Do Just Actions Beget Just Evaluations for Supervisors with Intersectional Identities?

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Abstract

Although subordinates commonly evaluate supervisors more positively when they feel or perceive that they have been treated with dignity and respect, recent research has shown that the gender or race of a supervisor may cause them to be evaluated more negatively in some contexts. My study extended this research to consider how race and gender together interact to change the relationship between how interpersonally fairly supervisors treat their subordinates and how those subordinates evaluate their supervisors' performance. I found that race and gender do not impact subordinates' evaluations of supervisors who treat subordinates with greater dignity and respect, but that subordinates evaluate White female and Black male supervisors more harshly for poor interpersonal treatment when compared to other groups (i.e., White male and Black female supervisors). Furthermore, these effects are unique to interpersonal justice and do not extend to other forms of organizational justice (i.e., distributive or procedural justice). These findings add to a growing literature on how intersectional identities influence workplace outcomes.

Keywords: interpersonal justice, race, gender, intersectionality, identity, supervisor, evaluations

Organizational justice refers to one's experience of fairness in the workplace (J. Greenberg, 1990), and is a significant element of supervisor-subordinate relationships in this context. Specifically, organizational justice is important in that it has been found to impact the experiences and outcomes of both workplace supervisors and their subordinates. On the one hand, subordinates who feel or perceive that they are fairly treated are more likely to be satisfied with their job, be committed to their organization, and evaluate their supervisors in a positive way (e.g., Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001). On the other hand, subordinates who feel or perceive that they have been treated unfairly may withdraw or perform more poorly at work as well as evaluate their supervisors more negatively.

Organizational scholars have identified four dimensions or types of organizational justice: *distributive justice*, which concerns the fair distribution of outcomes and resources; *procedural justice*, which concerns the fairness of procedures within the organization; *informational justice*, which concerns the appropriate communication of information; and *interpersonal justice*, which concerns dignified and respectful interpersonal treatment (Colquitt, Long, Rodell, & Halvorsen-Ganepola, 2015). Although all four dimensions of organizational justice shape subordinates' evaluations of their supervisors, research indicates that interpersonal justice may be somewhat unique in that other factors can and may be particularly likely to impact the way that supervisors are evaluated for interpersonally just or unjust treatment of subordinates. Specifically, two recent studies have shown that supervisors may experience bias based on their gender (Caleo, 2016) or race (Zapata, Carton, & Liu, 2016), because these demographic characteristics may cause subordinates to evaluate their supervisors differently for interpersonally fair or unfair treatment.

Unfortunately, because these studies examined gender and race in isolation, it is unknown how multiple elements of supervisors' identities might interact to change or affect the relationship between interpersonally just treatment and subordinates' evaluations of their supervisors. In general, organizational scholars are becoming increasingly interested in understanding how individuals' experiences are shaped by *intersectionality*, the ways that multiple elements of an individual's identity interact (Sawyer, Salter, & Thoroughgood, 2013; Shen & Dhanani, 2015). To this end, my study aimed to broaden our understanding of how intersections in a supervisor's identity change their subordinates' reactions to fair or unfair treatment, by jointly considering both supervisor race and supervisor gender.

Background Theory and Research

In this section, I will briefly review the two recent studies which served as the impetus for the current study, which both examined how supervisors' identities (i.e., gender and race, respectively) impact the relationship between interpersonal justice and subordinates' evaluations of supervisors. Following this review, I discuss recent work on the importance of intersectional research and the impact of intersectional identities on workplace outcomes.

Are Organizational Justice Rules Gendered? Reactions to Men's and Women's Justice Violations

Drawing on research concerning gender stereotypes, Caleo (2016) argued that workplace supervisors may be evaluated more negatively when their treatment of subordinates violates societal gender norms. She reasons that because people stereotypically expect women to be more caring, sensitive, and supportive than men (i.e., more communal; Heilman & Okimoto, 2007), women might also be expected to be more interpersonally just (e.g., sensitive, respectful). For this reason, interpersonally unjust female supervisors might be evaluated more negatively than

interpersonally unjust male supervisors because their behaviour conflicts with stereotypically female gender roles, whereas no such "sensitivity" prescriptions exist for male supervisors.

In support of her arguments, Caleo (2016) found that gender had no effect on participants' evaluations of supervisors who adhere to interpersonal justice rules, but that female supervisors were evaluated more negatively (i.e., lower performance ratings and reward recommendations) than male supervisors for interpersonally unjust treatment. Further, she demonstrated that there are no such gender effects for forms of justice which are unrelated to gender stereotypes (i.e., procedural justice). Finally, she showed that observers evaluate interpersonal justice violations as less *acceptable* for female supervisors than for male supervisors.

Overall, Caleo's (2016) results establish that the stereotypes associated with a supervisor's identity (i.e., gender) affects how others react to their treatment of subordinates. However, because Caleo did not manipulate race in her experiments and used only "fairly White" names (e.g., Cathy vs. Kevin) it is unknown how her results would generalize to supervisors of other racial or ethnic groups. In fact, prior research has argued that the stereotypes held of women varies across racial/ethnic groups and has important implications for how female leaders are evaluated (Rosette, Koval, & Livingston, 2016). Another limitation of Caleo's study is that although she provides compelling circumstantial evidence that perceptions of unacceptability could mediate the interactive effect of gender and interpersonal justice on performance ratings and reward recommendations, she never formally tests this claim.

When Justice Promotes Injustice: Why Minority Leaders Experience Bias When They Adhere to Interpersonal Justice Rules

In another recent study, Zapata et al. (2016) investigate d whether a supervisor's race affects how they are evaluated for interpersonally just or unjust treatment. The authors

hypothesized that subordinates would be biased against Black and Hispanic supervisors when they *adhered* to interpersonal justice rules, but not when they violated them. Zapata et al. note that a key benefit of justice, protection from threat, would change the amount of attention subordinates pay to their supervisor's individuating characteristics. They argue that because interpersonally just treatment leads to more superficial cognitive processing (Folger, Cropanzano, & Greenberg, 2001) and paying close attention to the individuating characteristics of a target suppresses stereotype activation (Pratto & Bargh, 1991), racial/ethnic minority supervisors may experience bias when they are interpersonally just, but not when they are interpersonally unjust. They reasoned that this effect would be specific to interpersonal justice because it is the form of justice which they claim is "the form of justice most directly tied to supervisor actions" (p. 1151). They predicted this bias against Black and Hispanic supervisors to be mediated by perceptions of *deceitfulness*, based on previous research showing that these groups are stereotyped as being "deviant" (Henricks, 2011) or "deceitful" (Basler, 2010).

Zapata et al. (2016) found support for these predictions in both a field study of 165 subordinate-supervisor pairs and a laboratory experiment, which experimentally manipulated a supervisors' race and interpersonal justice in an experimental task. Specifically, they found that race had no impact on subordinates' evaluations of interpersonally unjust supervisors, but that whereas White male supervisors were evaluated more positively by their subordinates as interpersonal justice increased, interpersonally just Black and Hispanic male supervisors were evaluated the same as interpersonally unjust supervisors. Further, these race-based differences in subordinates' evaluations of their supervisors were partially mediated by the perceived deceitfulness of the supervisor. This mediation effect supports their reasoning that supervisors

would be evaluated on the basis of stereotype content when adhering to interpersonal justice rules.

A glaring limitation of Zapata et al.'s (2016) work is that although their field study surveyed 165 subordinate-supervisor dyads, fully 90% of the surveyed supervisors were Caucasian. This means that a mere seventeen ethnic minority supervisors were surveyed, raising significant questions about whether their field study findings are representative of ethnic minority supervisors. Also, because Zapata et al.'s research did not explicitly examine whether gender affected their results, it is currently unclear how these race-based biases would differ for supervisors of different genders.

Intersectionality in Workplace Diversity Research

Previous studies of workplace diversity, including the work of Caleo (2016) and Zapata et al. (2016), have tended to focus on a single "dimension" (e.g., gender *or* race) of identity. However, Shen and Dhanani (2015) argue that organizational scholars should consider multiple parts of individuals' identities simultaneously, claiming that the interactions between individuals' multiple identities are important for understanding both the formation of identity and the experience of exclusion in the workplace. Sawyer et al. (2013) give a similar call to action, encouraging researchers to study identity "the way it exists in reality" (p. 83).

