

# ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE AND CULTURAL VALUES IN TEAMS

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## **Abstract**

Research on organizational justice and cultural values has focused on the vertical relationship between authority figures and employees, neglecting the horizontal relationship between team members. In accordance with the recently introduced concept of peer justice, we investigate the moderating role of cultural values on the relationship between distributive justice and task performance in self-managed teams. Drawing on justice theories and cultural value theory, we propose contradicting hypotheses about the influence of cultural values. To evaluate the contradicting hypotheses, we conducted a longitudinal study with 448 self-managed team members. Our findings demonstrate that distributive justice effects on task performance are stronger for members with high individualism, high power distance, low uncertainty avoidance, and high femininity scores. Differences between the present results and those of Shao and colleagues' meta-analysis (2013) are discussed. We conclude with implications for future research and practice.

**Keywords:** Organizational justice, peer justice, cultural values

Meta-analytical evidence exists about the positive impact of organizational justice on affective, attitudinal, and behavioral outcomes (Colquitt et al., 2013; Rupp et al., 2014). Due to its subjectivity, organizational justice is expected to be influenced by cross-cultural differences (Greenberg, 2001; Leung, 2005). However, most empirical justice studies have been conducted in the US context with US employees (Beugré, 2007). To generalize previous justice findings, future studies should therefore take the employees' cultural values into account (Shao et al., 2013).

Previous research on organizational justice and cultural values has centered on the vertical relationship between authority figures (supervisor or organization) and employees (Shao et al., 2013), ignoring the horizontal relationship between peers. Li and colleagues (2013: 563) have recently introduced the concept of peer justice, defined as "team-level judgments of the fairness with which coworkers generally treat one another". Accordingly, cross-cultural justice research should widen its scope by investigating whether the influence of peer fairness perceptions on workplace outcomes is dependent on the employees' cultural values.

In this paper, we present precisely such an approach. We advance cross-cultural justice research by considering the moderating role of Hofstede's cultural values (2001) on the relationship between distributive justice and task performance (TP) in self-managed teams. Drawing on justice theories and cultural value theory, we propose and test competing hypotheses about the role of justice motives and cultural values. This analysis makes three main contributions. First, fairness perceptions among team members are investigated. Second, we analyze which justice motives are salient among self-managed team members in dependence of their cultural values. Third, we expand peer justice research by introducing the individual peer justice perspective.

## **Definitions of Organizational Justice in the Context of Teams**

Organizational justice (the study of fairness perceptions in the workplace) is usually classified in distributive justice (fairness of decision outcomes), procedural justice (fairness of decision-making procedures), interpersonal justice (fairness of interactions), and informational justice (fairness of communications) (Colquitt, 2001). The traditional relationship of analysis is the relationship between authority figure and employee (Colquitt, 2008), ignoring that fairness perceptions of employees can be influenced by the behavior of their colleagues (Kirkman et al., 1996, 2000; Rupp, 2011). Today's workplace is often characterized by high autonomy and responsibility for employees (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008). Employees have today more decision-making power to influence outcomes, procedures, norms of interpersonal treatment, and the provision of social accounts (Lavelle et al., 2007, 2009). Ignoring peer-focused justice can therefore result in an incomplete view about the employee's fairness experience (Li & Cropanzano, 2009a; Rupp & Paddock, 2010). For example, Cropanzano and colleagues (2011, 2013) have demonstrated that team members' peer justice perceptions of how they treat each other have a significant impact on team organizational citizenship behavior, team performance, and team satisfaction.

Although peer justice is a first step in the right direction, one gap is identified with regard to the level of analysis. Peer justice research focuses on the general way of how team members treat each other (Cropanzano et al., 2007, 2011; Lavelle et al., 2009; Li et al., 2009a, 2013; Roberson & Williamson, 2012), neglecting the individual level in teams. To address this gap, we introduce the individual peer justice perspective. Useful and valuable information can be provided by incorporating the individual peer justice perspective in teams. If we analyze only the team level, as past research did it (e.g., Li et al., 2013), we neglect possible differences of team members' peer fairness perceptions. In other words, we consider teams

with the same mean level of peer fairness perceptions and with a different variance level as equal teams. This has to be criticized, as a high variance with regard to individual peer fairness perceptions can exist in the team (see Figure 1). In particular diverse teams, like multinational teams, can have team members, whose individual peer fairness perceptions differ extremely from their teammates' perceptions due to stereotyping, prejudices, or categorization processes (Stone-Romero & Stone, 2005). The previous approach of peer justice research masks such differences and does not provide information at the individual level of analysis.

