1986, Bies and Moag defined perceptions of interactional justice as perceptions of interpersonal treatment during the application of a procedure. Bies and Moag (1986) further explained that interactional justice can be

further delineated into two subtypes. Interpersonal justice, for example, is a type of interactional justice reflecting one's degree of respectful treatment by others (Bies & Moag, 1986). In other words, interpersonal justice focuses on whether people perceive that they are treated with politeness and respect. The second type of interactional justice is informational justice and reflects the degree of information sharing and explanation of procedures and processes (Bies & Moag, 1986). In other words, informational justice addresses whether people perceive that procedures, such as decision-making processes, were fully explained and truthful before implementation.

Au and Leung (2016) argued that co-worker relationships have a significant impact on employee well-being and workplace outcomes. For this reason, they conducted a study to assess whether and how interpersonal and informational justice impact workplace outcomes (Au & Leung, 2016). They found that each type of interactional justice led to slightly different effects: informational justice predicted employee trust in another co-worker's view, while interpersonal justice predicted employee satisfaction with another co-worker (Au & Leung, 2016). Their findings provide support for Bies & Moag's (1986) division of interactional justice (Au & Leung, 2016). Another study found that separating interactional justice into interpersonal and informational justice proved useful in making predictions of employee anxiety and emotional exhaustion (Fouquereau et al., 2020). While several studies have helped to distinguish the types of interactional justice (e.g., Aug & Leung, 2016; Fouquereau et al. 2020), some researchers argue for exploring interactional justice as a single form rather than through sub forms (i.e., interpersonal and informational justice) (Ambrose et al., 2013; Buengeler & Den Hartog, 2015).

Distributive, procedural, and interactional justice have been extensively researched and validated, though there has been some disagreement regarding the distinction between procedural and interactional justice (Bakhshi et al., 2009; Bies & Moag, 1986; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Cropanzano & Folger, 1991; Thibaut & Walker, 1975; Tyler & Bies, 1990). For example, Tyler and Bies (1990) argued that interactional justice did not appear distinct from procedural justice and that further research distinguishing the two was required. On the other hand, later studies, such as Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001), found that distributive, procedural, and interactional justice were distinct from one another and resulted in both similar and unique organizational outcomes.

Outcomes of Organizational Justice and Injustice

As briefly mentioned, organizational justice perceptions can lead to important individual and organizational outcomes (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009; Bakhshi et al., 2009). While research has found positive and negative outcomes that are common across all three forms of organizational justice, many outcomes are predicted by either distributive, procedural, or interactional justice perceptions (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). The way in which employees perceive workplace situations and their organization's decisions, either as fair or unfair, can have a major impact on their attitudes and performance (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009). Acknowledging the outcomes of perceived organizational justice is important as it reveals the possible consequences of organizational decisions or actions and employee perceptions (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).

Outcomes of Injustice. Perceptions of organizational injustice are often associated with negative workplace outcomes (Bakhshi et al., 2009). For example, perceiving injustices in the workplace is associated with employee theft, alienation, and increased turnover intentions (Bakhshi et al., 2009). Decreases in work performance and workplace attitudes can result from perceived procedural injustice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Perceived injustice is also associated with employee involvement in deviant workplace behaviors, such as stealing property from the workplace, saying hurtful things to coworkers, and showing up late to work (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009; Bennett & Robinson, 2000). Similarly, Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) found that counterproductive work behaviors related most strongly, and negatively, with perceived procedural injustice when compared to other forms of justice. However, the researchers found that conflict with others at work is related to both perceptions of distributive and procedural injustice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Skarlicki and Folger (1997) evaluated how workplace outcomes are impacted by the different forms of justice and found that engagement in organizational retaliation behaviors, such as working slower intentionally, wasting company resources, stealing supplies, and faking illness, could be uniquely predicted by each form of organizational justice. Greenberg (1990) argues that when an organization is perceived as providing unfair treatment, it is likely to function less effectively. In other words, perceived unfairness can have massive negative impacts on the organization.

Outcomes of Justice. Conversely, perceptions of justice within the workplace have been associated with positive organizational outcomes, such as improved job performance, greater job satisfaction, organizational commitment, increased citizenship

behaviors, and trust (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009; Bakhshi et al., 2009). For example, when examining the relationship between supervisor fairness and employee reactions, Choi (2008) found that supervisor fairness moderated the relationship between fairness perceptions of the situation presented and responses to the supervisor. When perceived as fair, employees reported greater trust and organizational citizenship behaviors towards their supervisor and greater commitment towards the company (Choi, 2008). Those who viewed the organization as fair were also more likely to give supervisors positive evaluations (Bakhshi et al., 2009). Perceived justice and fair treatment are integral to the effective functioning of an organization (Greenberg, 1990).

Cohen-Charash & Spector (2001) found that perceptions of procedural justice related positively to improved job performance, perceived distributive justice related positively to engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors, and all three forms of justice were related positively to outcomes of satisfaction, trust, and organizational commitment. Organizational citizenship behaviors, such as altruism and sportsmanship, are positive outcomes related to all three forms of organizational justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Additionally, other studies found that perceived distributive justice related positively to satisfaction with pay raises and overall job satisfaction (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009; Bakhshi et al., 2009). Bakhshi et al (2009) found that perceptions of procedural justice negatively related to turnover intentions, and positively related to organizational commitment. In other words, research has highlighted the notion that perceptions of procedural justice, declarative justice, and interactional justice have unique effects and lead to a number of positive workplace outcomes (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009; Bakhshi et al., 2009).

At an individual level, studies have also shown that perceived justice can have positive attitudinal outcomes (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Lind & Tyler, 1988). For example, self-esteem can be maintained or improved as a result of perceived procedural justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). In other words, when one experiences fair and respectful treatment, it can contribute to feeling that one is valued and important to their group, enhancing self-esteem (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).

Fairness Theory

As previously outlined, justice has been defined broadly as the degree of fairness in decision-making, and more specifically by procedural, distributive, and interactional justice (Bakhshi et al., 2009; Colquitt et al., 2001; Folger & Cropanzano, 2001). To expand upon the topic of justice, researchers have developed justice theories (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001). Theories of justice have focused on topics such as cognitions leading to justice perceptions, as well as the consequences of injustice (Greenberg, 2002). However, Folger and Cropanzano (2001) found that theories failed to address the role of accountability or blame in social justice. Thus, fairness theory was presented as a justice theory to address this gap, explaining that associations of accountability or blame often precede social injustice (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001; Greenberg, 2002).

Fairness theory aims to identify the conditions under which blame is attributed and situations are considered just or unjust (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001). Specifically, Folger and Cropanzano (2001) present three main elements that contribute to perceptions of fairness. The elements include states of well-being, conduct, and principles (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001). The central argument of fairness theory is that these three

elements impact one's attribution of blame and ultimately their perceptions of fairness (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001).

Elements of the Theory. As discussed, fairness theory establishes blame as the central player in perceptions of justice (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001). Folger and Cropanzano (2001) created a model of blame, or accountability, with three elements that clearly outlines the ideas behind the justice theory and the conditions of accountability. Each of the elements (states of well-being, conduct, and principles) influence the other and are meant to represent a process of reasoning one experiences when assessing accountability (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001; Gilliland et al., 2001). To explain further, the elements represent (1) how one's actions or treatment impacts another's state, (2) whether another's state can be associated with one's actions or treatment towards them, and (3) whether one's conduct or actions violate moral or ethical principles (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001).

To expand, Folger and Cropanzano's (2001) model of fairness theory represents the manner in which accountability for an injustice is perceived. For accountability of an injustice to be perceived, first, a victim must experience injury or threats to their well-being (Cropanzano et al., 2004; Folger & Cropanzano, 2001; Nicklin et al., 2011). Next, the resulting injury or threats must be perceived as the result of another's conduct (Cropanzano et al., 2004; Folger & Cropanzano, 2001; Nicklin et al., 2011). Third, the injury and conduct must result in a violation of morality (Cropanzano et al., 2004; Folger & Cropanzano, 2001; Nicklin et al., 2011). Folger et al. (2005) further studied the connection between morality and perceptions of fairness and supported the claim that violations of morality can substantially impact perceived justice. When these three

conditions are met, it is likely that accountability will be attributed to a perpetrator and an injustice will be perceived (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001; Folger et al., 2005; Nicklin et al., 2011).

Accountability. The three elements presented in fairness theory establish a process of accountability (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001). A big idea underlying fairness theory is that a situation is more likely to be considered socially unjust or unfair if one associates blame for some mistreatment on an individual (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001). Viewing someone as accountable, in simple terms, means to associate blame or responsibility for an outcome with an individual (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001). Without an entity or individual to blame, it is argued that perceptions of a social injustice (or unfairness) are less likely (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001). For example, Nicklin et al. (2011) evaluated accountability as a condition of perceived injustice and found that the conditions of accountability impacted perceptions of injustice. In other words, fairness perceptions were mediated by whether one received no raise (harm), one attributed the raise related decisions to their manager, and one perceived that not receiving a raise violated moral standards (Nicklin et al., 2011). Nicklin's et al. (2011) findings provide support for the claim that blaming someone's actions (i.e., the managers in the previous example) as the cause of an unfairness (i.e., not receiving a raise in the previous example), therefore placing accountability with said person, is more likely to result in perceived injustice (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001).

Folger and Cropanzano (2001) argue that, when assessing the three elements in determining accountability, one cognitively considers whether an alternative situation or decision would have been better, whether the negative outcome(s) could have been

avoided, and whether harm or moral violations should have ever occurred (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001; Nicklin et al., 2011). If one cognitively considers that no alternative decision would have been better, the outcomes could not have been avoided, and the harm was unavoidable, the likelihood of asserting blame is lowered (Cropanzano et al., 2004; Folger & Cropanzano, 2001; Gilliland et al., 2001; Nicklin et al., 2011). For example, McColl-Kennedy and Sparks (2003) evaluated these cognitive claims underlying fairness theory and found that customers judging service failures attributed less blame and experienced less negative emotion when they cognitively determined that service providers could not and should not have taken any further action to prevent service failures. Those who felt the service providers put in adequate effort experienced less negative emotion (McColl-Kennedy & Sparks, 2003). Additionally, Cropanzano et al. (2004) argued in support of Folger and Cropanzano's model of accountability and highlighted the process of corporate accountability for issues of social injustice. Specifically, Cropanzano et al. (2004) argued that when assessing accountability for corporate actions, organizations and leadership are evaluated based on the conditions of accountability. Further, the organizations and leadership are evaluated based on whether other actions would have been better than those taken, whether the organization could have avoided the harm done, and whether the harm that occurred should have occurred (Cropanzano et al., 2004).

Fairness theory provides a possible explanation for why actions and outcomes are perceived as fair or unfair (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001). Based on the ideas of fairness theory, when one fails to attribute accountability to another person for an event, and one cannot imagine a situation in which there are more favorable outcomes based on

explanations given for the event, perceived fairness is more likely (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001). Gilliland et al. (2001) conducted a study to test these ideas and found that events accompanied with explanations for why decisions were made along with explanations of intentions improved perceptions of fairness.

The three elements of accountability are established as antecedents of justice perceptions, which have been supported by a number of studies (Cropanzano et al., 2004; Folger & Cropanzano, 2001; Gilliland, 2001; Nicklin et al., 2011). In summary, fairness theory presents one way of understanding perceptions of fairness and blame and helps to establish reasoning behind one's reactions or decisions (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001; Gilliland et al., 2001).

Other theories have presented different ways of understanding and predicting judgments and perceptions. For example, the Appraisal Tendency Framework argues that judgments and perceptions are predicted and explained by emotions (Loewenstein & Lerner, 2003). In Folger's fairness theory emotions are never addressed. Instead, Folger and Cropanzano (2001) focus primarily on perceptions of accountability impacting perceptions of justice. However, emotions can and do impact our perceptions, so it is necessary to investigate how emotions may impact perceptions of justice, something researchers have recently began exploring (Kausel et al., 2016; Loewenstein & Lerner, 2003). Further investigating how both accountability and emotions, such as sadness and anger, impact perceptions of fairness could help develop theories of justice and decision-making. Kausel et al.'s (2016) study supports these claims, finding that emotions predict perceptions of justice, especially when mediated by accountability. However, these findings are new and need further evaluation through repeated study.

Antecedents of Justice Perceptions

Perceptions of justice lead to several positive and negative organizational outcomes (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009). However, to better understand justice, it is also worth evaluating the predictors of justice perceptions (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Folger & Cropanzano, 2001; Goldberg et al., 1999; Holtz & Harold, 2009). As previously mentioned, Fairness theory established accountability as a predictor of justice perceptions (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001). Other studies of justice have highlighted several additional antecedents as well, though some may need further evaluation (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Crawshaw et al., 2013).

Crawshaw et al. (2013) claimed that judgments are often predicted by situational factors and biases and that attitudinal variables, personality variables, social influences, organizational structure, and cognitive moral development all act as antecedents to justice judgments. Researchers have examined many of these areas to evaluate justice antecedents (Crawshaw et al., 2013).

Attitudinal Influences. Certain attitudinal variables have been found to predict perceptions of justice (Crawshaw et al., 2013). For example, one's attitudes towards their organization can impact their perceptions of justice related to actions and decisions of the organization and management (Crawshaw et al., 2013). Crawshaw et al. (2013) explained that one's identification with their organization, their trust in supervisors and their commitment to the company all impact perceptions of justice and how they may react to unfavorable workplace decisions. Holtz and Harold (2009) also found trust to be a strong predictor of overall justice, claiming that greater trust leads to more lenient views of unfairness. Similarly, Choi (2008) found that employees are more likely to perceive both

supervisors and the organization as fair when they have positive perceptions and attitudes towards their supervisor. One's treatment, such as being shown respect, is a predictor of justice; this was especially true regarding organizational protocol and decisions (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Additionally, being given the opportunity to have a say in decision-making is also thought to positively impact perceptions of justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).

Personality Influences. Though personality variables related to justice perceptions is a venue that needs further research, researchers have argued that those high in negative affectivity are more likely to perceive events as unfair due to their tendency to focus on the negatives and experience long-term negative emotional states (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Irving & Coleman, 1999; Shi et al., 2009; Wanberg et al., 1999). Comparatively, those high in positive affectivity have been associated with positive perceptions of all three forms of justice (Crawshaw et al., 2013).

Shi et al.'s (2009) study of employees working in manufacturing, electronics, and insurance industries evaluated the relationship of the Big Five personality types with organizational justice and found that agreeableness and neuroticism predicted organizational justice. Specifically, their findings demonstrated that agreeableness positively predicted distributive, procedural, informational, and interpersonal justice (Shi et al., 2009). In contrast, their findings suggested that neuroticism negatively correlated with procedural and informational justice (Shi et al., 2009). No correlations were found for extraversion, conscientiousness, or openness to experience with organizational justice (Shi et al., 2009).

Additionally, others have argued that locus of control influences perceptions of justice (Crawshaw et al., 2013; Lilly & Virick, 2006). Specifically, Spector (1988) described an internal and external work locus of control to illustrate either the likelihood of one attributing work outcome as within individual control or as outside of individual control, respectively. Lilly and Virick (2006) conducted a study examining the relationship of internal and external work locus of control with perceived organizational justice. They found that higher internal work locus of control positively influences perceptions of procedural and interactional justice (Lilly & Virick, 2006). These findings linking different personality variables to justice perceptions are important because it may provide organizations with a better understanding of why people react differently to workplace decisions and processes (Lilly & Virick, 2006).