Given this increasing awareness of the importance and impact of intersectionality, a number of studies have explored the impact of intersectional identities on supervisors' or leaders' workplace outcomes. For example, Livingston, Rosette, and Washington (2012) examined the consequences of agentic behaviour in the workplace and found that although White female leaders who behaved in a dominant way were conferred less status by observers, agentic Black women experienced no such penalty. In a separate study, Rosette and Livingston (2012) found

that Black female leaders experienced a much greater penalty than either White women or Black men when they were seen as unsuccessful.

These findings highlight the complexity of intersectional research. In some cases, individuals with multiple marginalized identities suffer greater discrimination; this experience is frequently referred to as *double jeopardy* (Rosette & Livingston, 2012), as affected individuals suffer increased discrimination based on their multiple identities and these effects are often interactive rather than simply additive. However, at other times, belonging to multiple marginalized groups can shield an individual from bias in particular circumstances (e.g., Livingston et al., 2012). This phenomenon is known in the literature as *intersectional invisibility*. Thus, although Caleo (2016) and Zapata et al. (2016) have documented bias due to gender and race *separately* in the domain of interpersonal justice, the question remains: Are race- and gender-based biases against interpersonally just and unjust supervisors additive or interactive effects? And, if these biases interact, do supervisors with intersectional identities experience double jeopardy or intersectional invisibility?

Extending Caleo (2016) and Zapata et al. (2016) Using an Intersectional Approach

In this section, I expand upon how race and gender might interact to shape how subordinates evaluate interpersonally just or unjust supervisory behaviours.

Because Black women were omitted from the studies of both Caleo (2016) and Zapata et al. (2016), the fundamental question in extending their research using an intersectional approach is how Black female supervisors are affected by deceitfulness stereotypes and prescriptive gender stereotypes. Compared to other groups (i.e., White men, White women, and Black men), Black female supervisors may be less subject to bias due to both perceived deceitfulness and prescriptive gender stereotypes. Previous research has shown that Black women are not subject

to the prescriptive gender stereotypes applied to White women, and experience less backlash

when they act in non-communal ways (e.g., Livingston et al., 2012). This finding suggests that

Black women could be immune to the harsh evaluations that interpersonally unjust White female

supervisors experience. Gender differences in racial stereotypes may also shield Black women

from the stereotypes of deceitfulness that impact Black male supervisors. Previous work has

found that Black women are seen as less "prototypical" of their race, which may buffer them

from the racial hostilities experienced by Black men (Livingston et al., 2012; Purdie-Vaughns

and Eibach, 2008). I therefore expect that deceitfulness stereotypes will affect evaluations of

Black female supervisors to a lesser degree than Black male supervisors. Together, this indicates

that Black women may experience intersectional invisibility in the interpersonal justice domain.

Hypotheses

With these perspectives in place, I now lay out my hypotheses, which integrate the

findings of both Caleo (2016) and Zapata et al. (2016) to understand how supervisors' race and

gender jointly affect the relationship between their subordinates' perceptions of interpersonal

justice and their evaluations of their supervisor.

Prior research has argued that there is a positive relationship between a supervisor's

interpersonal justice and subordinates' supervisor evaluations (e.g., Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson,

Porter, & Ng, 2001), and that this relationship is indicative of a positive social exchange between

subordinates and supervisors. I expect to replicate this basic finding in my results (Cropanzano,

Prehar, & Chen, 2002).

> ***Hypothesis 1***: Supervisors perceived to be higher in interpersonal justice will be
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> evaluated more positively than supervisors who are perceived to be lower in interpersonal
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> justice.

This main effect of interpersonal justice on supervisor evaluations will be further qualified by supervisor gender and race. In other words, the most general form of my intersectional hypothesis is that gender and race interact with interpersonal justice to affect subordinates' evaluations of their supervisors. Specifically, when supervisors are lower on interpersonal justice, I expect to replicate Zapata et al.'s (2016) finding that Black and White male supervisors are both evaluated negatively, but are not evaluated differently. I also expect to replicate Caleo's (2016) finding that subordinates evaluate interpersonally unjust White female supervisors more negatively than interpersonally unjust White men. Finally, as discussed in the previous section, I predict that Black female supervisors who are lower on interpersonal justice are rated similarly to White and Black male supervisors. I also predict that they will be evaluated more positively than White female supervisors because the prescriptive gender stereotypes that cause subordinates to evaluate unjust White female supervisors more negatively are not held of Black women.

In contrast, when supervisors are higher on interpersonal justice, I expect subordinates to evaluate White male supervisors more positively than all other groups, consistent with the findings of Caleo (2016) and Zapata et al. (2016). I predict that subordinates will evaluate White female supervisors who are high in interpersonal justice slightly less positively than interpersonally just White men, because White women tend to be conferred lower status when displaying dominant behaviour (Livingston et al., 2012). I also expect that subordinates will evaluate interpersonally just Black female supervisors less positively than interpersonally just White supervisors due to stereotypes of deceitfulness, but to a lesser degree than Black male supervisors. Thus, I anticipate replicating Zapata et al.'s (2016) finding that subordinates evaluate interpersonally just Black male supervisors more negatively than all other groups.

Hypothesis 2: There is a three-way interactive effect of supervisor interpersonal justice, race, and gender on subordinates' evaluations of their supervisors. Specifically, among supervisors lower in interpersonal justice, (a) there will be no differences in subordinates' evaluations of Black female, Black male, or White male supervisors, and (b) White female supervisors will be evaluated more negatively than all three of these groups. For supervisors higher in interpersonal justice, (c) subordinates will evaluate White male supervisors more positively than all three other groups, (d) subordinates will evaluate White female supervisors more positively than Black male and female supervisors, and (e) subordinates will evaluate Black female supervisors more positively than Black male supervisors.

Finally, I expect to replicate and extend the moderated mediation relationships reported by Zapata et al. (2016) and suggested by Caleo (2016). Specifically, supervisors' perceived deceitfulness and the perceived unacceptability of supervisors' treatment of their subordinates will mediate the three-way interaction of interpersonal justice, supervisor race/ethnicity, and supervisor gender on supervisor evaluations.

Hypothesis 3: Supervisors' perceived deceitfulness will mediate the interactive effect of supervisor interpersonal justice, gender, and race on subordinates' supervisor evaluations.

Hypothesis 4: The perceived unacceptability of supervisors' treatment of their subordinates will mediate the interactive effect of supervisor interpersonal justice, gender, and race on subordinates' supervisor evaluations.

Method

Participants and Procedures

To test my predictions, I conducted an online field survey. Participants were recruited using Amazon's Mechanical Turk crowdsourcing platform, which is a convenient and cost effective way to recruit a diverse sample of working adults which has been used successfully in numerous research studies (Mason & Suri, 2012), including for workplace survey research (Behrend, Sharek, Meade, & Wiebe, 2011). To facilitate the pre-screening of participants, reduce common method variance, and manage respondent fatigue, the study was administered in four parts: a demographic pre-screen survey, an organizational justice survey, a survey of potential mediating variables, and a survey of dependent measures assessing subordinates' evaluations of their supervisor.[1] Each survey was open to participants for 48 hours, with each survey separated in time by a 24-hour gap.

Given that stereotypes likely differ across cultural contexts, and previous research recruited respondents from the United States, only participants from the United States were invited to participate. In total, 2,981 participants completed the pre-screen survey, in which they indicated their own demographic characteristics as well as those of their immediate supervisor. This large sample was necessary to recruit a sufficient number of workers with supervisors from under-represented identity groups and to counteract attrition over the multi-part study. A subset of participants were invited to the main three-part study. Specifically, all participants who were currently working and reported directly to a Black or Hispanic supervisor (male $N = 125$, female $N = 145$) and a random draw of a similar number of participants who reported to a

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[1] Note that participants were told that the study was about their relationship with their immediate workplace supervisor, but were not told that race, gender, and interpersonal justice were primary variables of interest.

White supervisor were invited to continue (male $N = 145$, female $N = 147$), as White supervisors are much more prevalent in the population.[2] In total, 442 respondents completed all three parts of the main study (out of 678 invited; retention rate $= 65\%$). Of these responses, I excluded 29 respondents for providing mismatched supervisor initials across surveys as it was important that participants respond with a particular individual in mind. As also excluded 21 additional respondents for failing attention checks embedded in the surveys, and 64 participants who reported to Asian supervisors. Thus, the final sample for analyses was based on 324 participants.