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We focus on distributive justice, since previous peer justice research has ignored this justice dimension (Cropanzano et al., 2011; Lavelle et al., 2009; Roberson & Williamson, 2012). We define peer distributive justice at the individual level as the individual team member's perceived fairness of outcome allocations that he or she receives from teammates. In today's organizations, classical management activities like task assignments, distribution of workload and responsibilities, and scheduling are often conducted by self-managed team members (Banker et al., 1996; Kirkman et al., 2000, 2001). That means team members have decision-making power about the distribution of appreciation, tasks, workload, praise, rewards, responsibilities, and assignments (Blader et al., 2010; Lavelle et al., 2007; Neville & Brodt, 2010; Roberson & Williamson, 2012). Even performance evaluations and promotion decisions could be part of the scope of members' activities (Kirkman et al., 1996, 2000). This clearly demonstrates the importance of considering distributive justice among team members.

## **Definitions of Cultural Values**

Cross-cultural management research is based on cultural values (Kirkman et al., 2006; Taras et al., 2010), which are defined as desirable modes of behavior (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998) or as commonly shared meanings and assumptions of individuals with similar cultural and nationality backgrounds that guide their thinking and behavior (Hofstede, 2001). Hofstede (2001) introduced a value concept of culture based on the dimensions collectivism-individualism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity-femininity. Employees high in individualism define their personal self based on individual characteristics, whereas employees high in collectivism define their personal self based on group characteristics (Hofstede, 2001; see also Fischer et al., 2009; Jackson et al., 2006). Power distance can be defined as the extent to which individuals accept power differences in the workplace (Hofstede, 2001). Uncertainty avoidance describes the extent to which employees accept and tolerate uncertainty in the workplace (Hofstede, 2001). Another cultural dimension of Hofstede's framework is called masculinity-femininity, describing the employees' focus on either masculine or feminine values (Hofstede, 2001).

Numerous scholars argue that the individual level is the appropriate level of analysis for cultural values (e.g., Clugston et al., 2000; Dierdorff et al., 2011; Dorfman & Howell, 1988; Gelfand et al., 2007; Jackson et al., 2006; Kirkman et al., 2001, 2009; Lian et al., 2012; Maznevski et al., 2002). It is questioned that nations represent a useful unit of analysis for value research, since only 3% to 18% variance resides between nations, compared to 82% to 92% variance within nations (Steel & Taras, 2010). We adopt this view and analyze and measure cultural values at the individual level.

## **Theory and Hypotheses**

### ***The impact of distributive justice on TP***

One of the most investigated and popular outcomes in organizational justice research is TP (Colquitt et al., 2013). TP describes the effectiveness, quality, and mission fulfillment of formal tasks, responsibilities, and duties, which are determined by authority figures and which are necessary to fulfill the technical core tasks and services of the organization (Ancona & Caldwell, 1992; Befort & Hatrup, 2003; Motowidlo et al., 1997). Based on instrumental, relational, moral, and uncertainty-related motives, it is expected that perceptions of authority-focused distributive justice increase task performance (Blader & Tyler, 2005; Cropanzano et al., 2001a). A recently conducted meta-analysis provides evidence for the robustness and strength of authority-focused distributive justice effects on TP (Colquitt et al., 2013). As the justice motives are valid for the team context (Cropanzano et al., 2011; Li et al., 2013), teammate-focused distributive justice should also exercise a positive influence on the team member's TP.

### ***The Moderating Role of Cultural Values***

Justice is considered as a universal need (Beugré, 2007; Leung & Tong, 2004; Li & Cropanzano, 2009b), but its definition, interpretation, and implementation can differ across cultures (Greenberg, 2001; Leung, 2005). Therefore, it is necessary to investigate cultural values as moderators of the distributive justice-TP relationship (see Figure 2). Such a moderator approach is able to capture the cultural dependency of justice perceptions. We will draw on Hofstede's value framework, as it was tested and confirmed in numerous countries. In addition, a theoretical fit exists between Hofstede's values and the organizational justice framework (Shao et al., 2013). Drawing on justice theories and cultural value theory, we present in the following competing hypotheses about the impact of cultural values on the distributive justice-TP relationship.

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### ***The Impact of Collectivism-Individualism on the Distributive Justice-TP Relationship***

Team members high in individualism focus on their personal goals and interests (Fischer et al., 2009; Hofstede, 2001; Jackson et al., 2006). At the same time, they neglect group and organizational goals, as they want to guarantee first their individual success. Their behavior is based on and shaped by their individual norms and attitudes. Therefore, it can be expected that the self-interest model of justice (Adams, 1965; Conlon, 1993; Thibault & Walker, 1975) is particularly well suited to explain the reactions of team members high in individualism toward distributive justice.