Social Influences. Crawshaw et al. (2013) also highlighted the influence of social pressures and norms on perceptions of justice. A review of antecedents of justice noted that many studies asserted perceptions may be affected in the workplace based on the norms shared by coworkers (Crawshaw et al., 2013). For example, according to findings in a study conducted by Li and Cropanzano (2009), norms of teammate treatment and relationships may impact perceptions of justice. Specifically, Li and Cropanzano (2009) suggested that the way in which an employee perceives justice may be a result of justice and treatment related norms shared by their teammates. Additionally, Li and Cropanzano (2009) suggested one's perceptions of justice may be socially influenced by the organizational climate. Besides norms and climate, perceptions of justice may also be influenced by the culture of the organization, or, on a broader level, the country individuals reside in (Crawshaw et al., 2013; Shao et al., 2013). For example, Shao et

al.'s (2013) study indicated that social influences, such as culture, impact perceptions of justice. Specifically, these researchers found a relationship between justice perceptions and cultural variables, such as individualism, femininity, minimal power distance, and uncertainty avoidance. In other words, these cultural variables positively affected justice perceptions (Shao et al., 2013).

Organizational Structure Influences. Another predictor of justice includes organizational structure (Crawshaw et al., 2013). For example, Schminke et al. (2000) evaluated the effect of organizational structure on fairness perceptions. They found that, when assessing aspects of structure, such as centralization, formalization, and size, procedural, and interactional justice perceptions were uniquely impacted (Schminke et al., 2000). Schminke et al. (2000) found that decentralization, referring to greater employee participation in decisions and reduced authority hierarchy, positively influenced procedural justice perceptions. They also found that greater organizational size was negatively correlated with perceived interactional and procedural justice (Schminke et al., 2000).

Researchers have also assessed the impact that an organization's structural factors, such as organizational size, centralization, and formalization had on organizational fairness perceptions. Mixed results have emerged regarding the impact of formalization on justice perceptions (e.g., Schminke et al, 2000; Schminke et al., 2002). Further, Schminke et al. (2002) found that both centralization and formalization impacted perceptions of distributive, interactional, and procedural justice and that size predicted interactional justice perceptions. Specifically, greater formalization and decentralization resulted in higher levels of all three forms of justice perceptions (Schminke et al., 2002).

Thus, one important antecedent of justice perceptions is organizational structure (Crawshaw et al., 2013).

Cognitive Moral Development Influences. Crawshaw et al. (2013) also highlighted cognitive moral development as a predictor for justice perceptions. For example, research on moral development has identified individuals who have a high moral identity as more likely to react to unfair outcomes or events in ways that align with their moral self-view, leading them to associate blame to offenders and seek retribution for a negative or “morally wrong”, implying increased perceptions of injustice (Crawshaw et al., 2013; Shao et al., 2013). Another study indicated that higher moral maturity may lead one to be more sensitive to injustice and to be more likely to abide by rules related to procedural justice (Myry & Helkama, 2002). Additionally, a 2010 study by Rupp and Bell identified those with higher moral self-regulation as better able to perceive injustices, but as much less likely to seek punishment or revenge for injustices when compared to those with lower moral self-regulation.

Gender Influences. Another antecedent to justice perceptions includes gender differences (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). For example, Leventhal and Lane (1970) found that justice rules differed between men and women, where men focused more on the fairness of reward allocation to themselves while women cared more about the fairness of reward allocation to group members. Similarly, Saad and Gill’s (2001) results in a later study provided support for gender differences in reward allocation. In their study, women and men were asked to choose a reward allocation option: either increase their own and a colleague’s salary by \$500 each (option A) or increase their own salary by \$600 and a colleague’s salary by \$800 (option B) (Saad & Gill, 2001). Findings

revealed that women more often chose option A, confirming beliefs that women show greater concern with allocation fairness and equivalency, while men more often chose option B, confirming beliefs that men aim to maximize gains (Bazerman, Loewenstein & White, 1992; Saad & Gill, 2001).

Emotional Influences. Studies have well-established emotional outcomes of organizational justice perceptions, while fewer have evaluated experienced emotions as predictors to justice (Bryne et al., 2003; Goldberg et al., 1999; Kausel et al., 2016). Goldberg et al. (1999), however, conducted a lab study assessing the impact of emotion on justice perceptions and found that participants experiencing negative emotion perceived greater injustice in response to a harmful outcome. In contrast, Byrne et al. (2003) presented findings that suggested positive emotions related to greater levels of perceived justice as defined by the procedures, exam scores, and interpersonal treatment administered by a college professor. Taking research on emotion as an antecedent of justice in a new direction, Kausel et al. (2016) found that organizational justice was influenced uniquely by the negative emotions of anger and sadness. Specifically, anger led to negative judgments of manager fairness (Kausel et al., 2016). Sadness led to negative judgments of manager fairness as well, but to a lesser degree (Kausel et al., 2016).

While explorations of the antecedents of organizational justice have been more than fruitful, research of both gender and emotion as antecedents warrants further study, especially in the wake of such social movements as the #metoo movement and the Black Lives Matter movement (Bryne et al., 2003; Crawshaw et al., 2013; Kausel et al., 2016; Murad, 2020; Saad & Gill, 2001; Schulz et al., 2019; Zheng, 2020). Past studies have

related gender differences to perceptions of justice, especially in regard to fairness of reward allocation, but the interaction of gender with other variables related to justice has not been adequately explored (Bazerman et al., 1992; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Saad & Gill, 2001; Schulz et al., 2019). Additionally, while emotion as an antecedent of organizational justice has been assessed in some capacity, new findings such as Kausel et al.'s (2016) suggest that perceptions of justice are impacted beyond just positive and negative emotion. Their findings suggest that perceptions of justice are impacted uniquely by emotions of similar valences, i.e., positive or negative emotion, and dissimilar appraisal patterns. Therefore, I will examine the impact of emotion and gender on justice perceptions with the aim of extending the findings of previous research.

Emotion and gender are discussed in detail in the following sections.

Emotion

Many researchers have begun exploring the influence of emotions on judgment and decision making (Lerner et al., 2015; Loewenstein & Lerner, 2003; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). Before analyzing the recent findings on how emotion affects judgment and decision making, however, it is important to understand what emotions are (Lerner et al., 2015). This, though, has been an issue of debate in emotion research, as researchers have defined it in a variety of ways (Lerner et al., 2015). Emotion responses have been described as temporary reactions, lasting moods, physiological and hormonal responses, the expression of feelings, and evaluations leading to positive or negative associations (Lerner et al., 2015). A common theme in judgment theories of emotion, however, is that emotion is often defined and evaluated as tied to cognitive processing (Lerner et al., 2015). This will be analyzed in greater depth through the lens of Lerner and Keltner's

(2000) judgment and decision-making theory of emotion, coined the Appraisal-Tendency Framework (ATF).

Appraisal Tendency Framework

Recent organizational psychology research has focused on understanding how employee emotions and perceptions impact decisions and judgments in the workplace (Lerner et al., 2007). The ATF is a theory often employed in this context and is meant to further our understanding of how emotions impact, and precede, judgment and decision making (Lerner & Keltner, 2000).

The ATF has five key principles or arguments. First, emotion is differentiated into either integral or incidental emotion (Han et al., 2007). Second, emotional influence goes beyond valence, or positive and negative mood, to impact judgment (Han et al., 2007). Instead, the ATF relates emotional influences to cognitive dimensions and appraisal patterns (Han et al., 2007). Third, emotions are thought to be motivating and connected to cognitive appraisal patterns that impact judgments and decisions (Han et al., 2007). These appraisal patterns are referred to as appraisal tendencies. Fourth, emotional carryover is predicted to only impact judgments and decisions that are related to or match the appraisal dimensions of the emotion (Han et al., 2007). In other words, emotions linked to specific appraisal patterns will only influence judgments that are associated with those patterns of appraisal (Han et al., 2007). Fifth, when incidental emotional experience weakens, the emotional influence on judgments and decisions will also weaken (Han et al., 2007). Given the purpose of this study, principles one, two, and three are discussed in more detail below. Readers interested in a fuller discussion all five principles should refer to Han et al. (2007).

Principle 1: Emotions. The ATF categorizes emotion as either incidental or integral (Lerner et al., 2007; Lerner & Keltner, 2000). Emotions that are considered integral are those that are experienced and are related to the judgment or decision one is making (Lerner & Keltner, 2000). In other words, there is a direct connection between the emotions experienced and the judgment or decision one is making (Loewenstein & Lerner, 2003). For example, deciding which profession to pursue is a decision that often elicits emotions, such as anxiety, in many. Anxiety, in this scenario, is an integral emotion that is directly related to deciding a profession. Incidental emotions, conversely, are those that are subjectively experienced and influence decisions but are not related to the actual decision being made (Lerner, Han & Keltner, 2007; Lerner & Keltner, 2000). Further, incidental emotions are emotions that people feel that have nothing to do with a judgment or decision but ultimately end up impacting the judgment or decision (Lerner & Keltner, 2000). Often, incidental emotions influence a judgment or decision without one's awareness of their impact (Lerner, Han & Keltner, 2007). For example, one may experience feelings of anger after receiving a speeding ticket on their way to work. This anger may carryover to impact their emotional experience and decisions while at work, though the anger originated from an unassociated situation. In this scenario, anger is an incidental emotion. When studying emotions and their relationship to decision making, Lerner et al. (2007) suggests focusing on manipulating incidental emotion as there is a greater ability to assess causation.

The implication of incidental emotions is that triggered emotions can carry over to impact later cognitions or decisions beyond those that initially triggered the emotion – even though experienced emotions are unrelated to these later cognitions or decisions

(Lerner & Keltner, 2000; Lerner et al., 2007). For example, Keltner et al. (1993) randomly elicited either sadness or anger in college students and then asked the students to make decisions about an unrelated situation. Keltner et al. (1993) found that decisions were impacted differently based on which emotion was elicited, but that both sadness and anger emotional carryover influenced later decisions in an unrelated situation. However, studies suggest that if one is made aware of their own emotions and related cognitions, less emotional carryover results (Lerner et al., 2007). In other words, the impact emotions would have on appraisal of a situation would be lessened (Lerner et al., 2007). Emotional carryover is more likely to occur when the situation that resulted in the elicited emotion remains unresolved (Lerner et al., 2007). This emotional carryover provides some explanation for how emotions impact cognitive processes; in other words, an emotion can lead to an implicit cognition that later impacts how the individual appraises events, whether related to the event that first triggered the initial emotion or not (Lerner & Keltner, 2000; Lerner et al., 2007).

Principle 2: Cognitive Dimensions. In addition to distinguishing between incidental and integral emotions, the ATF provides insight into how emotion is linked to cognitive processes (Lerner & Keltner, 2000). Specifically, the ATF links emotions to specific underlying patterns of appraisal and cognitions (Lerner & Keltner, 2000). These cognitive dimensions include control, certainty, pleasantness, attentional activity, anticipated effort, and responsibility (Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). For example, according to Lerner and Tiedens (2006), anger is linked to cognitive appraisals of high certainty and responsibility of an external source, while sadness is linked to uncertainty and internal responsibility.

According to Smith and Ellsworth (1985), emotions such as fear, anger, shame, frustration, guilt, disgust, sadness, and contempt are related to cognitive appraisals of high anticipated effort and unpleasantness (Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). This implies that one experiencing these emotions may be more likely to act on them and to perceive a situation negatively. People who experience anger are more certain in their decisions and are more likely to blame negative events on others (Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). Those experiencing fear, however, are less certain in their decisions, are more likely to blame themselves, and will likely feel that the situation is outside of their control (Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). In contrast with anger, those experiencing sadness were more often highly uncertain in their decisions (Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). While fear, sadness, and anger have similar negative valences, each of these emotions is linked to different cognitive appraisal patterns (Lerner & Keltner, 2000; Lerner, Vladesolo, & Kassam, 2015; Smith and Ellsworth, 1985).

These cognitive dimensions have been evaluated by researchers, lending support for the linkages between specific cognitive dimensions and specific emotions (Keltner et al., 1993; Lerner & Keltner, 2000; Lerner et al., 2007; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). For example, Keltner et al. (1993) assessed differences in the appraisal patterns linked to sadness and anger. When eliciting feelings of either sadness or anger in undergraduate participants and then asking them to make judgments about an ambiguous event, those in the sadness group blamed the event on the situation, while those in the anger group blamed an individual for the event (Keltner et al., 1993). Kausel et al.'s (2016) findings supported those of Keltner et al.'s (1993). Specifically, Kausel et al. (2016) found that incidental sadness and anger linked to different appraisal patterns, and ultimately,

differences in judgments of justice. Those in the anger group judged a situation as more socially unjust than those in the sadness group (Kausel et al., 2016).

Principle 3: Appraisal Tendencies. The ATF argues that emotions carry over to impact later cognitions and that specific emotions impact specific cognitive appraisals (Han et al., 2007). The ATF expands on these arguments by defining appraisal tendencies (Han et al., 2007). Appraisal tendencies result from emotions that give rise to patterns of cognitions that are lasting; these patterns impact appraisals or cognitions of later events that have some link to the original emotion and cognition relationship (Han et al., 2007). In other words, the original emotion and cognitive appraisal lead to future appraisal tendencies. The ATF explains the relationship between emotion and cognitive dimensions further by theorizing appraisal tendency processes that relate to specific motivations (Lerner & Keltner, 2000). According to Lerner and Keltner (2000), emotions are motivating in that they impact cognitions, which then directs decisions and judgments. In other words, the central idea of appraisal tendencies is that an emotion can have impact well beyond an immediate cognitive appraisal, and emotion can lead to a pattern of related appraisals for future unrelated decisions (Han et al., 2007; Lerner & Keltner, 2000; Lerner et al., 2007).

Lerner and Keltner (2000) have given suggestions for assessing appraisal tendencies and how they may differ across emotions. They argued that assessing the impact of emotions with similar or differing valences (positive or negative) and cognitive dimensions on judgments and decisions can provide additional insight into appraisal tendencies (Lerner & Keltner, 2000; Lerner et al., 2007). For example, Kausel et al. (2016) assessed the impact of anger and sadness (both of a negative valence) on

judgments of fairness and found that participants experiencing anger made different judgments than those experiencing sadness. Specifically, Kausel et al. (2016) found that those who experienced anger had a greater tendency to place blame on an individual for an injustice than those experiencing sadness.

Anger vs. Sadness. As previously mentioned, some researchers have compared the appraisal patterns and judgments of anger and sadness, both of similar negative valence. Keltner et al. (1993) further evaluated the impact of emotions on social judgments by evaluating participants' judgments of a single ambiguous situation after experiencing either sadness or anger. Findings of the study suggested that incidental sadness and anger resulted in opposing perceptions. Specifically, participants experiencing sadness attributed a situational factor as the reason for a negative outcome, while participants experiencing anger placed blame on an individual for the same negative outcome (Keltner et al., 1993). Similarly, Bodenhausen et al. (1994) found that sadness and anger resulted in different cognitive appraisals and differences in judgments. They found that participants in the anger induction were more impulsive decision makers, while those experiencing sadness were less impulsive (Bodenhausen et al., 1994). Additionally, participants in the study experiencing anger relied on stereotypes when making decisions about the credibility of a communicator presenting a social policy, while those in the sadness condition relied less on stereotypes and paid closer attention to the information presented (Bodenhausen et al., 1994).

To summarize, researchers evaluating sadness and anger and their related cognitive appraisals have identified several differences in appraisal patterns between the two emotions (Bodenhausen et al., 1994; Kausel et al., 2016; Keltner et al., 1993).

Sadness, for example, is associated with appraising negative events or outcomes as due to situational factors and appraising decisions and events with uncertainty (Bodenhausen et al., 1994; Lerner & Tiedens, 2006; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). Conversely, anger is associated with attributing blame to a person for negative events or outcomes and appraising decisions and events with high certainty (Bodenhausen et al., 1994; Lerner & Tiedens, 2006; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). Eliciting sadness and anger, though of similar valence, can result in differences in judgments (Bodenhausen et al., 1994).