The final sample of participants was predominantly White (72%), with smaller numbers of Black (10%), Hispanic (8%) and Asian (5%) participants. Respondents were equally split by gender (51% female); their mean age was 36 years ($SD = 10.01$); and, on average, they had 16.2 years of work experience ($SD = 9.88$). The majority of respondents worked full-time (75% worked 40 hours or more per week; $M = 40.35, SD = 8.14$) in a variety of industries. Of participants in this sample, 185 had White supervisors (50% Male) and 139 had Black or Hispanic[3] supervisors (54% Female). The majority of supervisors (55%) had worked for their organizations for between five and fifteen years. Subordinates had worked with their supervisor for an average of 3.59 years ($SD = 3.46$) and the majority (74%) reported interacting with their supervisors at least four times per week.

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[2] Although I did not generate hypotheses regarding other racial/minority groups besides Black supervisors, I also invited all respondents who were currently working and reported directly to an Asian supervisor (male $n = 66$, female $n = 50$) to continue to the main study on an exploratory basis. However, ultimately, only 64 participants with Asian supervisors (male $n = 39$, female $n = 25$) completed the main portion of the study. Given this small sample size, I excluded Asian supervisors from my final dataset and analyses given concerns regarding statistical power.

[3]Like Zapata et al. (2016), I will consider Black and Hispanic supervisors as a single group, because they are associated with similar stereotypes of deceitfulness (Basler, 2010; Henricks, 2011). I will refer to this group as "Black supervisors" for ease of presentation.

Measures

   Organizational Justice. In the first survey, participants rated their supervisor on the four

dimensions of organizational justice: *procedural justice* ($\alpha = .88$), *distributive justice* ($\alpha = .92$),

informational justice ($\alpha = .90$), and *interpersonal justice* ($\alpha = .90$). All four constructs were

measured using the "full-range" organizational justice scales introduced by Colquitt et al. (2015),

which assess both the adherence to and violation of organizational justice rules.

   Perceived Deceitfulness. In the second survey, participants rated the perceived

deceitfulness of their supervisor ($\alpha = .91$). Zapata et al. (2016) originally measured perceived

deceitfulness by asking participants "To what extent do you think the leader is deceptive?" using

a five-point agreement scale. In order to better ensure reliability, I created a new five item scale

based on the description of the "deceitfulness stereotype" given by Zapata et al. (2016), who

document previous research showing that Blacks have historically been stereotyped as

"deceitful" (Hall, Galinsky, & Phillips, 2015) and that Hispanics have been similarly stereotyped

as "treacherous, deceitful, [and] cunning" (Basler, 2010, p. 104). Participants were asked to rate

their agreement to the following statements: "[supervisor] appears to have ulterior

motives","[supervisor] is deceitful", "[supervisor] misleads others", "[supervisor] misrepresents

the truth", and "[supervisor] rarely says what he/she thinks". Respondents used the full range of

the scale (from 1 to 5), and although responses clustered toward the low end of the scale ($M =$

1.61, skew $= 1.82$) there was adequate variance among responses ($SD = 0.87$).

   Perceived Unacceptability. In the second survey, participants rated the perceived

unacceptability of their supervisor's behaviors ($\alpha = .90$). Caleo (2016) originally assessed the

perceived unacceptability of interpersonally unjust behaviour in an experimental context.

Participants read a description of an employee who committed several workplace misbehaviors

and asking participants to rate "How often would it be okay for [employee] to [engage in target

behaviour]" on a six-point scale. Unacceptability scores were created by the aggregating

respondents' perceived unacceptability ratings of four interpersonal justice misbehaviors.

Because Caleo's method would not generalize to a field research context, as I could not control

the behaviour of the supervisor, I created a four-item scale to measure the perceived

unacceptability of a supervisor's interactions with their subordinates. Caleo argues that "the

negative consequences that result from justice rule and gender stereotype violations stem from

the degree to which the behavior is seen as counter-normative, and consequently, unacceptable"

(p. 7). To capture this mechanism, I asked participants the rate the extent to which their

supervisors "act in an unprofessional way", "violate professional norms", "treat [them] in an

inappropriate way", or "treat subordinates in ways that should not be allowed" during

interactions with subordinates. The distribution of responses was similar to the perceived

deceitfulness scale, with a slightly stronger positive skew (range from 1 to 5; $M = 1.49$, skew $=$

2.14, $SD = 0.81$).[4]

Supervisor Evaluations. In the third and final survey, participants evaluated their

supervisor in several areas, including the primary outcome variables considered in previous

studies. These included *overall supervisor fairness* (Rodell & Colquitt, 2009; α = .94) and

subordinates' willingness to engage in *organizational citizenship behaviours* (OCBs; Liden &

Maslyn, 1998; α = .75), which were key dependent variables in Zapata et al. (2016), as well as

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[4] In the second survey, I also assessed *agency* ($\alpha = .88$) and *communality* ($\alpha = .92$; Heilman & Okimoto, 2007), *trust in management* ($\alpha = .90$; Treadway et al., 2004), and *moral outrage* ($\alpha = .93$; Okimoto & Brescoll, 2010) as other potential mediating mechanisms. Note that when assessing moral outrage, I also included a number of positive emotions ($\alpha = .91$) as filler items to convey a more neutral tone in the survey. However, none of these constructs were found to act as mediating mechanisms for the observed interactions.

performance ratings (Caleo, 2016; α = .86) and *reward recommendations* (Allen & Rush, 1998;

α = .92), which were featured in Caleo's studies.

<div align="center">**Results**</div>

To test my hypotheses, I conducted a series of multiple regression analyses,

supplemented by data visualization, which I detail below. The correlation matrix of relationships

among study variables can be found in Table 1.

Control Variables

I included a number of control variables in my multiple regression analyses. Specifically,

I controlled for subordinate-supervisor differences in race and gender. This control eliminates

potentially adverse supervisor evaluations due to subordinates' dissimilarity from their

supervisor, as racial/ethnic minority supervisors are relatively uncommon in the population

compared to White supervisors. To control for differences in familiarity and contact across

participants, which may affect supervisor evaluations, I controlled for both the number of hours

that subordinates typically work in a week and the number of years that the subordinate had

worked with their supervisor. Finally, I controlled for whether the subordinate was White (or

not); I did this because the sample was predominantly White, and race-based biases could be

caused by White subordinates' discrimination against ethnic minority supervisors. Although

these control variables are theoretically derived and appropriate, note that I also conducted the

same analyses without any control variables, and the same pattern of results were observed.

Interpersonal Justice and Supervisor Evaluations

Hypothesis 1 predicted a positive relationship between interpersonal justice and all

measures of subordinates' evaluations of their supervisors. Consistent with this hypothesis, there

was a main effect of interpersonal justice on overall supervisor fairness ($\beta = 0.837$, $t(306) =$

9.844, $p < 0.001$), performance ratings ($\beta = 0.572$, $t(305) = 4.225$, $p < 0.001$), OCBs ($\beta = 0.415$, $t(305) = 2.689$, $p < 0.001$), and reward recommendations ($\beta = 0.602$, $t(304) = 4.778$, $p < 0.001$).

Interactions Between Supervisor Interpersonal Justice, Gender, and Race on Evaluations

Dependent Variable Correlations. All measures of supervisor evaluations were positively correlated (see Table 1). These correlations were strongest among overall fairness, performance ratings, and reward recommendations (intercorrelations ranged from $r = .70$ to $r = .82$); OCBs were less strongly correlated with other types of evaluations (intercorrelations ranged from $r = .43$ to $r = .58$).

Overall Supervisor Fairness. Multiple regression analyses revealed a main effect of interpersonal justice on overall fairness ($\beta = 0.837$, $t(306) = 9.844$, $p < 0.001$), but nonsignificant main effects of gender ($\beta = 0.103$, $t(306) = 0.200$, $p = 0.707$) and race ($\beta = 0.342$, $t(306) = 0.637$, $p = 0.234$). Furthermore, this main effect was not qualified by any interactions (see Figure 3, Table 2), failing to support Hypothesis 2 for overall fairness.

Performance Ratings. Multiple regression analyses revealed a main effect of interpersonal justice on performance ratings ($\beta = 0.572$, $t(305) = 4.225$, $p < 0.001$), but nonsignificant main effects of gender ($\beta = 0.397$, $t(305) = 0.465$, $p = 0.323$) and race ($\beta = 0.407$, $t(305) = 0.497$, $p = 0.288$). However, these main effects were qualified by a significant three-way interaction of supervisor interpersonal justice, gender, and race ($\beta = 1.103$, $t(305) = 3.813$, $p = 0.025$). Visual inspection[5] of Figure 4 indicates that there is a positive relationship

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[5] Visual inspection of my data visualizations was used to assess differences in effects among supervisors of different identities, because simple slopes analyses was determined to be beyond the scope of this thesis. Inter-group effect differences are also assessed informally in the supplemental analyses below.

between interpersonal justice and performance ratings for all supervisors, regardless of their race and gender, and that there are no race or gender differences among supervisors higher on interpersonal justice. However, among supervisors lower in interpersonal justice, White male supervisors and Black female supervisors were evaluated most positively. Relative to these two groups, White female supervisors were evaluated somewhat more negatively, as predicted. However, contrary to my predictions, Black male supervisors were evaluated the most negatively compared to the other three groups. Thus, these results partially support Hypothesis 2 for performance ratings.