According to the self-interest-model of justice, people care about justice to maximize their self-interests and outcomes (Cropanzano et al., 2001b). Consequently, experiencing distributive injustice from teammates, individualistic members may react strongly to this injustice, as they could believe that their future outcomes in the team are threatened. Moreover, the perceived unfair reception of important workplace outcomes like appreciation, interesting tasks, and responsibilities could bring the members to believe that their position in the team is challenged. This could be a strong behavioral motive to reduce their engagement in team-related work activities and to focus on their individual work and interests. The result could be a reduced TP. It is important for team members high in individualism to have the feeling and perception to control their outcomes (Shao et al., 2013; Shapiro & Brett, 2005; Steiner, 2001). This feeling and perception of control can be established through distributive

justice, as the reception of future outcomes in the team is guaranteed (Colquitt, 2001). The experience of distributive justice may further lead to the perception that the personal success and advancement in the team is ensured. As a result, individualistic members may be more motivated to increase their efforts to provide high-quality work. In conclusion, based on the self-interest model of justice, we suggest:

*Hypothesis 1a: Collectivism-individualism moderates the distributive justice-TP relationship. Distributive justice effects are stronger for individualistic than for collectivistic team members.*

Contrary to individualistic members, collectivistic members prefer to work in groups (Fischer et al., 2009; Hofstede, 2001; Jackson et al., 2006). They are willing to sacrifice their individual goals in order to achieve the group goals (Chen et al., 2002). The team is often one main part of the social identity of collectivistic members. They base their identity on team values, attitudes, and beliefs. The maintenance of good interpersonal relationships with in-group members is a very important behavioral motive for collectivistic members. They try to be accepted and respected by their in-group. Accordingly, the group engagement model (Blader & Tyler, 2009; Tyler & Blader, 2003) fits very well to explain the distributive justice reactions of collectivistic people.

The group engagement model argues that people care about fairness to satisfy their needs of belonging and positive self-esteem (Blader & Tyler, 2005; Cropanzano et al., 2001b). Fairness also provides information about the status of individual members in their social group. Consequently, experiencing teammate-focused distributive justice indicates that the individual is a highly valued and respected member of the team. The positive result may be a high team identification that has a positive influence on TP (Kearney et al., 2009; Somech et al., 2009; van der Vegt & Bunderson, 2005). Distributive justice may therefore create the basis for higher motivation to fulfill one's missions and to perform one's tasks effectively. Contrary to collectivistic people, individualistic people attach less importance to group norms and attitudes. They do not rely on their teammates and emphasize personal goals. Thus, their motivation to increase their TP should depend less on distributive justice. Taken together, by drawing on the group engagement model, we contradict Hypothesis 1a:

*Hypothesis 1b: Collectivism-individualism moderates the distributive justice-TP relationship. The distributive justice effects are stronger for collectivistic than for individualistic team members.*

### *The Impact of Power Distance on the Distributive Justice-TP Relationship*

Team members low in power distance do not tolerate power and status inequalities in the team (Hofstede, 2001; Kirkman et al., 2001, 2009). The rules apply for every member in the same way. That means power and status differences do not justify a low quality treatment of low status members. For example, low power distance members would not accept distributive injustice from high status members. They may try to punish the perpetrators in order to restore distributive justice. Such a punishment could be expressed in terms of reducing their TP in the team. In their opinion, it is morally wrong to treat low status members in an unfair way.

Due to the moral association of unfair treatment toward low status members, the deontic model of justice (Cropanzano et al., 2003) seems to be a useful theoretical framework to explain the distributive justice effects of low power distance members. The deontic model of justice proposes that people value justice, because it guarantees human dignity and worth (Cropanzano et al., 2001b). Justice norms can be considered as moral norms (Folger, 1998, 2001). If high status members violate these moral norms by treating low status members with distributive injustice, negative emotions or even deontic anger could develop (Folger &

Cropanzano, 2001), leading to reduced TP (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). If moral norms are not upheld in the team, it is likely that the members disassociate themselves from the team. As a consequence, they perform ineffectively their tasks. Thus, distributive justice effects on TP should be stronger for members with a low power distance orientation.