Emotion and Judgments of Fairness. The differences past studies have highlighted between the appraisal patterns of experienced sadness and anger are important because they show the potential for achieving a better understanding of how emotions and appraisal are related and can provide greater ability to understand and predict the judgments and decisions of others.

Recall that Folger and Cropanzano's (2001) fairness theory argues that without someone to blame for a situation or event, perceptions of social injustice may be less intense. Based on the findings cited above regarding the appraisal tendencies related to anger and sadness, I argue that individuals experiencing anger are more likely to judge events as unfair than those experiencing sadness (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001; Kausel et al., 2016). The underlying appraisal patterns related to anger include blaming another for a negative event (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001; Kausel et al., 2016). Additionally, I predict that the relationship between sad and angry emotions with perceptions of fairness will be mediated by situational and individual blame. Preliminary evidence for these predictions is offered by Kausel et al. (2016). They found that differences in perceptions of fairness were indeed influenced by the specific emotion (anger vs. sadness) and that

the emotion–fairness relationship was mediated by blame in the context of a business setting. The purpose of my study is to evaluate whether their findings transfer across workplace settings to educational settings. If my findings replicate Kausel et al.’s (2016), it will lend support for the generalizability and, therefore, validity of the relationship between emotion and perceptions of justice. I present the following hypotheses and models:

Hypothesis 1: Angry individuals will judge negative events as more unfair than sad individuals.

Hypothesis 2: The relationship between sadness and fairness perceptions will be mediated by situational blame.

Hypothesis 3: The relationship between anger and fairness perceptions will be mediated by individual blame.

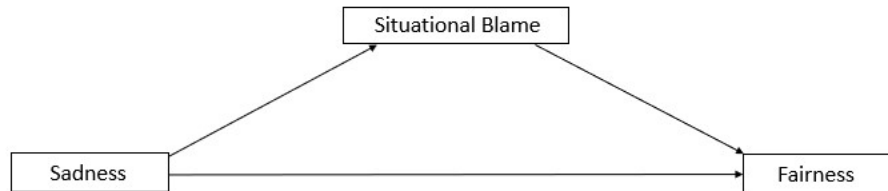
Figure 1
The Proposed Relationship of Anger and Fairness

Hypothesis 1

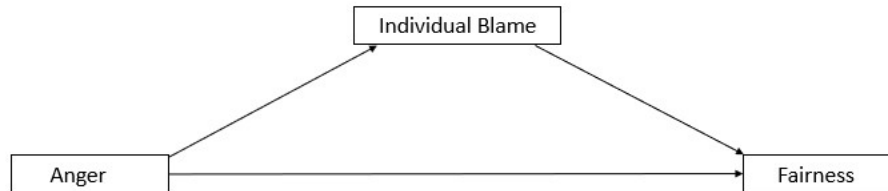


Figure 2
The Proposed Models of Hypotheses 2 & 3

Hypothesis 2



Hypothesis 3



The primary objective of this study is to apply the theory of the Appraisal Tendency Framework and evaluate the influence emotion (i.e., sadness and anger) has on perceptions of justice, when mediated by blame (i.e., situational and individual), by replicating the methods of Kausel et al.'s (2016) study. Specifically, after an emotion manipulation condition, a video depicting a social injustice will be shown to participants. After, perceptions of fairness and attributions of blame will be evaluated. In addition, newly presented research questions of the impact of gender on perceptions of fairness will be evaluated. While gender was not included as a variable to assess in Kausel et al.'s (2016) study, there is merit in evaluating its impact as an additional aspect in this study, as there is much debate regarding gender influences (Matlin, 2008).

Gender

A secondary purpose of this study is to expand previous findings by questioning the impact gender has in the appraisal tendency process. Gender refers to social and psychological characteristics expressed through one's actions, such as physical appearance, style, or way of speaking (Golden, 2004). These characteristics are often grouped as either masculine or feminine in nature (Matlin, 2008). Examples of stereotypical characteristics often associated with masculinity include being decisive, assertive, independent, competent, reactive, and fair, while characteristics often associated with femininity include being nurturing, gentle, emotional, empathetic, incompetent, and conversational (Baldner & Pierro, 2019; Franke et al., 1997; Matlin, 2008).

Historically, there has been much debate among researchers regarding the existence of gender differences (Hyde, 2014; Matlin, 2008). Specifically, when considering the differences in decision-making and moral judgment that may exist between men and women, researchers often take one of two stances (Hyde, 2014; Matlin, 2008). One school of thought regarding gender differences in decision-making and judgments supports a difference perspective, while another argues in support of a similarity perspective (Hyde, 2014; Matlin, 2008). Conflicting research findings and arguments covering this topic lead to several research questions.

Differences vs. Similarity Perspective

Differences. Many researchers supportive of the difference perspective insist that differences exist in emotional regulation, blame attribution, and justice perceptions between men and women (Baldner & Pierro, 2019; Laufer & Gillespie, 2004; Wan &

Chan, 2018). Additionally, some findings suggest that differences exist in how men and women are judged as leaders (Baldner & Pierro, 2019). Evidence may suggest gender differences in emotional experiences, blame attribution, and justice judgments (Fischer & Manstead, 2000; Laufer & Gillespie, 2004; McClelland et al., 1976; Wan & Chan, 2018). For example, Brody and Hall (2008) found that differences existed between men and women's emotion regulation strategies. Specifically, self-reports and observations suggest that women are more likely to internalize emotions, leading to self-blame (Brody & Hall, 2008). Conversely, men are more likely to externalize emotions, such as anger, and attribute blame to others (Brody & Hall, 2008). Additionally, Fischer and Manstead (2000) found that women reported longer lasting, more intense emotional experiences compared to men. In another study, Laufer and Gillespie (2004) evaluated gender differences in attributions of blame and found that when there were perceived product harm crises, or product failure, from a company, women attributed more blame to the company for the failure than men did. McClelland et al. (1976) suggested that women showed greater empathic concern for others, while men showed more concern for the self.

In evaluations of differences in justice judgments, Caleo (2018) claimed that men cared more about equity, justice, and fairness, so would care more about award allocation than women. Additionally, Major and Adams (1983) identified women as more likely to value rewarding their coworkers, to reward based on equality, and to under reward themselves. They also found that men were more likely to value rewarding based on one's inputs. Sweeney and McFarlin (1997) identified distributive justice as more important to men and procedural justice as more important to women. Some researchers

also suggest there are differences in the way men and women are judged by others. In Baldner and Pierro's (2019) study, employees rated men in leadership as more effective than the women in leadership roles. Ratings revealed that employees viewed men in leadership as better decision-makers, as they are seen as being more effective, more assertive, more competent, more responsible, and fairer than their female counterparts (Baldner & Pierro, 2019). Conversely, women in leadership roles are often undervalued and rated as less effective than their performance indicates (Baldner & Pierro, 2019; Laufer & Gillespie, 2004; Matlin, 2008).

Similarities. Contrary to arguments of those in support of a difference's perspective, some researchers are of the belief that men and women possess similar emotional experiences, judgments of blame, judgments of justice, and judgments of effectiveness as leaders (Brody & Hall, 2008; Matlin, 2008; Skoe, 2002). For example, according to a review by Brody and Hall (2008), many researchers have found little evidence of differences between men and women in emotional experience. According to Matlin (2008), women and men only differ in care for others when self-reports are used. When empathy is assessed by other means, men and women are similar in levels of empathy (Matlin, 2008). Another study highlighted gender similarities in blame attribution. For example, Ohbuchi et al. (2004) found that after perceiving a norm violation that impacted strangers, men and women experienced similar attributions of blame. Jepsen and Rodwell (2012) evaluated gender differences in responses to perceptions of justice and, overall, did not find great variation in attitudinal responses to justice perceptions between men and women. In another study, Franke et al. (1997) found that women judged practices within the organization as more unethical than their male

counterparts did, but differences only existed among those new to the position; as work experience increased, differences between men and women decreased. According to Skoe (2002), when presented with moral dilemmas, both men and women judged care dilemmas as more important than justice dilemmas. Though women reported higher experiences of emotion (i.e., sympathy and anger) than men, they made similar judgments of moral dilemmas related to care and justice (Skoe, 2002).

Additionally, while some findings indicate that women in leadership roles are judged more harshly than men, other findings suggest something different. For example, when both men and women employees were asked to judge the practices of their leaders, women were not judged more harshly by a great degree. Instead, men were often more critical of men leaders, while women were often more critical of women leaders (Franke et al., 1997).

Overall, conflicting evidence suggests that questions remain regarding the existence of differences between men and women's attributions of blame, emotional experiences, and justice perceptions. Additionally, whether men and women in leadership roles are judged differently remains in question. Therefore, I present five research questions addressing these topics and provide figures for clarity.

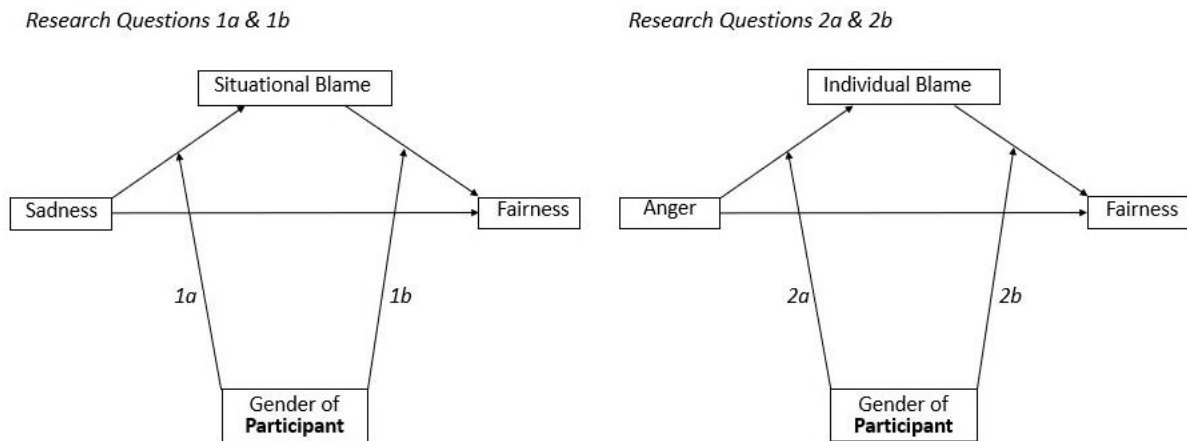
Research Question 1a: Will participant gender moderate the relationship between sadness and situational blame?

Research Question 1b: Will participant gender moderate the relationship between situational blame and perceived fairness?

Research Question 2a: Will participant gender moderate the relationship between anger and individual blame?

Research Question 2b: Will participant gender moderate the relationship between individual blame and perceived fairness?

Figure 3
The Proposed Models of Research Questions 1 & 2



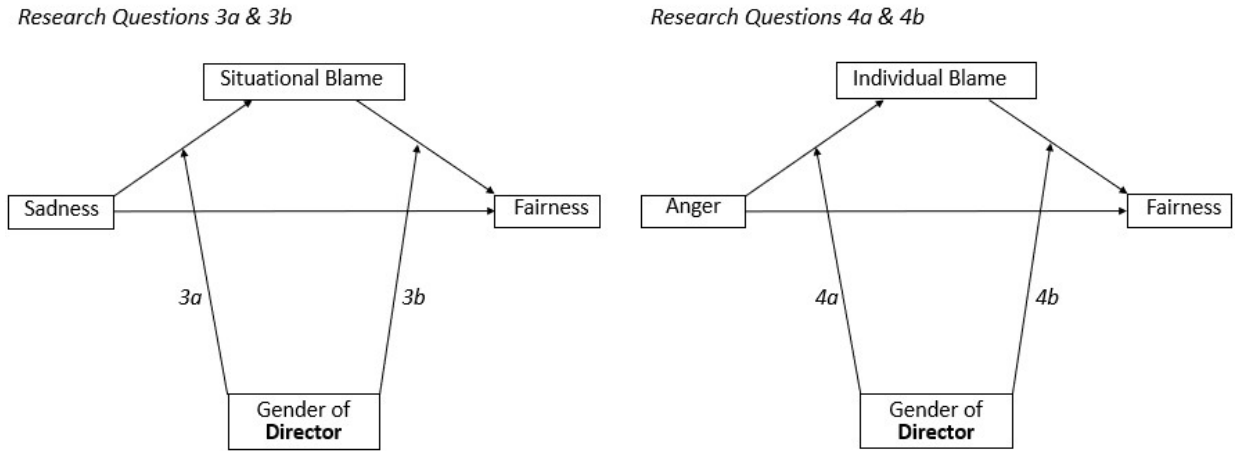
Research Question 3a: Will director gender moderate the relationship between sadness and situational blame?

Research Question 3b: Will director gender moderate the relationship between situational blame and perceived fairness?

Research Question 4a: Will director gender moderate the relationship between anger and individual blame?

Research Question 4b: Will director gender moderate the relationship between individual blame and perceived fairness?

Figure 4
The Proposed Models of Research Questions 3 & 4



Research Question 5a: Will there be a three-way interaction between participant gender, director gender, and the relationship between sadness and situational blame?

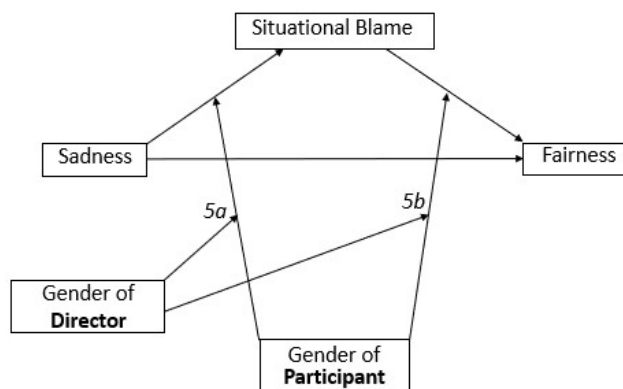
Research Question 5b: Will there be a three-way interaction between participant gender, director gender, and the relationship between situational blame and perceived fairness?

Research Question 6a: Will there be a three-way interaction between participant gender, director gender, and the relationship between anger and individual blame?

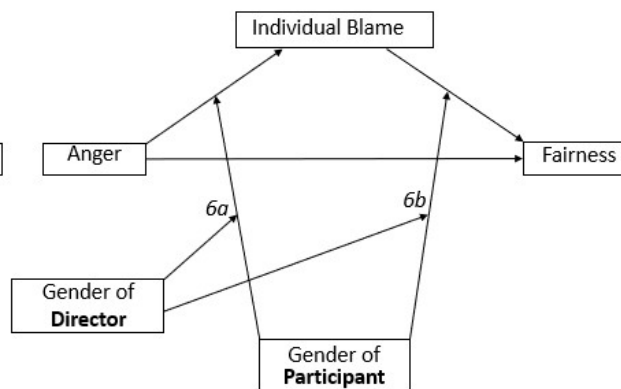
Research Question 6b: Will there be a three-way interaction between participant gender, director gender, and the relationship between individual blame and perceived fairness?

Figure 5
The Final Proposed Models

Research Question 5a & 5b



Research Question 6a & 6b



CHAPTER II: METHOD

Participants

A recommended sample size of 250 participants to detect an effect size of .95 was identified by conducting a priori power analysis using G*Power software. Participants were students recruited from a large, public, southeastern university. To recruit student participants, administration within the university's Provost office emailed a detailed description of the study with a link to the Qualtrics survey via a public service announcement to all currently enrolled students.