  Organizational Citizenship Behaviour. Analyses also revealed a main effect of interpersonal justice on OCB ($\beta = 0.415$, $t(305) = 2.689$, $p < 0.001$), but nonsignificant main effects of gender ($\beta = 0.569$, $t(305) = 0.584$, $p = 0.195$) and race ($\beta = 0.629$, $t(305) = 0.672$, $p = 0.133$). The main effect of interpersonal justice on OCB was qualified by a two-way interaction of gender and race ($\beta = -1.375$, $t(305) = -0.938$, $p = 0.010$) and a three-way interaction of supervisor interpersonal justice, gender, and race ($\beta = 1.391$, $t(305) = 4.211$, $p = 0.010$). Visual inspection of Figure 5 reveals an interaction very similar to the one uncovered for performance ratings, such that supervisors from different groups were evaluated similarly when higher on interpersonal justice, but White female and Black male supervisors were evaluated more harshly than White male and Black female supervisors among those lower on interpersonal justice, partially supporting Hypothesis 2.

  Reward Recommendations. Analyses revealed a main effect of interpersonal justice on reward recommendations ($\beta = 0.602$, $t(304) = 4.778$, $p < 0.001$), but nonsignificant main effects of supervisor gender ($\beta = 0.268$, $t(304) = 0.335$, $p = 0.485$) and race ($\beta = 0.311$, $t(304) = 0.407$, $p = 0.392$). The main effect of interpersonal justice was qualified by a two-way

interaction of gender and race ($\beta = -0.932$, $t(304) = -0.777$, $p = 0.043$) and a three-way

interaction of supervisor interpersonal justice, gender, and race ($\beta = 0.974$, $t(304) = 3.593$, $p = 0.036$). Visual inspection of Figure 6 reveals a pattern similar to performance ratings and OCB,

except that White female supervisors were rated the same as White male and Black female

supervisors. This result is less consistent with Hypothesis 2 than the effects of reward

recommendations and OCB, but is relatively consistent with my other findings.

Mediating Mechanisms

I predicted that perceived deceitfulness and unacceptability would mediate the interactive

relationship between supervisor interactional justice, gender, and race on supervisor evaluations.

Thus, I first examined whether supervisor interpersonal justice, race, and gender interacted to

predict perceived deceitfulness and unacceptability in the same form as I had found for three of

my four dependent variables (i.e., performance ratings, OCBs, and reward recommendations).

Results revealed that there was a nonsignificant three-way interaction of supervisor

interpersonal justice, gender, and race on perceived deceitfulness ($\beta = -0.290$, $t(287) = -1.436$,

$p = 0.486$; see Table 3). Thus, perceived deceitfulness could not serve as the mediating

mechanism for my previously observed interactive effects, failing to support Hypothesis 3. In

contrast, there was a significant three-way interaction of supervisor interpersonal justice, gender,

and race ($\beta = 1.116$, $t(287) = 6.795$, $p = 0.005$; see Table 3) on ratings of perceived

unacceptability. However, visual inspection of this three-way interaction depicted in Figure 7

indicates that the pattern of intergroup differences is notably dissimilar to those uncovered for

supervisor evaluations presented in the previous sections. Specifically, Black female supervisors

lower on interpersonal justice were perceived to treat their subordinates *more* unacceptably

compared to supervisors in other groups (i.e., White men, White women, Black men) lower on

interpersonal justice. Although this finding is intriguing, it cannot explain the pattern of results found in my analysis of subordinates' evaluations of their supervisors, which suggests that Black women are *less* penalized for less interpersonally just behavior compared to Black men and White women and similar to White men, failing to support Hypothesis 4.

Supplemental Analyses

Full-Range Justice Measurement. The new full-range organizational justice scales developed by Colquitt et al. (2015) are exciting new tools for organizational justice research. However, these new scales were introduced relatively recently, and the possibility remains that *positive* and *negative* organizational justice behaviours are distinct constructs which should be measured separately (i.e., fairness and unfairness may not be opposites). Given that Colquitt et al.'s measure includes both items tapping justice and injustice, I repeated the same set of analyses as above separately using only "justice" and "injustice" items. Both sets of analyses revealed the same pattern of results and interactions found above, justifying my decision to use the full-range justice scales as unified instruments.

Distinctiveness of Interpersonal Justice. The stereotypes involved in this study should be most pertinent and relevant to interpersonal justice and treatment. In order to evaluate this assertion, I repeated the same set of analyses as above, substituting interpersonal justice with distributive justice, procedural justice, and informational justice in turn. Results reveal that there were no significant interactions in any of these models, indicating that the interactive effects of gender and race with organizational justice on supervisor evaluations are unique to interpersonal justice. This is notable because the four dimensions of organizational justice are highly correlated.

Combining of Black and Hispanic Supervisors. Consistent with the methods of Zapata et al. (2016) and based on prior research suggesting the deceitfulness stereotype is relevant to both groups (Basler, 2010; Henricks, 2011), I combined Black and Hispanic supervisors into a single group for my analysis. To ensure that this approach was sound and appropriate, I re-ran the analyses first only including Black supervisors, followed by only including Hispanic supervisors. In each set of analyses, the pattern of results was identical to my primary analyses. Furthermore, I also compared Black and Hispanic supervisors directly and found that both the main effect of race and the interactive effects of race were nonsignificant predictors of every variable of interest, suggesting that these two groups are more similar than different with regards to the variables of interest in the current study.

Statistical Tests of Group Differences. Although simple slopes analyses of inter-group differences were determined to be out of the scope of this thesis, I supplemented my higher-level regression models with a series of "pairwise" regression analyses to assess differences between pairs of supervisor identities.

These analyses revealed that, although Black male supervisors were significantly different from White male and Black female supervisors, White female supervisors were not significantly different from any of the other groups. This raises the possibility that the negative evaluations of interpersonally unjust Black Male supervisors were wholly responsible for the three-way interaction observed.

In addition to being outside of the scope of this thesis, these analyses are considered "supplemental" because they may not be sufficiently powerful to detect differences among supervisor groups. However, simple effects tests are vitally important for a rigorous assessment

of my results, and future work should use such methods to compare White female supervisors to

supervisors with different identities.

Discussion

My results show that supervisors who treat their subordinates with a greater degree of

interpersonal justice are evaluated more positively by their subordinates, regardless of the

supervisor's race and gender. However, these results also indicate that the relationship between

interpersonal justice and the positivity of subordinates' evaluations varies for supervisors with

different intersectional identities.

Among supervisors higher in interpersonal justice, my analyses did not reveal any

differences in evaluation among supervisors of different identities, which suggests that gender

and race stereotypes do not cause subordinates to negatively evaluate supervisors higher in

interpersonal justice. These results contradict my prediction that, among supervisors higher in

interpersonal justice, subordinates would evaluate White male supervisors most positively,

followed by White female supervisors, Black female supervisors, and Black male supervisors.

Therefore, my findings contradict the results reported by Zapata et al. (2016), and call into

question their argument that subordinates are biased against ethnic minority supervisors who are

high in interpersonal justice.

Among supervisors lower in interpersonal justice, my results confirmed my predictions

that Black female supervisors would experience intersectional invisibility and thus be evaluated

similar to White male supervisors, whereas White female supervisors would be evaluated more

negatively than White male supervisors. However, contrary to my hypotheses, Black male

supervisors lower in interpersonal justice were evaluated more negatively than supervisors in all

three other groups.[6] These results once again contradict Zapata et al.'s (2016) finding that Black

male supervisors do not experience biased evaluations compared to White men when lower in

interpersonal justice, implying that racial stereotype content can indeed bias subordinates'

evaluations when they feel personally threatened by a supervisor's actions.

Comparisons with Caleo (2016)

My results replicated Caleo's (2016) finding that White female supervisors lower in

interpersonal justice are evaluated more negatively than White male supervisors lower in

interpersonal justice. However, I did not find any evidence of Caleo's claim that these gender

differences are caused by the perceived unacceptability of supervisors' interpersonal justice

violations.