Prior to data cleaning, a sample of 244 participants was collected. Of those participants, 78 identified as female, 25 identified as male, 7 identified as non-binary, 3 identified as transgender, and 130 chose not to respond. However, following a data cleaning process, 102 participants were included in final analyses. Of the final sample included in analyses, 69 identified as female, 22 identified as male, 7 identified as non-binary, 3 identified as transgender, and 1 chose not to respond. The data of the excluded 142 participants was removed from analysis due to incomplete or missing data, incorrect responses on 3 of 4 knowledge check questions, or self-reports of insufficient responding. All who participated in either part one or part two of the study were eligible for inclusion in a raffle for a \$25 Amazon gift card. All who completed both part one and part two (i.e., 59% or 61 of 102 participants) of the study were eligible for inclusion in an additional raffle for a \$50 Amazon gift card. Following the completion of data collection, raffle winners were randomly selected via a random number generator. All participants were informed of their right to participate and their right to withdraw at any time prior to participation in the study. They were also informed of the general purpose of the study

(i.e., the purpose of the study was to evaluate differences in perceptions of social injustice between individuals experiencing differing emotional dispositions). No risks were anticipated beyond what might be experienced in one's daily life.

Procedure

Part One

Part one consisted of measures that provided information on individual differences and is beyond the scope of this study. The measures were included for exploratory purposes as part of a broader investigation and are not included in statistical analyses. Specifically, the measures in part one were included to supplement a future extension of the study, as this study is part of a larger set of replication studies. The following measures were included: the Trait Positive Affectivity and Negative Affectivity Schedule (Watson & Clark, 1994), the Equity Preference Questionnaire (Shore & Strauss, 2008), the Mini International Personality Item Pool-Five-Factor Model (Donnellan et al., 2006), a measure of trait morality (Colquitt et al., 2006), a measure of trait anger (Judge et al., 2006), a measure of trait interpersonal trust (Evans & Revelle, 2008), the Guilt and Shame Proneness Scale (Cohen et al., 2011), the Stereotype Content Model's dimensions of Warmth and Competency (Abele et al., 2016; Fiske, 2018), the Toronto Empathy Questionnaire (Spreng et al., 2009), and Rotter's measure of Internal-External Control (Andrisani & Nestel, 1976). The measures included in part one can be found in Appendix A.

Part Two

Part two included an emotion manipulation where participants were randomly assigned to either a sadness, anger, or neutral (i.e., control group) emotion condition.

Specifically, it replicated the procedures used in Kausel et al.'s (2016) study. All participants were eligible to sign up for part two of the study after the completion of the individual differences measure. Part two followed a separation of time in between the trait level measures in part one and the state level conditions and measures in part two to minimize the chances of any priming effects from occurring. The study was conducted using an online survey constructed using Qualtrics Survey Software.

As previously mentioned, the procedures and manipulations performed in Kausel et al.'s (2016) study of the relationship between emotion and perceptions of justice were replicated. However, the procedures differed from Kausel et al.'s (2016) by using a “director” video rather than a “manager” video in order to assess the generalizability of results from a workplace setting to an educational setting. It also differed by including an additional design feature: gender of actor in the director video.

Part two of the study began by having participants read and sign an informed consent page of the Qualtrics survey. Part two used a 3 (emotional manipulation) x 2 (gender of director) x 2 (gender of participant) design. Participants were first randomly assigned to an emotion condition. This placed participants in either the anger condition, the sadness condition, or the neutral-control condition.

Participants in the anger condition watched a video clip from the movie *My Bodyguard* (Gino & Schweitzer, 2008) and then were asked to write about a time they experienced anger in their own life. Participants in the sadness condition watched a video clip from the movie *The Champ* (Lerner et al., 2004) and were asked to write about a time they experienced sadness in their own life. Participants in the neutral condition watched a video clip from the movie *All the President's Men* (Hewig et al., 2005). The

neutral condition represented the control group. Next, all participants completed the state level Positive Affect and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS-X) as a check of the effectiveness of the emotion conditions (i.e., viewing either a sad, angry, or neutral video clip and completing either a sad, angry, or neutral writing prompt). Details of this measure are explained in greater detail later in this chapter.

Next, participants viewed a short video clip that showed either a male or female financial aid director signing student scholarship checks based on student scholarship applications. The male and female director videos were identical in behaviors, setting, length, and script. Participants were shown their assigned director video twice. In the director video, one student in the clip was under rewarded, while another was simultaneously over rewarded. More specifically, one student was incorrectly awarded a partial scholarship while the other was incorrectly awarded a full scholarship. However, it was not clear whether this under and over rewarding was an intentional act of the male or female director.

Following the viewing of the director video, participants were asked questions intended as an attention check. Next, participants were asked to rate the degree of blame they attributed to the director for the incorrect scholarship checks and completed measures of perceptions of fairness. Participants were debriefed, released from the study, and entered into a raffle for their participation.

Measures and Manipulations

Emotion Manipulation

Emotion Manipulation Conditions. In part two of the study, emotion eliciting video clips were used in the emotion conditions (sadness vs. anger vs. neutral).

Specifically, the video clips were intended to induce either sadness or anger. The third neutral video clip was intended to act as a control to assess whether the sadness and anger conditions were effective. Those randomly assigned to the sadness condition viewed a two minute and fifty-one second video clip from the movie *The Champ* in which a young boy watches and cries as his father dies (Gross & Levenson, 1995; Lerner, Small, & Loewenstein, 2004). Those randomly assigned to the anger condition viewed a four minute and six second video clip from the movie *My Bodyguard* in which a boy is beaten and bullied by another boy (Gino & Schweitzer, 2008; Gross & Levenson, 1995). Those randomly assigned to the neutral condition (i.e., control group) viewed a three minute and fifteen second video clip from the movie *All the President's Men*, in which two men are seen chatting in a court room (Hewig et al., 2005). Links to the video clips can be found in Appendix B.

Emotion Manipulation Reinforcer. The sadness and anger emotional manipulations were reinforced by having participants respond to a writing task that asked them to write about a time in their life when they experienced either sadness or anger. If previously assigned to the anger condition, they received an anger writing prompt; if previously assigned to the sadness condition, they received a sadness writing prompt (Kausel et al., 2016). This prompt was used to deepen the participant's emotional experience and was adapted from the anger and sadness prompts used by Kausel et al. (2016). Those in the control group were asked to respond to a writing task that asked them to write about an ordinary experience in their life that they do not associate with any strong emotion, such as taking a walk or cooking dinner (Siedlecka & Denson, 2019; St.

Jacques & Levine, 2007). A copy of the anger, sadness, and neutral writing prompts can be found in Appendix B.

State Positive Affect and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS-X). The state level PANAS-X (Kausel et al., 2016) were used to measure participant emotion with the aim of checking the effectiveness of the emotional manipulations. It was used, specifically, to assess participant's current positive ($\alpha = .85$ to $.90$) and negative affectivity ($\alpha = .85$ to $.90$) (Watson & Clark, 1994). It consisted of twenty-one feeling items on a rating scale of 1 (*do not feel at all*) to 9 (*feel stronger than I ever have*) (Watson & Clark, 1994). Participants were instructed to do the following: *please rate very carefully the degree to which you are currently experiencing each of the following feelings*. This measure can be found in Appendix C.

Perceptions of Fairness

Depiction of Injustice. As mentioned previously, a director video depicting a negative event (i.e., perceived social injustice) was included in part two of the study, following the emotion manipulation. The director video consisted of a financial aid director at a university awarding scholarship checks incorrectly to two students, simultaneously. One student received higher ratings based on their gpa, research experiences, applied experiences, involvement in extracurricular activities, and references, but was awarded only a partial scholarship rather than full. The student who received lower ratings was incorrectly awarded the full scholarship. However, it was not clear in the video if the director did this intentionally. This video was included as a potentially unfair scenario for participants to judge. Materials used in the video can be found in Appendix B.

To assess participant's attention during the videos, they were asked to complete a knowledge check immediately following completion. This consisted of four questions. An example question is as follows: *true or false, the student with a higher performance rating was the one who received the large scholarship check*. A full list of the video knowledge questions can be found in Appendix C.

Measures of Fairness Perceptions. An adaptation of Ambrose and Schminke's measure (2009, $\alpha = .86$) of fairness perceptions used in Kausel et al.'s (2016) study was included in part two of the study to determine participant's perceptions of fairness after viewing the director video. This measure was included to replicate the study of Kausel et al.'s (2016). The measure by Ambrose and Schminke (2009) included four parts: three items addressing director fairness, seven items addressing overall fairness, four items addressing event fairness and six items addressing the participant's behavioral reactions. The rating scale for parts one and two of the measure ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The rating scale for part three of the measure ranged from 1 (*to a small extent*) to 5 (*to a large extent*). The rating scale for part four of the measure ranged from 1 (*very unlikely*) to 5 (*very likely*) (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009; Choi, 2008). The following is an example of the items included in this measure: *I believe the director in the video probably always gives students a fair deal*. The full measure can be found in Appendix C.

Fairness perceptions were also evaluated using a measure of procedural justice ($\alpha = .90$) and distributive justice ($\alpha = .92$) created by Colquitt (2001). Colquitt's (2001) measure of procedural and distributive justice was included in this study as an additional measure of justice perceptions as it was identified as a more appropriate and reliable

measure for assessing both perceptions of the fairness of award allocation and the award process, than that previously used in Kausel et al.'s (2016) study. The measure of procedural justice included seven items, while the measure of distributive justice included four items. Items of both measures were on a rating scale that ranges from 1 (*to a small extent*) to 5 (*to a large extent*) (Colquitt, 2001). The items of both measures were adapted slightly to fit the scholarship award scenario. An example of an original procedural justice item is as follows: *have those procedures been applied consistently*. An example of the procedural justice item adapted is as follows: *have the scholarship award procedures been applied consistently*. An example of an original distributive justice item is as follows: *is the (outcome) justified, given the performance*. An example of the distributive justice item adapted is as follows: *are the scholarship check amounts justified, given Julia and Iris' performance*. The full measure of distributive and procedural justice can be found in Appendix C.

Blame

An adapted form of Hirschberger's (2006; $\alpha = .71$) measure was included to assess individual and situational blame. The measure was adapted and used in Kausel et al.'s (2016) study. A search for alternative, more reliable, measures of blame revealed an absence of options, as the current pool of blame related measures predominantly lie within the context of sexual assault, substance abuse, and other criminal acts (Gravelin, 2019). In other words, no other measures of blame that fit within the context of this study were identified, so the measure used by Kausel et al. (2016) was adapted for this study. Items in the measure were adapted to match an educational setting; participants rated the director based on the level of blame they attribute to the director for the scholarship

check outcome (Hirschberger, 2006). The adapted measure included eleven items (i.e., six items related to individual blame and five items related to situational blame) measuring degree of blame on a rating scale that ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) (Hirschberger, 2006; Kausel et al., 2016). The following is an item adapted for the context of the Kausel et al. (2016) study: *the manager in the video is to blame for the distribution of the bonuses*. The following is an example of an item adapted for the context of this study: *the director in the video is to blame for the distribution of the checks*. Items were analyzed following data collection to determine which adequately represent blame. The full measure can be found in Appendix C.

Gender

Gender of Participant. A demographic question was included asking participants to select the gender they most identify with (i.e., *man*, *woman*, *non-binary*, *other*, or *prefer not to respond*). Responses to this question allowed for comparison across gender identities in perceptions of fairness.

Gender of Director. A director gender condition was also included. Each participant was randomly assigned to watch one of the two director videos. One video included a male director; one included a female director. This provided the potential to analyze whether participant responses and judgments were impacted by the gender differences of the actors in the director videos (in addition to or in contrast to participants' own gender). Materials used in the director video can be found in Appendix A.

Quality Assurance Items

A debriefing section of the survey also included a set of questions aimed at assessing insufficient responding. Three questions were included: (1) *did you take the*

study seriously, (2) is there any reason not to use your data, (3) why should your data not be included in our analyses.

Additionally, demographic information collected included participant's gender, race, year at university, approximate grade point average, inquiries of their scholarship experiences, current employment status, and average hours worked each week. This information was collected to use either as a means of controlling for extraneous variables or as exploratory in nature. A detailed account of demographic measures can be found in Appendix C.

CHAPTER III: RESULTS

Because part one of the study consisted of exploratory measures that were not directly pertinent to the present study, but rather are more meaningful to the overall three-part replication series, analyses for part one were not reported. The following analyses refer to the results of part two of the study.

Two main steps were performed before the hypotheses and research questions were tested. First, the reliability scores of each of the scales used in part two of the study were reviewed. Adequate reliability scores were obtained for the state level PANAS-X scales, the adapted Hirschberger (2006) scale of blame, the adapted Ambrose and Schminke (2009) fairness scale (i.e., director, event, overall fairness, and behavioral reactions), and the adapted Colquitt (2001) scales of distributive and procedural justice. Excluding item number three in the adapted Hirschberger (2006) scale of blame resulted in a slightly better reliability coefficient ($\alpha = .76$ vs. $\alpha = .72$), so the analyses are reported excluding item number three (i.e., “*The inaccurate distribution of the checks was due to the Director’s dishonesty*”). All items were retained for all other scales, as dropping a single item for any of the above scales did not positively influence their overall reliability coefficients in any meaningful way. See Table 1 below for final reliability coefficients for each scale.

Table 1
Internal Consistency Reliability for Part 2 Scales

PANAS-X	r	Item Count
Negative Affectivity	.84	10
Positive Affectivity	.92	10
Fairness/Justice		
Fairness Scale	.82	20
Distributive Justice	.95	4
Procedural Justice	.72	7
Blame		
Individual/Director Blame	.76	5
Situational Blame	.73	5

Secondly, the effectiveness of the emotion manipulations was evaluated. The first step in assessing the effectiveness of the emotion manipulation included assessing participation in the emotion inducing writing prompts. Of the 102 students included in analyses, only 4 did not include a response to the writing prompt. In other words, 96% of participants completed the emotion inducing writing prompts. For a further breakdown of participation, 100% of those in the sadness condition completed the sadness prompt, 94% of those in the anger condition completed the anger prompt, and 95% of those in the neutral-control condition completed the neutral prompt. Overall, participation in the emotion inducing writing prompts was high.

Next, analyses of the emotion manipulation were adjusted due to a mistake made when administering the PANAS-X. Only items of the negative affectivity and positive affectivity scales were included rather than all PANAS-X items. This resulted in the exclusion of sadness and anger related items that were essential to analysis. To accommodate for the mistake, the effectiveness of the emotion manipulations was evaluated by comparing correlations across emotion conditions. For correlations by

emotion condition, see Table 2, 3, and 4. Descriptive statistics for each emotion condition are listed in Table 5.

As shown in Table 2, negative affectivity scores do not appear to be significantly correlated to fairness scores for participants in the neutral-control condition. However, as shown in Table 3 for the sadness condition, negative affectivity scores appear to be significantly negatively correlated with fairness scores. Additionally, negative affectivity scores significantly correlated with situational blame for those in the sadness condition. This suggests that the sadness manipulation was likely effective. As shown in Table 4 for the anger condition, while correlations of negative affectivity scores do not appear significant, they still differ from those in the sadness condition, suggesting that participants in each condition experienced differences in emotional manipulation.

Additionally, the effectiveness of the emotion manipulation was evaluated using a Welch ANOVA, comparing negative affectivity scores between emotion conditions. A Welch ANOVA was used to accommodate for unequal sample sizes across emotion conditions. The Welch ANOVA ($\alpha_{FW} = .05$) indicated negative affectivity scores differed by emotion condition ($F(2, 59.65) = 3.95, p = .025, \omega^2 = .05$). The Games-Howell procedure was used to evaluate pairwise comparisons and indicated that negative affectivity scores were significantly higher in the sadness condition than the neutral-control condition. In other words, findings provide evidence that the emotion manipulation was successful for those in the sadness condition. See Table 5 for descriptive statistics.