Because Caleo did not explicitly test whether perceived unacceptability mediated

observers' biased evaluations of White female supervisors, it is possible that my findings are a

true negative result. As can be seen in Figure 7, inter-group differences in perceived

unacceptability were opposite the pattern of differences observed in supervisor evaluations.

Supervisors in groups that were evaluated more negatively for interpersonally unjust treatment

(i.e., Black men and White women) were perceived as treating subordinates in ways that were

more acceptable than interpersonally unjust supervisors in other groups (i.e., White men and

Black women). This result provides evidence against Caleo's claim that unacceptability is the

mechanism which causes identity-based differences in subordinates' evaluations of

interpersonally unjust supervisors. This result also raises the possibility that perceived

unacceptability may itself be a form of bias experienced by workplace supervisors. Future

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[6] The exception to these results was overall supervisor fairness, which had no race or gender differences across the entire range of interpersonal justice. I believe that this may be an indication that overall fairness was not sufficiently distinct from interpersonal justice ($r = .64$) for these differences to occur.

research should evaluate this possibility by testing whether perceived unacceptability negatively affects supervisors' workplace outcomes.

Conversely, my failure to detect Caleo's hypothesized mediation effect could also be attributed to differences in methodology. For example, whereas my field survey assessed how subordinates evaluate their own workplace supervisor, Caleo studied the evaluations of independent observers who had no relationship with the supervisor in question. A potential explanation of my results is that subordinates and independent observers both negatively evaluate White female supervisors who are lower in interpersonal justice, but that they do so for different reasons. Future research should consider whether potential mediation relationships are conditional on variables in supervisor-observer relationships, such as dependence and vulnerability. Such a difference could arise, for example, if independent observers focus to a greater degree on the violation of social and professional roles, whereas subordinates who are dependent on their supervisor for distributive outcomes focus to a greater degree on other variables such as perceived personal threat.

My failure to substantiate Caleo's hypothesized mediation effect could also be explained by differences in how Caleo and I measured perceived unacceptability. Specifically, my perceived unacceptability scale asked subordinates to rate the acceptability of their supervisor's interpersonal treatment of subordinates *in general*, whereas Caleo was able to ask observers to rate the unacceptability of specific behaviours that violated interpersonal justice rules. Thus, these differences could cause our different measurement techniques to assess different latent constructs. To address these possibilities, future research should test Caleo's mediation hypothesis using an experimental methodology similar to her original research.

Implications for Zapata et al. (2016)

My results are inconsistent with Zapata et al.'s claim that ethnic minority supervisors experience bias only when they are high in interpersonal justice. Zapata et al. hypothesized that only interpersonally just supervisors would experience bias, because subordinates threatened by supervisors lower in interpersonal justice would pay more attention to the individuating characteristics of their supervisor, inhibiting the effects of stereotype content on subordinates' evaluations. Instead, I consistently observed the opposite pattern; systematic differences in stereotypes, evaluations and other outcomes were observed only among supervisors *lower* in interpersonal justice. Furthermore, my analysis did not reveal any effects of race or gender on supervisors' perceived deceitfulness, nor any evidence that perceptions of deceitfulness cause race- or gender-based bias against workplace supervisors.

It is possible that Zapata et al.'s (2016) field survey results were not replicated because of the serious limitations of their original research. As previously noted, Zapata et al.'s field study was seriously limited by a sample whose small number of ethnic minority supervisors were unlikely to be representative of ethnic minority supervisors in general. Furthermore, my study used a similar methodology to Zapata et al.'s field study, making it unlikely that differences in our study design would account for differences in our results.

However, despite the flaws of Zapata et al.'s field research and my failure to replicate their findings, it is important to note that Zapata et al.'s field results were successfully replicated in their follow-up experimental study. This replication strengthens Zapata et al.'s findings, and imply that additional research is required to determine the robustness of Zapata et al.'s results.

Mediating Mechanisms

My results suggest that perceived deceitfulness and unacceptability may not account for subordinates' biased evaluation of interpersonally unjust supervisors. Moreover, my supplemental analyses indicated that agency, communality, trust, and moral outrage did not mediate identity-based differences in evaluation. Thus, my results leave us with an interesting pattern of intersectional outcomes, but no theoretical framework to explain these results. However, I believe that the search for explanatory mechanisms is important, and I will suggest possible mediators which should be considered in future research. Candidate mediators must be able to account for the biases experienced by Black men and White women, as well as the lack of bias experienced by Black women.

First, one possible explanation of my results is that the effects of prescriptive (and proscriptive) stereotypes are mediated by subordinates' *attributions* of whether supervisors' interpersonally unjust behaviour is caused by their personality (i.e., dispositional variables) or by external factors (i.e., situational variables). Livingston et al. (2012) found that attributions accounted for identity-based differences in the relationship between expressions of dominance and leader status, and argue that attributions are an appropriate proxy for normative gender and race stereotypes:

> If dominance is proscribed for Black men and White women, then internal attributions
> should be higher for Black men and White women who "break the rules" by behaving
> dominantly than for Black men and White women who behave normatively by adhering
> to prescribed stereotypes. (Livingston et al., 2012, p. 356)

A similar pattern could explain my findings, if further research found that subordinates attribute the interpersonally unjust behaviour of Black men and White women to their disposition, but

attribute the interpersonally unjust behaviour of White men and Black women to situational variables. By providing an alternative method of testing the consequences of normative stereotype violations, this framework suggests that future research could confirm Caleo's original mediation hypothesis. This framework is especially promising because it parsimoniously explains bias against both Black men and White women, as well as the intersectional invisibility of Black women.

Alternatively, my results may have been caused by some other consequence of gender and race stereotypes that was not assessed in my study. For example, subordinates' perceptions of threat may mediate identity-based differences in their evaluations of interpersonally unjust supervisors. Unlike Zapata et al.'s claim that perceptions of personal threat would reduce racial bias against supervisors, a threat-based framework based on my results would imply that perceptions of threat *magnify* the effects of interpersonally unjust treatment. This framework would also imply that biased evaluations of interpersonally unjust supervisors could be moderated by other factors which intensify or diminish the perceived threat of interpersonally unjust behaviour. For example, interpersonally unjust supervisors with a greater degree of control over distributive outcomes could be perceived as more threatening by subordinates, because their subordinates would be more vulnerable to the negative consequences of unjust treatment.

This framework can explain subordinates' biased evaluations of both Black men and White women, as well as accounting for the intersectional invisibility of Black women. Because White women are generally stereotyped as being more communal (i.e., warm, supportive, and non-threatening), interpersonally unjust White women could be perceived as more threatening if subordinates are more sensitive to threats originating from unexpected sources. If substantiated,

this finding would imply that subordinates react negatively to interpersonally unjust White female supervisors because their behaviour violates *descriptive* stereotypes (as opposed to Caleo's prediction that bias is caused by violations of *normative* stereotypes). In addition to possibly explaining subordinates' biased evaluations of White women, this logic accounts for the intersectional invisibility of Black women: Because Black women are generally stereotyped as less communal than White women (Livingston et al., 2012) Black female supervisors may be a less unexpected source of threat than White female supervisors, resulting in a lesser negative reaction to unjust treatment.

Identity-based differences in perceived threat could also mediate biased evaluations of Black men, who have been shown to be perceived as more threatening than individuals in other groups (Livingston et al., 2012). Unlike White women, Black men may be stereotyped as less communal than other groups, which may intensify concerns of subordinates who feel threatened by an interpersonally unjust supervisor. This explanation is also consistent with intersectional invisibility because Black women are seen as less threatening than Black men (Livingston et al., 2012; Purdie-Vaughns and Eibach, 2008).

Taken as a whole, this explanation suggests that stereotypes of communality could cause biased evaluations of groups who are stereotyped as being especially high or low in communality, but not groups with more moderate communality stereotypes. An important qualification to this hypothesis is that a communality-based framework seems inconsistent with my finding that perceptions of communality do not mediate subordinates' biased evaluations of supervisors. However, because communality continues to be the dominant framework for understanding descriptive and prescriptive gender stereotypes (e.g. Heilman & Okimoto, 2007; Heilman, 2001) it is possible that future research might contradict my current findings.

Furthermore, future research may find that other methods of measuring communality, which assess whether observed behaviour violates *expectations* of communal interpersonal treatment, could yield a different pattern of results.

Limitations

My study has several limitations. First, despite the advantages of surveying real-world subordinate-supervisor relationships, correlational research is notoriously vulnerable to confounds and is relatively weak evidence for causal relationships. Thus, future research should attempt to replicate my findings in an experimental context where supervisor interpersonal justice, gender, and race may be experimentally manipulated. This could be achieved by randomly assigning participants to be supervised by individuals with different identities. If attempting to replicate my results, researchers should attempt to re-create a "real world" supervisor-subordinate relationship as realistically as methodologically possible; in particular, researchers should attempt to simulate subordinates' dependence on supervisors, to introduce the possibility of personal "threat" when supervisors are interpersonally unjust (as in Zapata et al., 2016). Simulating the dependence relationship typical of "real world" subordinate-supervisor relationships would also enable future research regarding potential mediators of biased evaluations which relate to subordinates' experiences of personal threat.

My research was also limited by studying a fairly narrow range of supervisor identities. Generalizing previous research to consider Black female supervisors is an important contribution to our understanding of how intersectionality influences supervisors' workplace outcomes. However, this study also exists within a research context in which "intersectional research" is frequently implemented as "research of Black and White men and women" (as in Rosette and Livingston, 2012; Livingston, Rosette, and Washington, 2012). Future research should consider a

broader range of racial identities, such as Asian supervisors, who may also experience biased evaluations when low in interpersonal justice. This research should consider the descriptive and prescriptive stereotypes associated with men and women of other ethnicities, and consider assessing whether differential attributions or perceived threat mediate identity-based differences in supervisor evaluations.

Conclusion

My results add to a growing literature on differences in workplace outcomes among individuals with different intersectional identities; in particular, my finding that Black women are shielded from biased identity-based evaluations when interpersonally unjust reinforces the complexity of intersectional research. However, it is important to avoid framing intersectional invisibility as an "unexpected advantage" for individuals with multiple marginalized identities, because the same societal stereotypes which protect individuals from bias in certain situations cause greater degrees of discrimination in others (Rosette & Livingston, 2012).

Finally, my results show that treating subordinates with dignity and respect is in the best interest of workplace supervisors who wish to be evaluated positively by their subordinates. However, even though supervisors' actions help create the conditions under which biased evaluations may occur, it is crucial to remember that it is gender and race stereotypes, not supervisors, that are the root cause of these biases. To reduce the impact of identity-related biases, subordinates and higher-level managers should be mindful of how stereotypes may contribute to negative evaluations of interpersonally unjust supervisors — not because supervisors' interpersonal injustice should be tolerated, but because organizations should strive to reduce all forms of injustice for subordinates and supervisors alike.

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Appendix

Table 1

Summary of Intercorrelations for Supervisor Race and Gender; Organizational Justice;
Perceived Deceitfulness and Unacceptability; and Subordinates' Evaluations of Supervisors.

	Race	Gender	PJ	DJ	IPJ	IFJ	PU	PD	OSF	PR	OCB	RR
Race	1.00	-0.04	0.02	0.00	-0.04	-0.01	0.06	0.07	-0.09	-0.08	-0.06	-0.09
Gender	-0.04	1.00	-0.06	-0.03	0.01	-0.05	-0.05	-0.01	-0.01	-0.03	0.00	-0.05
Procedural Justice	0.02	-0.06	1.00	0.72*	0.63*	0.74*	-0.47	-0.58	0.64*	0.50*	0.50*	0.56*
Distributive Justice	0.00	-0.03	0.72*	1.00	0.55*	0.63*	-0.40	-0.48	0.55*	0.46*	0.37*	0.45*
Interpersonal Justice	-0.04	0.01	0.63*	0.55*	1.00	0.72*	-0.73	-0.69	0.79*	0.50*	0.30*	0.56*
Informational Justice	-0.01	-0.05	0.74*	0.63*	0.72*	1.00	-0.58	-0.69	0.77*	0.64*	0.41*	0.66*
Perceived Unacceptability	0.06	-0.05	-0.47	-0.40	-0.73	-0.58	1.00	0.78*	-0.68	-0.51	-0.18	-0.51
Perceived Deceitfulness	0.07	-0.01	-0.58	-0.48	-0.69	-0.69	0.78*	1.00	-0.75	-0.58	-0.34	-0.61
Overall Fairness	-0.09	-0.01	0.64*	0.55*	0.79*	0.77*	-0.68	-0.75	1.00	0.70*	0.43*	0.73*
Performance Ratings	-0.08	-0.03	0.5*	0.46*	0.50*	0.64*	-0.51	-0.58	0.70*	1.00	0.50*	0.82*
Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	-0.06	0.00	0.5*	0.37*	0.30*	0.41*	-0.18	-0.34	0.43*	0.50*	1.00	0.58*
Reward Recommend.	-0.09	-0.05	0.56*	0.45*	0.56*	0.66*	-0.51	-0.61	0.73*	0.82*	0.58*	1.00

Note: *$p < .05$

Table 2

Standardized Regression Coefficients and Standard Error for the Effects of Interpersonal Justice, Gender, and Race on Subordinates' Evaluations of Workplace Supervisors.

	Dependent variable:			
	Fairness	Performance	OCB	Rewards
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Gender Difference	0.036	0.028	−0.016	0.034
	(0.067)	(0.107)	(0.123)	(0.101)
Subord. Work Hours	−0.019	−0.001	0.052	−0.033
	(0.004)	(0.007)	(0.007)	(0.006)
Race Difference	0.057	0.093	−0.006	0.175
	(0.154)	(0.244)	(0.279)	(0.230)
Dyad Tenure	0.016	0.002	0.184***	0.073
	(0.010)	(0.015)	(0.017)	(0.014)
White Subordinate	−0.048	−0.154*	−0.006	−0.162*
	(0.104)	(0.164)	(0.188)	(0.154)
Interpersonal Justice	0.837***	0.572***	0.415***	0.602***
	(0.085)	(0.135)	(0.154)	(0.126)
Supervisor Gender	0.342	0.397	0.569	0.268
	(0.537)	(0.854)	(0.975)	(0.799)
Supervisor Race	0.103	0.407	0.629	0.311
	(0.516)	(0.820)	(0.936)	(0.765)
IPJ x Gender	−0.328	−0.434	−0.586	−0.327
	(0.121)	(0.192)	(0.219)	(0.180)
IPJ x Race	−0.070	−0.436	−0.699	−0.285
	(0.114)	(0.182)	(0.207)	(0.169)
Gender x Race	−0.312	−1.086*	−1.375**	−0.932*
	(0.807)	(1.282)	(1.465)	(1.200)
IPJ x Gender x Race	0.243	1.103*	1.391**	0.974*
	(0.182)	(0.289)	(0.330)	(0.271)
Constant	0.000	0.000	0.000**	0.000
	(0.441)	(0.703)	(0.802)	(0.655)
Observations	319	318	318	317
R^2	0.633	0.285	0.146	0.355

Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001

Table 2: Multiple regression models predicting overall supervisor fairness, performance ratings, organizational citizenship behaviour, and reward recommendations. Includes standardized regression coefficients, and standard error in parentheses.

Table 3

Standardized Regression Coefficients and Standard Error for the Effects of Interpersonal Justice, Gender, and Race on Subordinates' Evaluations of Workplace Supervisors.

	Dependent variable:	
	Perceived Unacceptability	Perceived Deceitfulness
	(1)	(2)
Gender Difference	−0.057	−0.025
	(0.061)	(0.075)
Subord. Work Hours	0.005	0.054
	(0.004)	(0.005)
Race Difference	−0.034	−0.071
	(0.140)	(0.172)
Dyad Tenure	0.086*	0.022
	(0.009)	(0.011)
White Subordinate	0.002	0.063
	(0.093)	(0.115)
Interpersonal Justice	−0.510***	−0.629***
	(0.079)	(0.097)
Supervisor Gender	0.713*	0.239
	(0.488)	(0.600)
Supervisor Race	1.127***	0.127
	(0.473)	(0.581)
IPJ x Gender	−0.688*	−0.220
	(0.110)	(0.135)
IPJ x Race	−1.071***	−0.084
	(0.105)	(0.129)
Gender x Race	−1.173**	0.228
	(0.727)	(0.894)
IPJ x Gender x Race	1.116**	−0.290
	(0.164)	(0.202)
Constant	0.000***	0.000***
	(0.411)	(0.505)
Observations	300	300
R^2	0.571	0.504
Note:		*p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001