Table 2
Correlations for Neutral-Control Condition

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Negative Affect	-						
2. Positive Affect	.06	-					
3. Fairness	.24	.03	-				
4. Distributive Justice	.17	-.01	.65	-			
5. Procedural Justice	.15	.07	.49	.48	-		
6. Situational Blame	.27	-.28	.36	.11	-.05	-	
7. Director Blame	-.23	.20	-.44	-.30	-.16	-.68	-

Note. Bolded if $p < .05$.

Table 3
Correlations for Sad Condition

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Negative Affect	-						
2. Positive Affect	-.09	-					
3. Fairness	-.37	.18	-				
4. Distributive Justice	-.23	.10	.50	-			
5. Procedural Justice	-.32	.42	.33	.43	-		
6. Situational Blame	-.47	-.11	.31	-.16	.04	-	
7. Director Blame	.30	<.01	-.13	.27	<.01	-.66	-

Note. Bolded if $p < .05$.

Table 4
Correlations for Anger Condition

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Negative Affect	-						
2. Positive Affect	-.11	-					
3. Fairness	.13	-.01	-				
4. Distributive Justice	.18	-.09	.70	-			
5. Procedural Justice	-.30	.34	.33	.24	-		
6. Situational Blame	.16	-.17	.02	-.29	-.19	-	
7. Director Blame	-.05	.35	-.12	-.21	.22	-.48	-

Note. Bolded if $p < .05$.

Table 5
Descriptive Statistics for Emotion Conditions

	Neutral/Control			Sad			Anger		
	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Negative Affect	40	1.39	.44	29	1.70	.53	33	1.65	.63
Positive Affect	40	2.22	1.05	29	2.25	.98	33	2.39	.85
Fairness	40	2.71	.51	29	2.64	.35	33	2.48	.51
Distributive Justice	40	1.88	1.11	29	1.47	.89	32	1.78	1.11
Procedural Justice	40	2.19	.77	29	2.28	.63	32	2.14	.59
Situational Blame	40	2.57	.67	29	2.66	.81	33	2.29	.51
Director Blame	40	3.97	.65	29	3.97	.60	33	4.32	.54

Test of Hypotheses
Hypothesis 1: Anger

The first hypothesis stated that participants in the anger condition would judge the situation in which the director incorrectly awards scholarship checks as more unfair than those in the sad condition. A Welch ANOVA was used to accommodate for unequal sample sizes and therefore, unequal variances. An evaluation of hypothesis 1 using a Welch ANOVA ($\alpha_{FW} = .05$) indicated that fairness ratings ($F(2, 65.1) = 1.98, p = .147, \omega^2 = .02$), distributive justice ratings ($F(2, 63.98) = 1.62, p = 0.21, \omega^2 = .01$), and procedural justice ratings ($F(2, 64.32) = 0.39, p = 0.68, \omega^2 = -0.01$) did not differ by emotion condition, meaning judgments of fairness were not meaningfully different between participants in the sad and anger conditions. Hypothesis 1 was not supported. See Table 6 for descriptive statistics.

Table 6
Descriptive Statistics for Fairness Judgments by Emotion Condition

	Neutral/Control			Sad			Anger		
	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Fairness	40	2.71	.51	29	2.64	.35	33	2.48	.51
Distributive Justice	40	1.88	1.11	29	1.47	.89	32	1.78	1.11
Procedural Justice	40	2.19	.77	29	2.28	.63	32	2.14	.59

Hypotheses 2 & 3

To statistically evaluate hypotheses 2 and 3, the SPSS PROCESS application created by Hayes' (2012) was administered. Specifically, Model 4 of Hayes' (2012) PROCESS was used to assess blame as a mediator of emotion and fairness perceptions. Standard application of the SPSS PROCESS includes applying bootstrap methods (5,000 samples) to estimate indirect effects.

Sadness. Hypothesis 2 stated that the relationship between sadness and fairness perceptions would be mediated by situational blame. When testing the relationship between sadness and situational blame, sadness did not have a significant effect on blame ($\beta = .22$, $p = .126$). When testing the relationship between situational blame and fairness, blame had a significant effect on fairness ($\beta = .24$, $p = .017$). Overall, sadness did not have a significant indirect effect on fairness perceptions, when mediated by situational blame (*indirect effect* = .025, 95% CI [-.012, .069]). Additionally, there was no direct effect of sadness on fairness perceptions (*direct effect* = .008, 95% CI [-.127, .142]). Hypothesis 2 was not supported. Interestingly, significant results were found unrelated to Hypothesis 2. Contrary to prior research, anger was a predictor of situational blame ($\beta = -.31$, $p = .027$), and indirectly effected fairness perceptions when mediated by situational blame (*indirect effect* = -.035, 95% CI [-.073, -.006]). Additionally, anger did not have a direct effect on fairness perceptions (*direct effect* = -.098, 95% CI [-.230, .034]). However, previous researchers suggested that angry people are usually less likely to blame the situation and more likely to place blame on an individual for a negative situation. In prior research, situational blame led participants to view situations as fairer than when attributing individual blame (Keltner et al., 1993).

When reviewing the indirect effects of emotion on distributive and procedural justice perceptions (i.e., exploratory measures of fairness), sadness did not have a significant indirect effect on distributive justice perceptions (*indirect effect* = -.017, 95% CI [-.084, .023]) or procedural justice perceptions (*indirect effect* = -.001, 95% CI [-.076, .040]), when mediated by situational blame. Sadness did not have a significant direct effect on distributive justice (*direct effect* = -.225, 95% CI [-.536, .086]) or procedural justice (*direct effect* = .082, 95% CI [-.118, .284]). In addition, when testing the relationship between situational blame and distributive justice, situational blame did not have a significant effect on distributive justice perceptions ($\beta = -.12, p = .464$). When testing the relationship between situational blame and procedural justice, situational blame did not have a significant effect on procedural justice perceptions ($\beta = -.05, p = .644$).

Anger. Hypothesis 3 stated that the relationship between anger and fairness perceptions would be mediated by individual blame (i.e., blaming the director). When testing the relationship between anger and individual blame, anger had a significant effect on individual blame ($\beta = .38, p = .007$). When testing the relationship between individual blame and fairness, individual blame had a significant effect on fairness perceptions ($\beta = -.27, p = .007$). Overall, anger had a significant indirect effect on fairness perceptions, when mediated by individual blame (*indirect effect* = -.103, 95% CI [-.246, -.012]). Additionally, anger did not have a significant direct effect on fairness perceptions (*direct effect* = -.084, 95% CI [-.217, .049]). Hypothesis 3 was supported. This indicates that anger leads to decreased perception of fairness when mediated by individual blame.

Additionally, anger did not have a significant indirect effect on distributive justice perceptions (*indirect effect* = -.057, 95% CI [-.172, .023]) or procedural justice perceptions (*indirect effect* = -.012, 95% CI [-.116, .075]), when mediated by individual blame. Anger did not have a significant direct effect on distributive justice (*direct effect* = .131, 95% CI [-.179, .443]) or procedural justice (*direct effect* = -.055, 95% CI [-.258, .148]). In addition, when testing the relationship between individual blame and distributive justice, individual blame did not have a significant effect on distributive justice perceptions ($\beta = -.23, p = .196$). When testing the relationship between individual blame and procedural justice, individual blame did not have a significant effect on procedural justice perceptions ($\beta = -.03, p = .797$).

Test of Research Questions

Prior to collecting data, intentions for statistical analysis of research questions included applying Hayes' (2012) PROCESS model #72, which would have allowed for directly testing the moderated, moderated mediation with emotion as the independent variable, blame as the mediator, fairness and justice scores as the dependent variables, director gender as a moderator, and participant gender as a moderator. Analyzing participant gender as a moderating variable would have aided in an evaluation of research questions 1a, 1b, 2a, 2b, 5a, 5b, 6a, and 6b. Due to a smaller sample size, unequal distribution of participant genders across conditions, and some cells in the research conditions only having few to no participants from a specific gender, participant gender could not be analyzed as a moderating variable. Even if the transgender and non-binary gender groups were excluded, the small and unequal distribution of men and women across the conditions precluded examining participant gender in the analyses. Therefore,

the related research questions (i.e., 1a, 1b, 2a, 2b, 5a, 5b, 6a, and 6b) were beyond the scope of this analysis. See the Tables below for a breakdown of sample size per emotion condition when including (Table 7) and excluding (Table 8) participant gender. Analyses were conducted based upon the conditions and sample sizes represented in Table 8. Thus, analyses for the remaining research questions focused on testing gender of the scholarship director in the scholarship award videos as a moderating variable.

Table 7

Sample Size of Emotion Conditions by Director Gender & Participant Gender

<i>Emotion Condition</i>	<i>Participant Gender</i>	<i>Director Gender</i>	
		Male	Female
<i>Neutral</i>	Man	2	6
	Woman	14	13
	Non-binary	0	2
	Transgender	2	1
<i>Sad</i>	Man	1	3
	Woman	13	9
	Non-binary	2	1
	Transgender	0	0
<i>Anger</i>	Man	5	5
	Woman	13	7
	Non-binary	0	2
	Transgender	0	0

Table 8

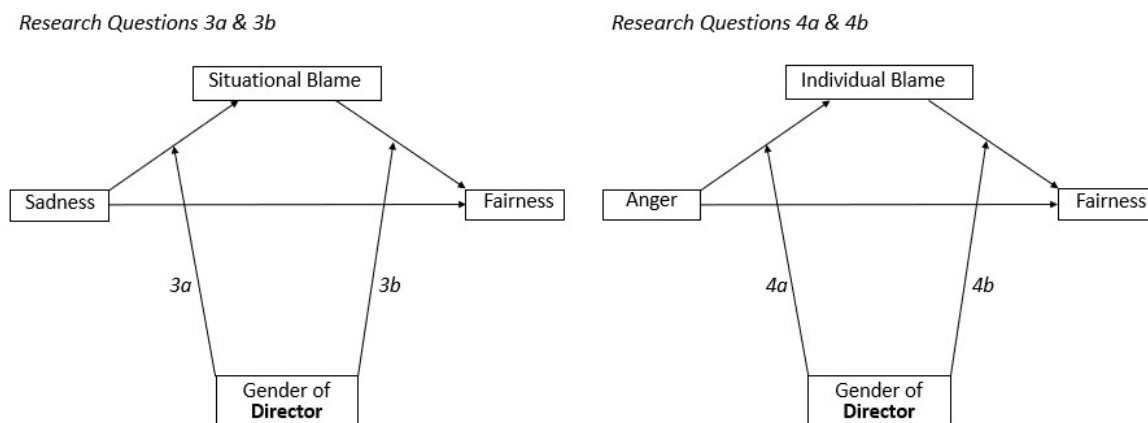
Sample Size of Emotion Conditions by Director Gender

<i>Emotion Condition</i>	<i>Director Gender</i>	
	Male	Female
<i>Neutral</i>	18	22
<i>Sad</i>	16	13
<i>Anger</i>	18	15
Total	52	50

To statistically evaluate proposed research questions #3 and #4, Hayes (2012) PROCESS model #58 with bootstrap methods (5,000 samples) was applied. For an example of Hayes' (2012) model #58, utilizing the variables of research questions #3 and

#4, see Figure 6. This model allowed for a direct test of the moderated mediation model and for simultaneous testing of relationships between the following variables: emotion (i.e., neutral, sad, anger) as the multi-categorical independent variable, blame (i.e., situational and individual) as the mediator, fairness and justice scores as the dependent variable, and director gender as the moderator.

Figure 6
A Test of Model #58



Research question 3a proposed that director gender would moderate the relationship between sadness and situational blame. Based on an analysis of Model #58 results, the relationship between sadness and situational blame was not significantly moderated by director gender ($\beta = -.30, p = .128$). Research question 3b proposed that director gender would moderate the relationship between situational blame and fairness perceptions. However, reviewing results suggested that the relationship between situational blame and fairness perceptions was not significant when moderated by director gender ($\beta = -.15, p = .294$). Additionally, the relationship between situational blame and distributive justice perceptions ($\beta = -.03, p = .923$) and between situational

blame and procedural justice perceptions ($\beta = -.05, p = .809$) were not significantly moderated by director gender. Overall, sadness did not have an indirect effect on fairness when moderated by director gender and mediated by situational blame (*indirect effect* = $-.064$, 95% CI $[-.147, .023]$). Sadness did not have a significant direct effect on fairness perceptions (*direct effect* = $.000$, 95% CI $[-.136, .138]$). Additionally, sadness did not have an indirect effect on distributive justice (*indirect effect* = $.023$, 95% CI $[-.102, .184]$), or procedural justice (*indirect effect* = $.004$, 95% CI $[-.076, .122]$), when moderated by director gender and mediated by situational blame. Also, sadness did not have a significant direct effect on distributive justice (*direct effect* = $-.236$, 95% CI $[-.552, .080]$) or procedural justice (*direct effect* = $.074$, 95% CI $[-.130, .279]$). Therefore, the answer to research questions 3a and 3b is that director gender does not moderate the relationship between sadness and situational blame or the relationship between situational blame and fairness.

Research question 4a proposed that director gender would moderate the relationship between anger and individual blame. Based on analyses, the relationship between anger and individual blame was not significantly moderated by director gender ($\beta = -.07, p = .665$). Research question 4b proposed that director gender would moderate the relationship between individual blame and fairness perceptions. However, the relationship between individual blame and fairness perceptions was not significantly moderated by director gender ($\beta = .27, p = .077$). Additionally, the relationships between individual blame and distributive justice perceptions ($\beta = .46, p = .193$) and between individual blame and procedural justice perceptions ($\beta = .09, p = .697$) were not significantly moderated by director gender. Overall, anger did not have an indirect effect

on fairness when moderated by director gender and mediated by individual blame (*indirect effect* = .074, 95% CI [-.039, .178]). Anger did not have a significant direct effect on fairness perceptions (*direct effect* = -.078, 95% CI [-.209, .055]). Additionally, anger did not have an indirect effect on distributive justice (*indirect effect* = .118, 95% CI [-.083, .340]), or procedural justice (*indirect effect* = .023, 95% CI [-.091, .138]), when moderated by director gender and mediated by individual blame. Also, anger did not have a significant direct effect on distributive justice (*direct effect* = .138, 95% CI [-.171, .448]) or procedural justice (*direct effect* = -.054, 95% CI [-.258, .150]). Therefore, the answer to research questions 4a and 4b is that director gender does not moderate the relationship between anger and individual blame or the relationship between individual blame and fairness.

To further test research questions #3 and #4, a Welch ANOVA was conducted comparing fairness scores, distributive justice scores, and procedural justice scores by male and female director gender conditions. The Welch ANOVAs ($\alpha_{FW} = .05$) indicated that fairness scores ($F(1, 99.12) = 1.02, p = .316, \omega^2 = .00$), distributive justice scores ($F(1, 98.91) = 0.65, p = .421, \omega^2 = -.00$), and procedural justice scores ($F(1, 96.49) = 0.73, p = .394, \omega^2 = -.00$) did not differ by director gender. In other words, scores of fairness were not significantly different between participants in the male director condition versus the female director condition.

Given issues discussed related to a small sample size, post hoc power analyses using G*Power software were conducted to determine if analyses of research questions using Hayes' (2012) PROCESS model #58 had acceptable power. As shown in Table 9

below, each analysis using model #58 had sufficient power, indicating that the sample size was large enough to detect an effect. In other words, the sample size was sufficient for analyzing research questions 3a, 3b, 4a, and 4b.

Table 9
Power & Effect Sizes (ES) for Model #58 Analyses

<i>Outcome Variable</i>	Situational Blame			Individual Blame		
	<i>N</i>	<i>ES</i>	<i>Power</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>ES</i>	<i>Power</i>
Fairness	102	.117	0.96	102	.136	0.98
Distributive Justice	101	.119	0.96	101	.146	0.98
Procedural Justice	101	.119	0.96	101	.146	0.98

Note. Alpha = .05. Moderated mediation model analyses included emotion as the independent variable, director gender as a moderating variable, blame as a mediating variable, and perceptions of fairness (i.e., fairness, distributive justice, and procedural justice scores) as the dependent variable.

CHAPTER IV: DISCUSSION

Research related to perceptions of justice in the workplace largely focused on outcomes and antecedents of such perceptions. However, research related to emotion as an antecedent of justice perceptions was a less prevalent topic of study. The aim of this study was to extend initial findings existing within this sector of justice research. Primarily, this study aimed to determine what impact emotions of sadness and anger have on perceptions of justice in an educational setting. The final results of this study, while mixed, provided evidence for emotion as a meaningful antecedent of justice, and therefore, an important aspect to consider when understanding the decision-making process of students.

The first hypothesis stated that participants in the anger condition would judge negative events as more unfair than sad individuals. To determine whether this proposal was supported, analyses were conducted in which perceptions of fairness were compared between participants experiencing anger and those experiencing sadness. The assumption was that those experiencing anger would have significantly lower overall averages in fairness perception ratings when compared to those experiencing sadness, indicating they judged the incorrect scholarship awarding as more unfair. The findings, however, were nonsignificant, meaning there were no meaningful differences in fairness ratings between participants experiencing sadness or anger. These findings were counter to those found by Kausel et al. (2016), who found that anger resulted in more judgments of injustice, when compared to sadness. The second hypothesis stated that the relationship between sadness and fairness perceptions would be mediated by situational blame. Through a series of simultaneous linear regressions, these relationships were evaluated.

Expectations were that a significant relationship between sadness and fairness perceptions would only occur because participants would blame the situation. Findings were non-significant, suggesting that sadness was not related to situational blame and sadness was not indirectly predictive of fairness perceptions when mediated by situational blame. However, situational blame did predict fairness perceptions, providing support for previous claims that blame is a prevalent predictor of perceptions of injustice (Kausel et al., 2016). An interesting finding regarding hypothesis 2 related to anger. Rather than finding support for a model of sadness, situational blame, and fairness perceptions, results appeared to suggest that anger indirectly predicted fairness perceptions through situational blame. These findings were surprising when reviewing prior research suggesting that anger is more likely to inspire attributions of individual blame versus situational (Keltner et al., 1993).

When compared to the findings of the Kausel et al. (2016) study, a lack of support for hypotheses 1 and 2 could be due to a change in study design. For example, student participants in this study judged a negative scenario within an educational setting, while working participants in the Kausel et al. (2016) study judged a negative scenario within a workplace setting. Additionally, this study was unstandardized and administered in an uncontrolled environment. Conversely, the Kausel et al. (2016) study was administered in a controlled environment, ensuring that emotion eliciting videos and audio were working properly for each participant. In addition, results for hypothesis 1 and 2 may have been impacted by a small sample size. A larger sample size may help produce more conclusive results. Also, participants were distributed across conditions unequally. Another variable that may have impacted the results of hypotheses 1 and 2 includes the emotion

manipulation. A strong statistical evaluation of the effectiveness of the emotion manipulation was not possible due to the mistaken absence of sadness and anger items on the PANAS-X scale. It is possible that the manipulations were ineffective and impacted the results of hypotheses 1 and 2.

The third hypothesis stated that the relationship between anger and fairness perceptions would be mediated by individual blame. When testing this model, results showed that anger had a significant impact on fairness perceptions when mediated by individual blame. This supported the hypothesis, as well as previous findings by Kausel et al. (2016). This suggests that, when mediated by blame, anger may exist as an antecedent to judgments of injustice in negative situations within an educational setting. In other words, evidence provided suggests that those experiencing anger are more likely to associate blame to an individual and, in turn, are more likely to judge a negative event as more unfair. In this particular study, anger led participants to blame the director for the incorrect scholarship awarding and led to judgments of greater social injustice.

Research questions 3 and 4 asked whether director gender would moderate the relationships between emotion, blame, and fairness perceptions. Previous research suggested mixed findings related to whether people judge male versus female leader effectiveness differently. Therefore, research questions 3a, 3b, 4a, and 4b aimed to explore whether student participants in the study judged male or female directors as more unfair. After analyzing director gender as a moderating variable of participant emotion, blame, and fairness perceptions, findings were non-significant. This suggested that director gender did not meaningfully impact participant attributions of blame or

perceptions of fairness, even when experiencing a negative emotion such as sadness or anger.

Theoretical and Practical Implications

These findings lend support to previous research of the appraisal tendency framework, in which emotions explained perceptions and decisions related to injustice when mediated by blame (Kausel et al., 2016). These findings primarily highlighted the significant impact specific emotions, such as anger, can have on an individual's judgments of justice during a negative situation. However, these findings differed from prior research of appraisal patterns of sadness and anger. Sadness, according to earlier researchers, led those experiencing the emotion to attribute negative outcomes to some situational factor, while those experiencing anger attributed a negative outcome to an individual factor (Keltner et al., 1993). I found that sadness did not impact blame attributions, and that anger predicted attributions of both individual and situational blame. This could be because those experiencing anger are less likely to carefully process their decision making and judgments (Bodenhausen et al., 1994).

Findings suggest that emotion does indeed predict justice perceptions when mediated by blame, especially for individuals experiencing anger. This emphasizes the importance of leadership and educational organizations to consider the emotions and cognitions behind individual judgments and decisions, as they may provide a deeper understanding of why individuals are reacting to a situation in a particular way. Having a deeper understanding of the antecedents of one's judgments of fairness may help organizations to alleviate strong negative reactions to policy changes, outcomes, or important decisions in the future.

An additional purpose of this research was to assess whether gender impacts appraisal tendencies and fairness perceptions. A lack of evidence in support of differences in judgments of the effectiveness of male and female leaders was an important finding. Prior research related to this topic has been widely split between the differences perspective and the similarity perspective (Matlin, 2008). While Baldner and Pierro (2019) found that men in leadership roles were judged as more effective leaders and women in leadership roles were judged more harshly, results of this study provided evidence in support of a similarity perspective. In other words, this research provides implications that men and women leaders in a negative situation are judged similarly by subordinates.

Limitations and Future Research

A limitation to this study included a small sample size. The original 3x2x2 design of the study meant that a large sample size was required for adequate power. However, recruitment struggles, and insufficient responding meant that the final sample size was much smaller than desired. Rather than analyzing the data based on a 3x2x2 design, analysis followed a 3x2 design, meaning that many research questions were left unevaluated. Future research should aim to gather data from a larger sample. This would allow for the unanswered questions to be analyzed, and the tested hypotheses to be reevaluated.

An additional limitation of the study included the study administration. Due to the presence of the covid-19 pandemic, recruitment took place completely electronically in an unsupervised environment. This meant that the survey process was not easily standardized across participants, and that the researcher was unable to ensure that digital

audio and visuals were working effectively for all in participation. Future studies may have better results if administering the study in a more controlled laboratory environment.

Another limitation of the study included the incorrect use of the PANAS-X. To ensure the effectiveness of the sadness and anger manipulations, the positive and negative affectivity scales of the PANAS-X were included. However, the full PANAS-X was not included; only the positive affect and negative affect subscales were included by mistake. Thus, items that directly assessed anger and sadness were not included, making testing the effectiveness of the manipulations difficult. Future replications should ensure that all items of the PANAS-X are included in both part one and part two of the study. This allows for a more statistically powerful evaluation of the emotion manipulation effectiveness.

Besides the previously mentioned limitations, a few other factors may have impacted the results of the study. For example, the randomized nature of the part two survey made it impossible to include a progress bar. Part two also required that participants view a total of two videos, with one repeated. These factors may have induced survey fatigue. Future replications of this study may benefit from including items asking about the level of fatigue felt at the end of the survey. In addition, captions were not included on any of the videos displayed, though the audio was an essential aspect of the study. Future studies using videos where audio is important should consider including captions, as those who are hearing impaired may be limited in their capacity to receive the full impact of manipulations.

Conclusion

Evaluating the impact of emotions and cognitions on perceptions of justice was the main focus of the study. Results supported emotion impacting perceptions of fairness when mediated by blame. Specifically, the emotion of anger had the most meaningful impact on blame and justice perceptions. The emotion of sadness should be explored further. An additional aspect of the study included evaluating whether gender impacted the relationships between emotion, blame, and justice perceptions. No evidence was found in support of leader gender impacting these relationships, but further studies should evaluate the impact of participant gender. Overall, perceptions of justice can have a major impact on the effectiveness of organizations, so a richer understanding of justice antecedents can help organizations function more effectively.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: EXPLORATORY MEASURES

Measures included in Part 1 & not included in analyses:

PANAS-X – Trait Level	
<p>This scale consists of a number of words and phrases that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then mark the appropriate answer in the space next to that word. Indicate <u>to what extent you have felt this way in general, that is, on the average</u>. Use the following scale to record your answers:</p>	
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Afraid 2. Scared 3. Nervous 4. Jittery 5. Irritable 6. Hostile 7. Guilty 8. Ashamed 9. Upset 10. Distressed 11. Active 12. Alert 13. Attentive 14. Determined 15. Enthusiastic 16. Excited 17. Inspired 18. Interested 19. Proud 20. Strong 	<p>1= very slightly or not at all 2= a little 3= moderately 4= quite a bit 5= extremely</p>

Mini IPIP – Big 5	
<p>These are phrases describing people's behaviors. Please use the rating scale below to describe how accurately each statement describes you. Describe yourself as you generally are now, not as you wish to be in the future. Describe yourself as you honestly see yourself, in relation to other people you know of the same sex as you are, and roughly your same age.</p> <p>So that you can describe yourself in an honest manner, your responses will be kept in absolute confidence. Please read each statement carefully.</p>	
1. I am the life of the party	<p>1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate</p>
2. I sympathize with others' feelings	<p>1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate</p>
3. I get chores done right away	<p>1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate</p>

	4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
4. I have frequent mood swings	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
5. I have a vivid imagination	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
6. I don't talk a lot	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
7. I am not interested in other people's problems	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
8. I often forget to put things back in their proper place	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
9. I am relaxed most of the time	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
10. I am not interested in abstract ideas	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
11. I talk to a lot of different people at parties	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
12. I feel others' emotions	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
13. I like order	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate

14. I get upset easily	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
15. I have difficulty understanding abstract ideas	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
16. I keep in the background	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
17. I am not really interested in others	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
18. I make a mess of things	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
19. I seldom feel blue	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
20. I do not have a good imagination	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate

Trait Anger	
Please use the rating scale below to describe how accurately each statement describes you.	
1. I get angry easily	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate

2. I get irritated easily	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
3. I lose my temper	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
4. I am not easily annoyed	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
5. I get upset easily	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
6. I am often in a bad mood	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
7. I rarely get irritated	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
8. I seldom get mad	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
9. I keep my cool	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
10. I rarely complain	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate

11. I get angry easily	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
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Trait Morality	
Please use the rating scale below to describe how accurately each statement describes you.	
1. I would never cheat on my taxes	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
2. I stick to the rules	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
3. I use flattery to get ahead	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
4. I use others for my own ends	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
5. I know how to get around the rules	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
6. I cheat to get ahead	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
7. I put people under pressure	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
8. I pretend to be concerned for others	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate

	3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
9. I take advantage of others	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
10. I obstruct others' plans	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate

Equity Preference Questionnaire	
Instructions: indicate the degree to which you agree with each of the following statements:	
1. I prefer to do as little work as possible at work while getting as much as I can from my employer. (R)	1 = strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=neither agree nor disagree 4=agree 5 = strongly agree
2. I am most satisfied at work when I have to do as little as possible. (R)	1 = strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=neither agree nor disagree 4=agree 5 = strongly agree
3. When I am at my job, I think of ways to get out of work. (R)	1 = strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=neither agree nor disagree 4=agree 5 = strongly agree
4. If I could get away with it, I would try to work just a little bit slower than the boss expects. (R)	1 = strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=neither agree nor disagree 4=agree 5 = strongly agree
5. It is really satisfying to me when I can get something for nothing at work. (R)	1 = strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=neither agree nor disagree 4=agree 5 = strongly agree
6. If I had to work hard all day at my job, I would probably quit. (R)	1 = strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=neither agree nor disagree

	4=agree 5 = strongly agree
7. At work, my greatest concern is whether or not I am doing the best job I can do.	1 = strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=neither agree nor disagree 4=agree 5 = strongly agree
8. A job that requires me to be busy during the day is better than a job which allows me a lot of loafing.	1 = strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=neither agree nor disagree 4=agree 5 = strongly agree
9. At work, I feel uneasy when there is little work for me to do.	1 = strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=neither agree nor disagree 4=agree 5 = strongly agree
10. I would become very dissatisfied with my job if I had little or no work to do.	1 = strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=neither agree nor disagree 4=agree 5 = strongly agree
11. All other things being equal, it is better to have a job with a lot of duties and responsibilities than one with few duties and responsibilities.	1 = strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=neither agree nor disagree 4=agree 5 = strongly agree
12. It is the smart employee who gets as much as he or she can while giving as little as possible in return. (R)	1 = strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=neither agree nor disagree 4=agree 5 = strongly agree
13. Employees who are more concerned about what they can get from their employer rather than what they can give to their employer are the wisest ones. (R)	1 = strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=neither agree nor disagree 4=agree 5 = strongly agree
14. When I have completed my task for the day, I help out other employees who have yet to complete their tasks.	1 = strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=neither agree nor disagree 4=agree 5 = strongly agree
15. Even if I receive low wages and poor benefits from my employer, I would still try to do my best at my job.	1 = strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=neither agree nor disagree 4=agree

	5 = strongly agree
16. I feel obligated to do more than I am paid to do at work.	1 = strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=neither agree nor disagree 4=agree 5 = strongly agree

Interpersonal Trust	
Please use the rating scale below to describe how accurately each statement describes you.	
1. I retreat from others	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
2. I am filled with doubts about things	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
3. I feel short-changed in my life	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
4. I avoid contacts with others	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
5. I believe that most people would lie to get ahead	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
6. I find it hard to forgive others	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate
7. I believe that people seldom tell you the whole story	1=Very Inaccurate 2=Moderately Inaccurate 3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate 4=Moderately Accurate 5=Very Accurate

Locus of Control/Rotter's I-E Scale		
<p>This is a questionnaire to find out the way in which certain important events in our society affect different people. Each item consists of a pair of alternatives lettered a or b. Please select the one statement of each pair (and only one) which you more strongly believe to be the case as far as you're concerned. Be sure to select the one you actually believe to be truer rather than the one you think you should choose or the one you would like to be true. This is a measure of personal belief: obviously there are no right or wrong answers. Please answer these items carefully but do not spend too much time on any one item. Be sure to find an answer for every choice.</p> <p>In some instances, you may discover that you believe both statements or neither one. In such cases, be sure to select the one you more strongly believe to be the case as far as you're concerned. Also try to respond to each item independently when making your choice; do not be influenced by your previous choices.</p>		
Choose the statement that you believe to be true for you:		
1.	Children get into trouble because their parents punish them too much.	The trouble with most children nowadays is that their parents are too easy with them.
2.	Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck.	People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make.
3.	One of the major reasons why we have wars is because people don't take enough interest in politics.	There will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to prevent them.
4.	In the long run people get the respect they deserve in this world.	Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognized no matter how hard he tries.
5.	The idea that teachers are unfair to students is nonsense.	Most students don't realize the extent to which their grades are influenced by accidental happenings.
6.	Without the right breaks one cannot be an effective leader.	Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their opportunities.
7.	No matter how hard you try some people just don't like you.	People who can't get others to like them don't understand how to get along with others.
8.	Heredity plays the major role in determining one's personality.	It is one's experiences in life which determine what they're like.
9.	I have often found that what is going to happen will happen.	Trusting to fate has never turned out as well for me as making a decision to take a definite course of action.
10.	In the case of the well-prepared student there is rarely if ever such a thing as an unfair test.	Many times, exam questions tend to be so unrelated to course work that studying is really useless.
11.	Becoming a success is a matter of hard work, luck has little or nothing to do with it.	Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.
12.	The average citizen can have an influence in government decisions.	This world is run by the few people in power, and there is not much the little guy can do about it.
13.	When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work.	It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.
14.	There are certain people who are just no good.	There is some good in everybody.