Table 3: Multiple regression models predicting perceptions of deceitfulness and unacceptability. Includes standardized regression coefficients, and standard error in parentheses.
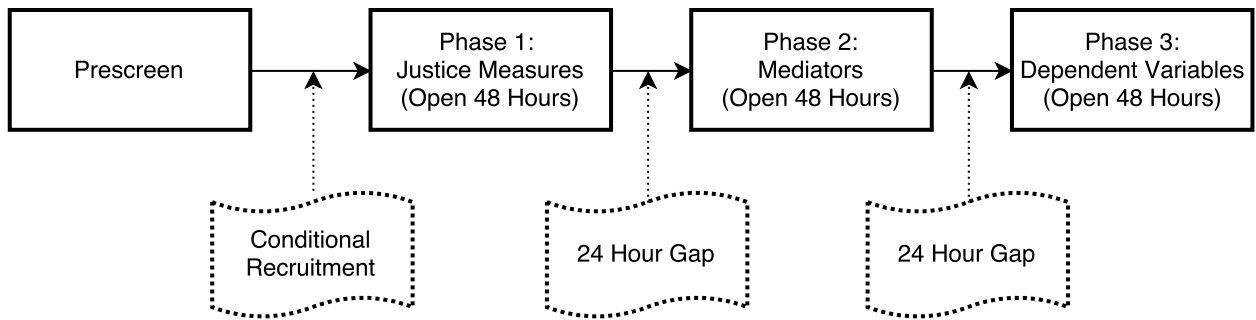
Figures

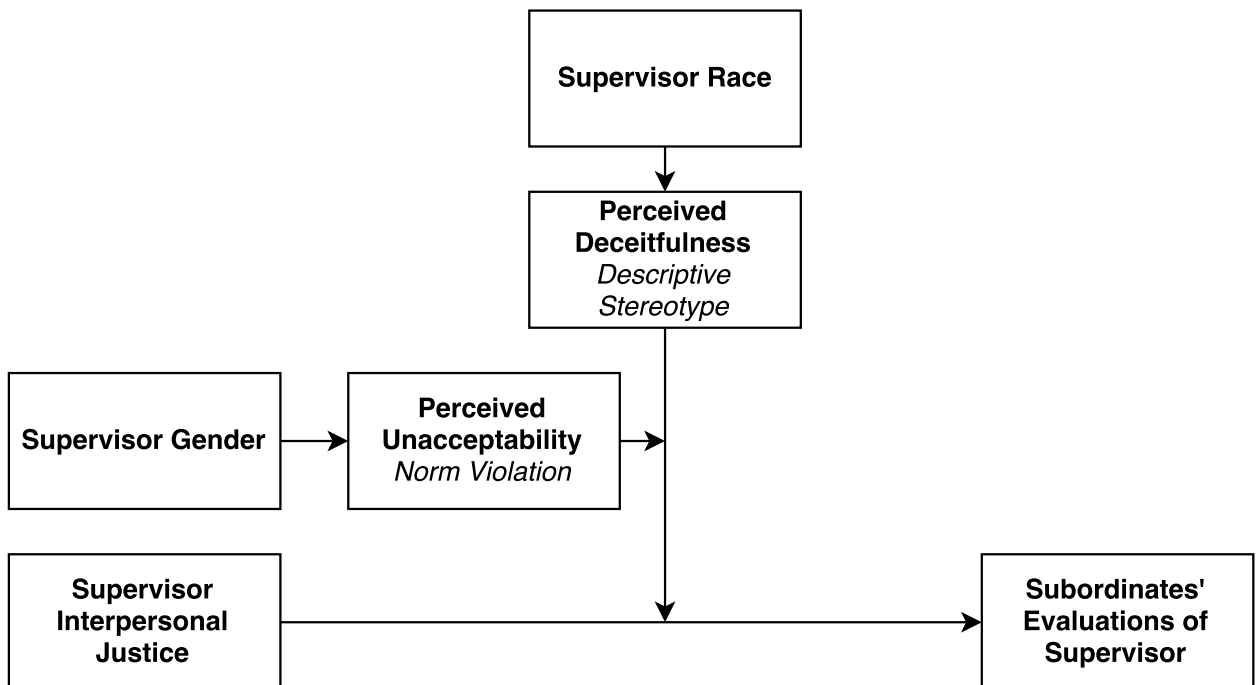**Figure 1**: A schematic diagram of the four-part survey structure.

Figure 2: A visual depiction of the three-way interaction described in Hypothesis 2, and the mediation relationships described in Hypotheses 3 and 4.
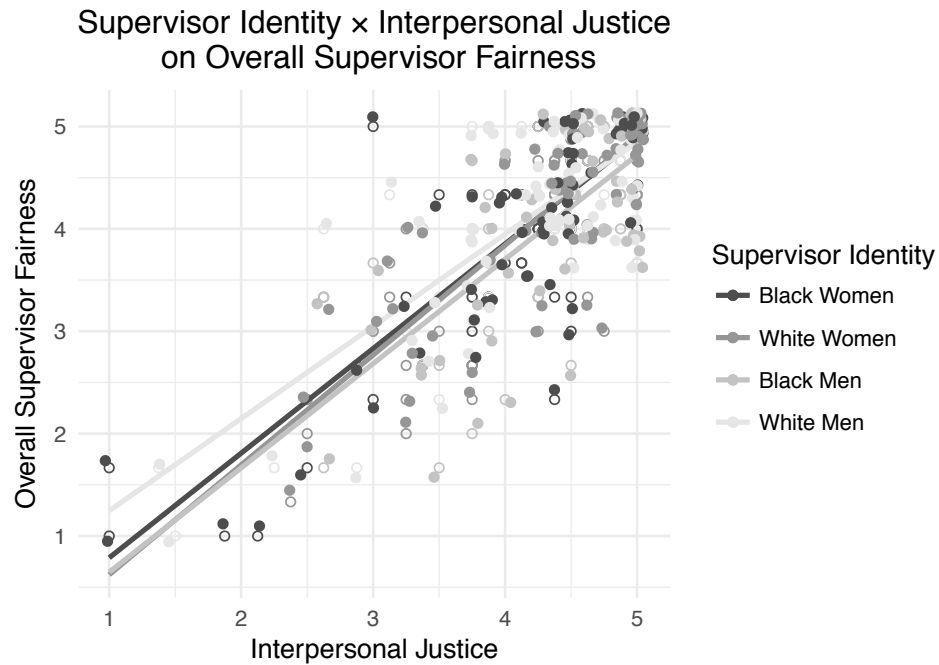
Figure 3: There were no gender or race differences in subordinates' evaluations of overall supervisor fairness.
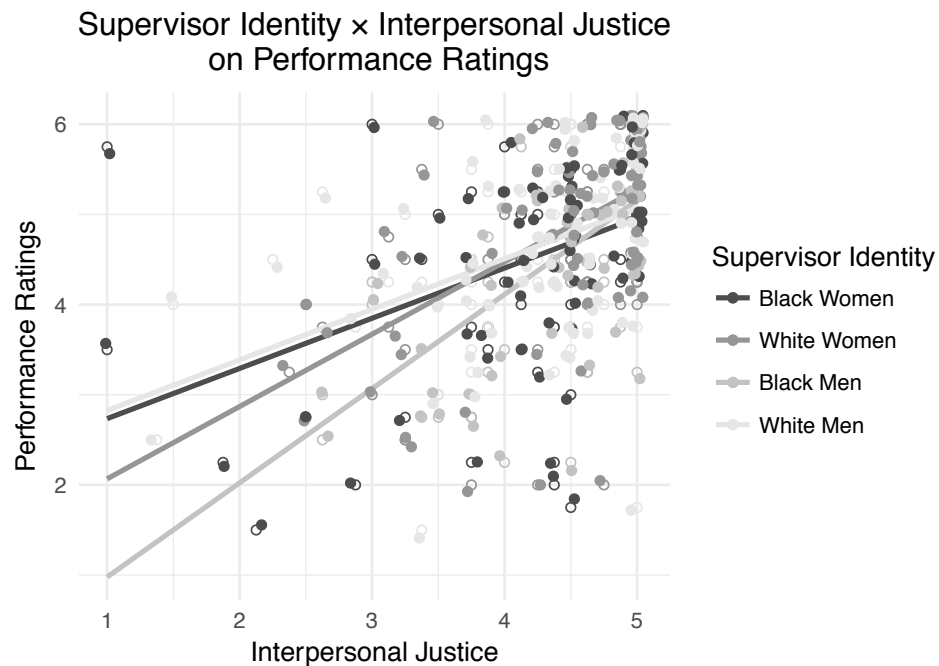
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Figure 4: Compared to White men and Black women, interpersonally unjust White women and Black men received more negative performance ratings when lower in interpersonal justice, but not when high in interpersonal justice.
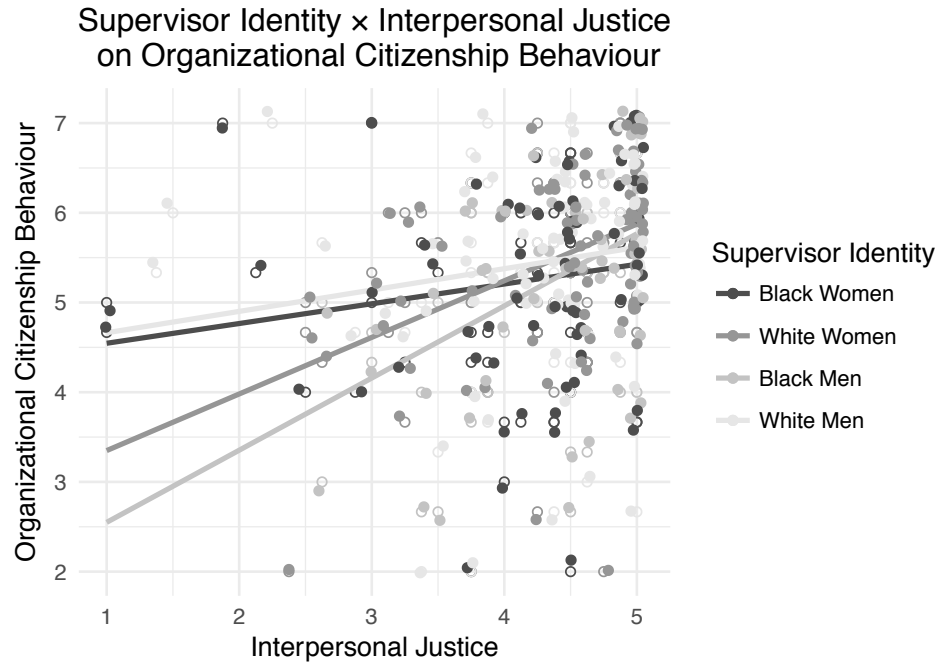
Figure 5: Compared to White men and Black women, the subordinates of White women and Black men are less likely to engage in organizational citizenship behaviours for supervisors lower in interpersonal justice.
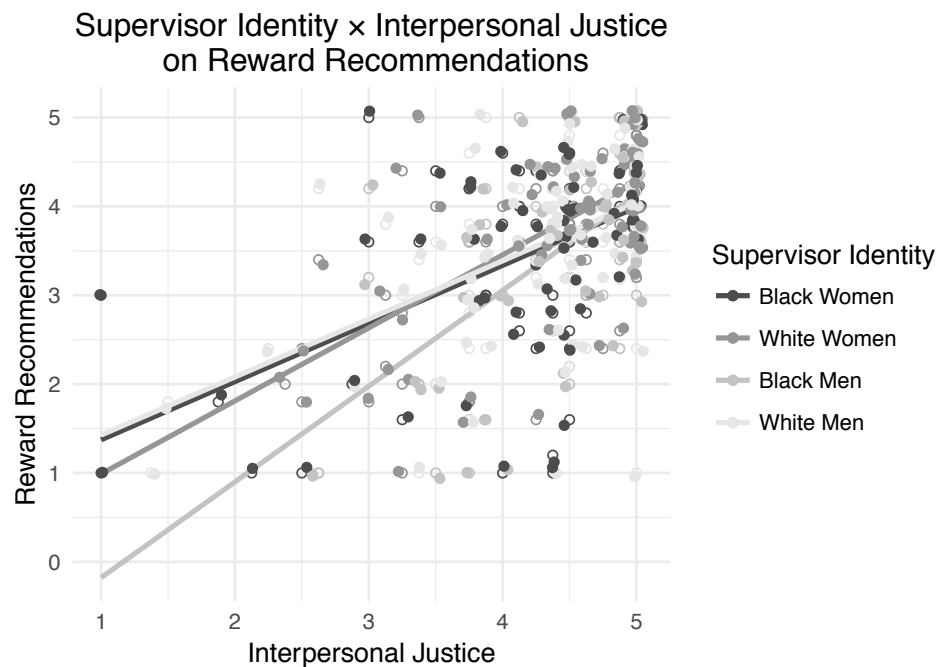