15.	In my case getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck.	Many times, we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.
16.	Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.	Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability, hick has little or nothing to do with it.
17.	As far as world affairs are concerned, most of us are the victims of forces we can neither understand, nor control.	By taking an active part in political and social affairs the people can control world events.
18.	Most people don't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings.	There really is no such thing as "luck."
19.	One should always be willing to admit mistakes.	It is usually best to cover up one's mistakes.
20.	It is hard to know whether or not a person really likes you.	How many friends you have depends upon how nice a person you are.
21.	In the long run the bad things that happen to us are balanced by the good ones.	Most misfortunes are the result of lack of ability, ignorance, laziness, or all three.
22.	With enough effort we can wipe out political corruption.	It is difficult for people to have much control over the things politicians do in office.
23.	Sometimes I can't understand how teachers arrive at the grades they give.	There is a direct connection between how hard I study and the grades I get.
24.	A good leader expects people to decide for themselves what they should do.	A good leader makes it clear to everybody what their jobs are.
25.	Many times, I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me.	It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life.
26.	People are lonely because they don't try to be friendly.	There's not much use in trying too hard to please people, if they like you, they like you.
27.	There is too much emphasis on athletics in high school.	Team sports are an excellent way to build character.
28.	What happens to me is my own doing.	Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the direction my life is taking.
29.	Most of the time I can't understand why politicians behave the way they do.	In the long run the people are responsible for bad government on a national as well as on a local level.

Empathy Scale: TEQ					
Below is a list of statements. Please read each statement <i>carefully</i> and rate how frequently you feel or act in the manner described. Select the rating that matches your answer. There are no right or wrong answers or trick questions. Please answer each question as honestly as you can. Rate how frequently you feel or act in the manner described.					
1. When someone else is feeling excited, I tend to get excited too	Never 1	Rarely 2	Some- times 3	Often 4	Always 5
2. Other people's misfortunes do not disturb me a great deal	1	2	3	4	5
3. It upsets me to see someone being treated disrespectfully	1	2	3	4	5
4. I remain unaffected when someone close to me is happy	1	2	3	4	5
5. I enjoy making other people feel better	1	2	3	4	5
6. I have tender, concerned feelings for people less fortunate than me	1	2	3	4	5
7. When a friend starts to talk about his\her problems, I try to steer the conversation towards something else	1	2	3	4	5
8. I can tell when others are sad even when they do not say anything	1	2	3	4	5
9. I find that I am "in tune" with other people's moods	1	2	3	4	5
10. I do not feel sympathy for people who cause their own serious illnesses	1	2	3	4	5
11. I become irritated when someone cries	1	2	3	4	5
12. I am not really interested in how other people feel	1	2	3	4	5
13. I get a strong urge to help when I see someone who is upset	1	2	3	4	5
14. When I see someone being treated unfairly, I do not feel very much pity for them	1	2	3	4	5
15. I find it silly for people to cry out of happiness	1	2	3	4	5
16. When I see someone being taken advantage of, I feel kind of protective towards him\her	1	2	3	4	5

Guilt-Proneness (GASP)	
In this questionnaire you will read about situations that people are likely to encounter in day-to-day life, followed by common reactions to those situations. As you read each scenario, try to imagine yourself in that situation. Then indicate the likelihood that you would react in the way described.	
1. After realizing you have received too much change at a store, you decide to keep it because the salesclerk doesn't notice. What is the likelihood that you would feel uncomfortable about keeping the money?	1= Very Unlikely 2=Unlikely 3= Slightly Unlikely 4= about 50% Likely 5=Slightly Likely 6=Likely 7= Very Likely
2. You are privately informed that you are the only one in your group that did not make the honor society because you skipped too many days of school. What is the likelihood that this would lead you to become more responsible about attending school?	1= Very Unlikely 2=Unlikely 3= Slightly Unlikely 4= about 50% Likely 5=Slightly Likely 6=Likely 7= Very Likely
3. You rip an article out of a journal in the library and take it with you. Your teacher discovers what you did and tells the librarian and your entire class. What is the likelihood that this would make you would feel like a bad person?	1= Very Unlikely 2=Unlikely 3= Slightly Unlikely 4= about 50% Likely 5=Slightly Likely 6=Likely 7= Very Likely
4. After making a big mistake on an important project at work in which people were depending on you, your boss criticizes you in front of your coworkers. What is the likelihood that you would feign sickness and leave work?	1= Very Unlikely 2=Unlikely 3= Slightly Unlikely 4= about 50% Likely 5=Slightly Likely 6=Likely 7= Very Likely
5. You reveal a friend's secret, though your friend never finds out. What is the likelihood that your failure to keep the secret would lead you to exert extra effort to keep secrets in the future?	1= Very Unlikely 2=Unlikely 3= Slightly Unlikely 4= about 50% Likely 5=Slightly Likely 6=Likely 7= Very Likely
6. You give a bad presentation at work. Afterwards your boss tells your coworkers it was your fault that your company lost the contract. What is the likelihood that you would feel incompetent?	1= Very Unlikely 2=Unlikely 3= Slightly Unlikely 4= about 50% Likely 5=Slightly Likely 6=Likely 7= Very Likely
7. A friend tells you that you boast a great deal. What is the likelihood that you would stop spending time with that friend?	1= Very Unlikely 2=Unlikely 3= Slightly Unlikely 4= about 50% Likely 5=Slightly Likely 6=Likely 7= Very Likely
8. Your home is very messy and unexpected guests knock on your door and invite themselves in. What is the likelihood that you would avoid the guests until they leave?	1= Very Unlikely 2=Unlikely 3= Slightly Unlikely 4= about 50% Likely 5=Slightly Likely

	6=Likely 7= Very Likely
9. You secretly commit a felony. What is the likelihood that you would feel remorse about breaking the law?	1= Very Unlikely 2=Unlikely 3= Slightly Unlikely 4= about 50% Likely 5=Slightly Likely 6=Likely 7= Very Likely
10. You successfully exaggerate your damages in a lawsuit. Months later, your lies are discovered, and you are charged with perjury. What is the likelihood that you would think you are a despicable human being?	1= Very Unlikely 2=Unlikely 3= Slightly Unlikely 4= about 50% Likely 5=Slightly Likely 6=Likely 7= Very Likely
11. You strongly defend a point of view in a discussion, and though nobody was aware of it, you realize that you were wrong. What is the likelihood that this would make you think more carefully before you speak?	1= Very Unlikely 2=Unlikely 3= Slightly Unlikely 4= about 50% Likely 5=Slightly Likely 6=Likely 7= Very Likely
12. You take office supplies home for personal use and are caught by your boss. What is the likelihood that this would lead you to quit your job?	1= Very Unlikely 2=Unlikely 3= Slightly Unlikely 4= about 50% Likely 5=Slightly Likely 6=Likely 7= Very Likely
13. You make a mistake at work and find out a coworker is blamed for the error. Later, your coworker confronts you about your mistake. What is the likelihood that you would feel like a coward?	1= Very Unlikely 2=Unlikely 3= Slightly Unlikely 4= about 50% Likely 5=Slightly Likely 6=Likely 7= Very Likely
14. At a coworker's housewarming party, you spill red wine on their new cream-colored carpet. You cover the stain with a chair so that nobody notices your mess. What is the likelihood that you would feel that the way you acted was pathetic?	1= Very Unlikely 2=Unlikely 3= Slightly Unlikely 4= about 50% Likely 5=Slightly Likely 6=Likely 7= Very Likely
15. While discussing a heated subject with friends, you suddenly realize you are shouting though nobody seems to notice. What is the likelihood that you would try to act more considerately toward your friends?	1= Very Unlikely 2=Unlikely 3= Slightly Unlikely 4= about 50% Likely 5=Slightly Likely 6=Likely 7= Very Likely
16. You lie to people, but they never find out about it. What is the likelihood that you would feel terrible about the lies you told?	1= Very Unlikely 2=Unlikely 3= Slightly Unlikely 4= about 50% Likely 5=Slightly Likely 6=Likely 7= Very Likely

Perceived Warmth & Competence: SCM					
Warmth					
Please indicate how much the following traits apply to you.					
	Does not describe me 1	Describes me slightly well 2	Describes me moderately well 3	Describes me very well 4	Describes me extremely well 5
1. Warm					
2. Trustworthy	1	2	3	4	5
3. Friendly	1	2	3	4	5
4. Honest	1	2	3	4	5
5. Likeable	1	2	3	4	5
6. Sincere	1	2	3	4	5
Competence					
Please indicate how much the following traits apply to you.					
	Does not describe me 1	Describes me slightly well 2	Describes me moderately well 3	Describes me very well 4	Describes me extremely well 5
1. Competent					
2. Intelligent	1	2	3	4	5
3. Skilled	1	2	3	4	5
4. Efficient	1	2	3	4	5
5. Assertive	1	2	3	4	5
6. Confident	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX B: MATERIALS & MANIPULATIONS

Link to “The Champ” Sadness Induction Video:

https://www.dropbox.com/s/brsnmr74w14sifo/champ_clip.avi

Link to “My Bodyguard” Anger Induction Video:

https://www.dropbox.com/s/mdeeb5i6qgj2f6b/bodyguard_clip.avi

Link to “All the President’s Men” Neutral Video:

<https://youtu.be/akvCvFfJF7E>

Link to Man Director Video of Injustice:

<https://youtu.be/l76yxZ4QvYo>

Link to Woman Director Video of Injustice:

<https://youtu.be/Ob6SAsSsKtQ>

Anger Condition Writing Prompt:

“Remembering an experience in your life.

Please try to remember an experience in the past 2 years that left you feeling extremely **angry**. Try to pick a situation in which you felt more **anger** than any other emotion. Try not to pick a situation in which you felt an emotion other than anger, or in which you felt mixed emotions.

Try to imagine yourself back in that situation and try to recall as vividly as you can just what being so angry felt like. Don’t just think about being so angry; try to actually feel the anger, as though you were experiencing it right now; this will help you write a more realistic account. Try to focus on the experience of anger itself, what it felt like at the time, not on what came before or after.

Now try to describe that feeling to a best friend or relative. It is very important that your friend understands exactly how you felt during the incident and why you felt that way.

Please type what you would tell your friend or relative. Include as much detail as possible.

Remember: Your reply is completely confidential.”

Sadness Condition Writing Prompt:

“Remembering an experience in your life.

Please try to remember an experience in the past 2 years that left you feeling extremely **sad**. Try to pick a situation in which you felt more **sadness** than any other emotion. Try not to pick a situation in which you felt an emotion other than sadness, or in which you felt mixed emotions.

Try to imagine yourself back in that situation and try to recall as vividly as you can just what being so sad felt like. Don’t just think about being so sad; try to actually feel the sadness, as though you were experiencing it right now; this will help you write a more realistic account. Try to focus on the experience of sadness itself, what it felt like at the time, not on what came before or after.

Now try to describe that feeling to a best friend or relative. It is very important that your friend understands exactly how you felt during the incident and why you felt that way.

Please type what you would tell your friend or relative. Include as much detail as possible.

Remember: Your reply is completely confidential.”

Neutral Control Condition Writing Prompt:

“Remembering an experience in your life.

Please try to remember an experience in the past 2 years that **you do not associate with any particular emotion**. Try to pick a situation you would describe as **neutral**. Neutral experiences, such as going for a walk or cooking dinner, are associated with less emotion, or are not associated with any emotion at all. Try not to pick a situation in which you felt a strong emotion, or in which you felt mixed emotions.

Try to imagine yourself back in that situation and try to recall as vividly as you can just what was so ordinary about it. Try to focus on the neutral experience, what was happening during the situation, not about what came before or after.

Now try to describe that situation to a best friend or relative. It is very important that your friend understands exactly what your experience was during the event.

Please type what you would tell your friend or relative. Include as much detail as possible.

Remember: Your reply is completely confidential.”

Scholarship Script for “Director” Video of Hypothetical University Scenario:

It is the job of the Director of Financial Aid at the University to fill out scholarship checks for individuals based on reviews of their scholarship applications. Please note the amount of money given to each student.

The amount of the scholarship reward cannot be changed once the check has been signed and delivered to the student.

Please pay attention to the names on the checks, the names on the scholarship application reviews, and the ratings on the scholarship application reviews.

Because the scholarship funds for each year are limited, there is no way to change the amounts paid for the scholarships once the checks are signed and delivered.

Please notice that the scholarship check for Iris Jones was placed on top of Julia Jones’s scholarship application review and vice versa.

Please also notice that Iris Jones, who received a 2.8 out of 5 on her scholarship application, received a \$2000 check while Julia Jones, who received a 5 out of 5 on her scholarship application, only received a \$200 check

Video Scholarship Application Review Materials (Iris Jones):

Scholarship Application Review

Jones, Iris

Overall Rating: 2.8/5

Type: University graduate student funding

☐ Full Scholarship

☒ Partial Scholarship

☐ No Scholarship

Requirements:

GPA(3.0)

Meets expectations

The student should display proficient knowledge of core courses required to maintain the given scholarship. This student achieved average expectations (GPA: 3.0).



Research Experiences

Meets expectations

The student should have experience working alongside others on a research project. Presenting research is needed to receive optimal scoring. This student affectively met expectations.



Applied/Internship Experiences

Far below expectations

The student is required to have at least 80 internship hours within a relevant field. The student should adequately detail their experiences and acquired knowledge and skills. This student did not achieve internship experience.



Extracurricular Activities

Exceeds expectations

The student should show an interest in extracurricular activities. This student achieved slightly above what was expected of the scholarship applicants, having participated in a few student organizations.



References

Meets expectations

The student was encouraged to provide three references: one professor, one internship supervisor, and one student organization leader. This student provided two references, meeting but not exceeding expectations.



Video Scholarship Application Review Materials (Julia Jones):

Scholarship Application Review

Jones, Julia

Overall Rating: 5/5

Type: University graduate student funding

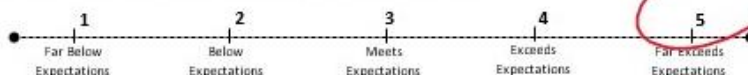
- ☒ **Full Scholarship**
☐ **Partial Scholarship**
☐ **No Scholarship**

Requirements:

GPA(4.0)

Far exceeds expectations

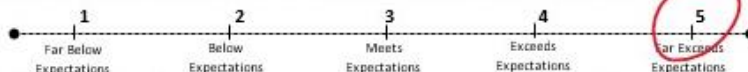
The student should display proficient knowledge of core courses required to maintain the given scholarship. This student achieved well above what was expected (GPA: 4.0).



Research Experiences

Far exceeds expectations

The student should have experience working alongside others on a research project. Presenting research is needed to receive optimal scoring. This student achieved well above what was expected.



Applied/Internship Experiences

Far exceeds expectations

The student is required to have at least 80 internship hours within a relevant field. The student should adequately detail their experiences and acquired knowledge and skills. This student achieved well above what was expected of the scholarship applicants.



Extracurricular Activities

Far exceeds expectations

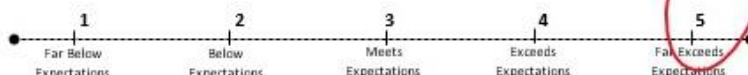
The student should show an interest in various extracurricular activities. This student achieved well above what was expected of the scholarship applicants, having participated in many student organizations.



References

Far exceeds expectations

The student was encouraged to provide three references: one professor, one internship supervisor, and one student organization leader. This student achieved well above what was expected of the scholarship applicants.



Video Scholarship Check Materials depicting incorrect scholarship awards (social injustice):

(Iris Jones: correct award for Iris is \$200):

MTSU Financial Aid Services

1936

PAY TO THE ORDER OF **I. Jones**

DATE _____

\$2000

DOLLARS

FOR Partial Scholarship Award

⑆000000186⑆ 000000529⑈ 1000

Security Features Details on back

(Julia Jones: correct award for Julia is \$2000):

MTSU Financial Aid Services

1936

PAY TO THE ORDER OF **J. Jones**

DATE _____

\$200

DOLLARS

FOR Full Scholarship Award

⑆000000186⑆ 000000529⑈ 1000

Security Features Details on back

APPENDIX C: MEASURES INCLUDED IN ANALYSES

Director Video Knowledge/Attention Check Questions:

Knowledge/Attention check after viewing videos		
1. What was the name reported on Iris Jones' scholarship check?	a. Iris Jones	b. I. Jones
2. What was the name reported on Julia Jones' scholarship check?	a. Julia Jones	b. J. Jones
3. The student with a higher performance rating was the one who received the larger scholarship check.	a. True	b. False
4. The checks were accurately distributed based on the performance rating of each student.	a. True	b. False

PANAS-X: STATE MEASURE OF POSITIVE & NEGATIVE AFFECTIVITY:

PANAS-X – State Level	
<p>This scale consists of a number of words and phrases that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then mark the appropriate answer in the space next to that word. Indicate <u>to what extent you feel this way right now (that is, at the present moment)</u>. Use the following scale to record your answers:</p>	
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Afraid 2. Scared 3. Nervous 4. Jittery 5. Irritable 6. Hostile 7. Guilty 8. Ashamed 9. Upset 10. Distressed 11. Active 12. Alert 13. Attentive 14. Determined 15. Enthusiastic 16. Excited 17. Inspired 18. Interested 19. Proud 20. Strong 	<p>1= very slightly or not at all 2= a little 3= moderately 4= quite a bit 5= extremely</p>

MEASURES OF BLAME:

Measure of Blame (replicated & adapted from 2016 study)					
The following questions ask about your <u>opinions regarding the Director's actions and the outcome in the video</u> . Please respond by indicating to what extent you agree with each of the following:					
Individual Blame					
	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree nor Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
1. The inaccurate distribution of the checks was due to the Director's lack of effort in the task.					
2. The inaccurate distribution of the checks was due to the Director's irresponsibility.	1	2	3	4	5
3. The inaccurate distribution of the checks was due to the Director's dishonesty.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The Director in the video is to blame for the distribution of the checks.	1	2	3	4	5
5. It's the Director's fault that Iris and Julia received the checks that they did.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The Director is responsible for the distribution of checks.	1	2	3	4	5
Situational Blame					
	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree nor Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
1. The inaccurate distribution of the checks was due to the difficulty of the task.					
2. The inaccurate distribution of the checks can be explained by the confusing use of names on the checks.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Anyone could have made the mistake shown in the video; it's not this particular Director's fault.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The way the checks were distributed was chance.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The way the checks were distributed was due to factors beyond the Director's control.	1	2	3	4	5

MEASURES OF FAIRNESS:

Measure of Distributive Justice					
The following items refer to the outcome in the scholarship check video. To what extent:					
1. Do the scholarship checks reflect the effort Julia and Iris have put into their work?	To a small extent (1)	(2)	Neutral (3)	(4)	To a large extent (5)
2. Are the scholarship checks appropriate for the work Julia and Iris have completed?	To a small extent (1)	(2)	Neutral (3)	(4)	To a large extent (5)
3. Do the scholarship checks reflect what Julia and Iris have contributed?	To a small extent (1)	(2)	Neutral (3)	(4)	To a large extent (5)
4. Are the scholarship checks justified, given Julia and Iris' performance?	To a small extent (1)	(2)	Neutral (3)	(4)	To a large extent (5)

Measure of Procedural Justice					
The following items refer to the procedures used to arrive at the outcome in the scholarship check video. To what extent:					
1. Have the students been able to express their views and feelings during the scholarship award procedures?	To a small extent (1)	(2)	Neutral (3)	(4)	To a large extent (5)
2. Have the students had influence over the check amounts arrived at by the scholarship award procedures?	To a small extent (1)	(2)	Neutral (3)	(4)	To a large extent (5)
3. Have the scholarship award procedures been applied consistently?	To a small extent (1)	(2)	Neutral (3)	(4)	To a large extent (5)
4. Have the scholarship award procedures been free of bias?	To a small extent (1)	(2)	Neutral (3)	(4)	To a large extent (5)
5. Have the scholarship award procedures been based on accurate information?	To a small extent (1)	(2)	Neutral (3)	(4)	To a large extent (5)
6. Have the students been able to appeal the scholarship checks arrived at by the scholarship award procedures?	To a small extent (1)	(2)	Neutral (3)	(4)	To a large extent (5)
7. Have the scholarship award procedures upheld ethical and moral standards?	To a small extent (1)	(2)	Neutral (3)	(4)	To a large extent (5)

Measures of Fairness (replicated measures from 2016 study)					
Manager Fairness					
The following questions ask about <u>your perception of the Director</u> in the video.					
8. I believe the Director in the video probably always gives students a fair deal.	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree nor Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
9. I believe the Director in the video is a fair person.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Fairness is the word that best describes the Director in the video.	1	2	3	4	5
Overall Fairness					
The following questions ask about your <u>opinions regarding how the scholarship checks were assigned in the video.</u>					
1. Overall, the scholarship checks received by Iris Jones and Julia Jones were fair.	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree nor Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
2. Overall, the procedures used to distribute checks to Iris Jones and Julia Jones were fair.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Overall, Iris Jones and Julia Jones were provided with accurate and swift information about the distribution of the scholarship checks.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Overall, Iris Jones and Julia Jones were treated politely and with respect in regard to the distribution of the scholarship checks.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Overall, Iris Jones and Julia Jones were treated fairly in this situation.	1	2	3	4	5
6. In general, the treatment Iris Jones and Julia Jones received was fair.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Most people would say that Iris Jones and Julia Jones were treated fairly.	1	2	3	4	5
Event Fairness					
The following questions ask about your <u>opinions regarding how the scholarship checks were assigned in the video.</u>					
1. Do the scholarship checks in the video reflect the effort Iris and Julia put into their work?	To a small extent 1	2	3	4	To a large extent 5
2. Are the scholarship checks in the video appropriate for the work Iris and Julia completed?	1	2	3	4	5

3. Do the scholarship checks in the video reflect what Iris and Julia have contributed?	1	2	3	4	5
4. Are the scholarship checks justified, given Iris and Julia's application ratings?	1	2	3	4	5
Assessment of Behavioral Reactions (replicated measure from 2016 study)					
The following questions ask about what you would do <u>if you worked for the Director in the video.</u>					
1. I would help the Director in the video if they had been absent.	Very Unlikely 1	2	3	4	Very Likely 5
2. I would help the Director in the video if they had a heavy workload.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I would assist the Director in the video with their work (even if not asked to do so).	1	2	3	4	5
4. I would take time to listen to the problems and worries of the Director in the videos.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I would go out of my way to help the Director in the video.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I would take a personal interest in the Director in the video.	1	2	3	4	5

Demographic/Debriefing Questions:

Demographic Questions	
1. What gender do you most identify with?	a. Man
	b. Woman
	c. Non-binary
	d. Transgender Man
	e. Transgender Woman
	f. Other (text entry)
	g. Prefer not to respond
2. Which of the following do you most identify with?	a. White, non-Hispanic
	b. Black or African American
	c. Asian
	d. Hispanic, non-White
	e. American Indian/Native American
	f. Mixed Ethnicity (fill in the blank)
	g. Other (fill in the blank)
3. What year are you at the university?	a. First
	b. Second
	c. Third
	d. Fourth
	e. Fifth or more
4. What is your approximate GPA (grade point average)?	Fill in the blank
5. Are you currently employed?	a. Yes b. No

6. On average, how many hours do you work each week?	Fill in the blank	
7. Have you ever applied for a scholarship award?	a. Yes	b. No
8. Have you ever received a scholarship award?	a. Yes	b. No
9. Did you take this study seriously, or did you click through the responses?	a. Just clicked through	b. Took the study seriously
10. Is there any reason why we should not use your data?	a. My data should not be included in analyses	b. My data should be included in your analyses
11. Why should be not include your data in our analyses?	a. I wasn't really paying attention b. I just clicked through randomly c. I didn't understand the task/questions d. I didn't really know what I was doing e. I just skimmed through the questions f. Other (text box)	

IRB**INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD**

Office of Research Compliance,
010A Sam Ingram Building,
2269 Middle Tennessee Blvd
Murfreesboro, TN 37129
FWA: 00005331/IRB Regn. 0003571

**IRBN001 - EXPEDITED PROTOCOL APPROVAL NOTICE**

Friday, May 21, 2021

Protocol Title **Appraisal Tendency Framework: Emotions and Perceptions of Social Injustice**

Protocol ID **21-2178 7q**

Principal Investigator **Sarah Tucker** (Student)

Faculty Advisor **Alexander Jackson**

Co-Investigators **Judith Van Hein and Patrick McCarthy**

Investigator Email(s) **set4a@mtmail.mtsu.edu; alexander.jackson@mtsu.edu**

Department **Psychology**

Funding **NONE**

Dear Investigator(s),

The above identified research proposal has been reviewed by the MTSU IRB through the **EXPEDITED** mechanism under 45 CFR 46.110 and 21 CFR 56.110 within the category (7) *Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior*. A summary of the IRB action is tabulated below:

IRB Action	APPROVED for ONE YEAR		
Date of Expiration	5/31/2022	Date of Approval: 5/18/21	Recent Amendment: 5/21/21
Sample Size	SEVEN HUNDRED AND FIFTY (750)		
Participant Pool	Target Population: Primary Classification: General Adults (18 or older) Specific Classification: Undergraduate students		
Type of Interaction	<input type="checkbox"/> Non-interventional or Data Analysis <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Virtual/Remote/Online interaction <input type="checkbox"/> In person or physical interaction – Mandatory COVID-19 Management		
Exceptions	1. Contact information is permitted for announcing raffle winners. 2. Online informed consent and Qualtrics survey are approved.		
Restrictions	1. Mandatory ACTIVE Informed Consent. 2. Other than the exceptions above, identifiable data/artifacts, such as, audio/video data, photographs, handwriting samples, personal address, driving records, social security number, and etc., MUST NOT be collected. Recorded identifiable information must be deidentified as described in the protocol. 3. Mandatory Final report (refer last page). 4. Compensation receipt documentation is not approved. 5. This protocol is not approved for in person interactions.		
Approved Templates	IRB Templates: Informed Consent and Recruitment Email Non-MTSU Templates: NONE		
Research Inducement	Raffle (\$25 Amazon gift cards)		
Comments	NONE		

Post-approval Requirements

The PI and FA must read and abide by the post-approval conditions (Refer "Quick Links" in the bottom):

- **Reporting Adverse Events:** The PI must report research-related adversities suffered by the participants, deviations from the protocol, misconduct, and etc., within 48 hours from when they were discovered.
- **Final Report:** The FA is responsible for submitting a final report to close-out this protocol before **5/31/2022** (Refer to the Continuing Review section below); **REMINDERS WILL NOT BE SENT. Failure to close-out or request for a continuing review may result in penalties** including cancellation of the data collected using this protocol and/or withholding student diploma.
- **Protocol Amendments:** An IRB approval must be obtained for all types of amendments, such as: addition/removal of subject population or investigating team; sample size increases; changes to the research sites (appropriate permission letter(s) may be needed); alternation to funding; and etc. The proposed amendments must be requested by the FA in an addendum request form. The proposed changes must be consistent with the approval category and they must comply with expedited review requirements
- **Research Participant Compensation:** Compensation for research participation must be awarded as proposed in Chapter 6 of the Expedited protocol. The documentation of the monetary compensation must Appendix J and MUST NOT include protocol details when reporting to the MTSU Business Office.
- **COVID-19:** Regardless whether this study poses a threat to the participants or not, refer to the COVID-19 Management section for important information for the FA.

Continuing Review (The PI has requested early termination)

Although this protocol can be continued for up to THREE years, The PI has opted to end the study by **5/31/2022**. The PI must close-out this protocol by submitting a final report before **5/31/2022**. Failure to close-out may result in penalties that include cancellation of the data collected using this protocol and delays in graduation of the student PI.

Post-approval Protocol Amendments:

The current MTSU IRB policies allow the investigators to implement minor and significant amendments that would fit within this approval category. **Only TWO procedural amendments will be entertained per year (changes like addition/removal of research personnel are not restricted by this rule).**

Date	Amendment(s)	IRB Comments
05/21/2021	The compensation (raffle) description is altered in the templates.	Admin

Other Post-approval Actions:

The following actions are done subsequent to the approval of this protocol on request by the PI/FA or on recommendation by the IRB or by both.

Date	IRB Action(s)	IRB Comments
NONE	NONE	NONE

COVID-19 Management:

The PI must follow social distancing guidelines and other practices to avoid viral exposure to the participants and other workers when physical contact with the subjects is made during the study.

- The study must be stopped if a participant or an investigator should test positive for COVID-19 within 14 days of the research interaction. This must be reported to the IRB as an "adverse event."
- The MTSU's "Return-to-work" questionnaire found in Pipeline must be filled by the investigators on the day of the research interaction prior to physical contact.
- PPE must be worn if the participant would be within 6 feet from the each other or with an investigator.
- Physical surfaces that will come in contact with the participants must be sanitized between use
- **FA's Responsibility:** The FA is given the administrative authority to make emergency changes to protect the wellbeing of the participants and student researchers during the COVID-19 pandemic. However, the FA must notify the IRB after such changes have been made. The IRB will audit the changes at a later date and the FA will be instructed to carryout remedial measures if needed.

Data Management & Storage:

All research-related records (signed consent forms, investigator training and etc.) must be retained by the PI or the faculty advisor (if the PI is a student) at the secure location mentioned in the protocol application. The data must be stored for at least three (3) years after the study is closed. Additional Tennessee State

Institutional Review Board, MTSU

FWA: 00005331

IRB Registration: 0003571

data retention requirement may apply (refer "Quick Links" for MTSU policy 129 below). The data may be destroyed in a manner that maintains confidentiality and anonymity of the research subjects.

The MTSU IRB reserves the right to modify/update the approval criteria or change/cancel the terms listed in this letter without prior notice. Be advised that IRB also reserves the right to inspect or audit your records if needed.

Sincerely,

Institutional Review Board
Middle Tennessee State University

Quick Links:

- Post-approval Responsibilities: <http://www.mtsu.edu/irb/FAQ/PostApprovalResponsibilities.php>
- Expedited Procedures: <https://mtsu.edu/irb/ExpeditedProcedures.php>
- MTSU Policy 129: Records retention & Disposal: <https://www.mtsu.edu/policies/general/129.php>