Figure 6: Compared to other groups, Black male supervisors receive lower reward recommendations when they are interpersonally unjust.
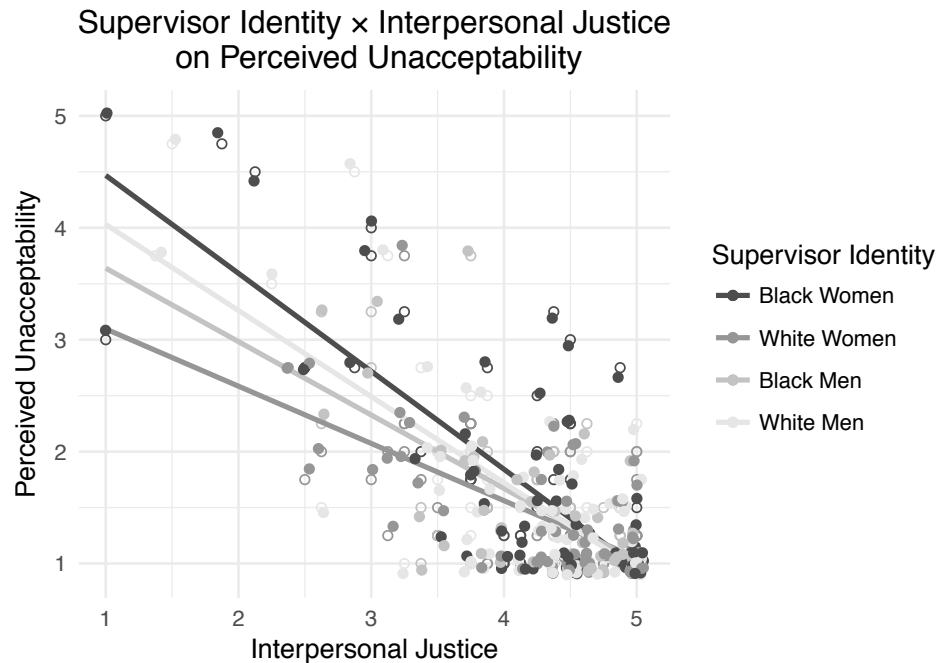
Figure 7: The effect of perceived unacceptability, race, and gender does not resemble the three-way interaction observed for subordinates' evaluations of supervisors, disqualifying perceived unacceptability as a mediator of those effects.
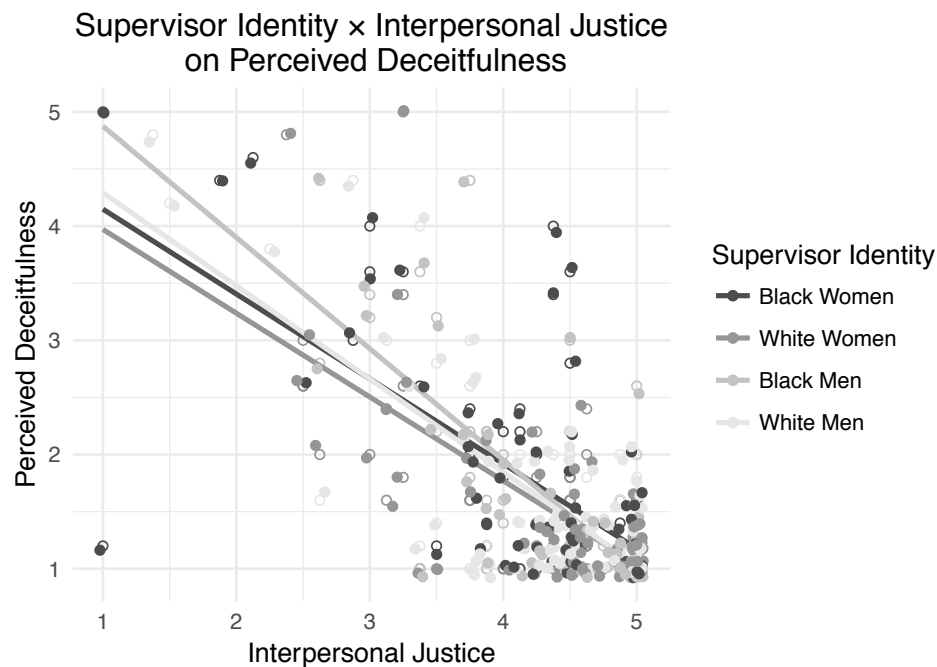

Figure 8: There was a nonsignificant three-way interaction of interpersonal justice, gender, and race on supervisors' perceived deceitfulness, disqualifying it as a mediator of identity-based differences in subordinates' evaluations of supervisors.