In contrast, high power distance members accept the unequal distribution of power in the team (Hofstede, 2001; Kirkman et al., 2001, 2009). They attribute more rights to high status members. Consequently, distributive unfairness experienced from high status members may be tolerated without any contradictions (Lian et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2013). They could even consider it as normal if high status members treat low status members in a distributive unfair way, justified by their higher status. They do not consider this situation as morally wrong. Experiencing distributive unfairness from high status teammates, high power distance members may not engage in challenging or confronting these persons, since they have lower fairness expectations due to their lower status (Brockner et al., 2001; Kirkman et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2013; Steiner, 2001). As a consequence, their work efforts and motivation to provide high-quality work is less influenced by distributive justice from teammates. In accordance with the deontic model of justice we suggest:

*Hypothesis 2a: Power distance moderates the distributive justice-TP relationship. Distributive justice effects are stronger for low power distance than for high power distance members.*

Power distance refers to the relationship between manager and employee (Clugston et al., 2000; Hofstede, 2001; Kirkman et al., 2009). That means Hypothesis 2a can be challenged in a team context. It is possible that power distance plays a different role in the relationship between team members, who have often the same status and power. High power distance members have low distributive fairness expectations, if the authority figure is considered as the source of fairness (Beugré, 2007; Kirkman et al., 2009; Steiner, 2001). To correct the possible supervisor-focused distributive unfairness, high power distance members may rely on their teammates. Being treated fairly by teammates may compensate the experienced unfairness from supervisor. Therefore, it is likely that high power distance members have high distributive fairness expectations toward teammates. As a result, the reactions of high power distance members toward teammate-focused distributive justice could be very strong. In contrast, low power distance members have high supervisor-focused distributive fairness expectations. Therefore, they could attach less importance to teammate-focused distributive fairness. They may believe that their status and their reception of high outcomes are guaranteed by supervisor-focused distributive justice, so that they are not dependent on teammate-focused distributive justice. Based on these arguments, we propose:

*Hypothesis 2b: Power distance moderates the distributive justice-TP relationship. Distributive justice effects are stronger for high power distance than for low power distance members.*

### *The Impact of Uncertainty Avoidance on the Distributive Justice-TP Relationship*

Team members high in uncertainty avoidance have a strong need to reduce uncertainty in their work environment (Hofstede, 2001; Rapp et al., 2011). These members prefer stability and predictability in their workplace. That is why they attach a high importance to rules, norms, and standard procedures, which have all the possibility to reduce workplace-related uncertainty. Based on their common focus on uncertainty, it seems to be obvious that uncertainty avoidance and the uncertainty perspective of organizational justice (Lind & van den Bos, 2002; van den Bos, 2009) are closely related to each other.

According to the uncertainty perspective of justice, people value justice for its ability to reduce uncertainty. Past research about the uncertainty perspective of justice, including the

fairness heuristic theory (Lind, 2001) and the uncertainty management theory (van den Bos & Lind, 2002), has demonstrated that fairness in the workplace reduces uncertainty, leading to positive workplace outcomes (van den Bos, 2009). An effective possibility to reduce uncertainty in teams and to establish perceptions of stability and predictability is the implementation of distributive justice among team members (van den Bos & Lind, 2002). The establishment of distributive justice is often related to the development of team rules and norms about the allocation of important team outcomes like workload, tasks, appreciation, and responsibilities (Colquitt, 2001), creating the basis for predictability. Accordingly, team members high in uncertainty avoidance should have a high need to experience teammate-focused distributive fairness, as it is able to reduce their uncertainty-related concerns.

In contrast, members low in uncertainty avoidance have no concerns to work in an uncertain environment (Hofstede, 2001; Rapp et al., 2011). These employees even consider rules and norms as disturbing, hampering their creativity and innovation in the workplace. They prefer to work in an unregulated environment that is characterized by spontaneity and flexibility. Distributive fairness from teammates is therefore less important for them with regard to uncertainty-reducing effects. They need not clear rules and norms about the distribution of outcomes in order to focus on their work and provide high-qualitative results.

*Hypothesis 3: Uncertainty avoidance moderates the distributive justice-TP relationship. Distributive justice effects are stronger for high uncertainty avoidance than for low uncertainty avoidance team members.*

#### *The Impact of Masculinity-Femininity on the Distributive justice-TP Relationship*

Team members high in masculinity are described as people having masculine values. Put differently, they are motivated by personal achievement, status symbols, money, and personal advancement (Hofstede, 2001; Vitell et al., 2003). They like to work in a workplace that is characterized by competition, in which only the most performing and most assertive employees are able to advance and to “survive”. The social side in the workplace is neglected. Interpersonal relationships are only considered as means of getting desirable outcomes. Consequently, the self-interest model of justice (Adams, 1965; Conlon, 1993; Thibault & Walker, 1975) can be applied to employees with a masculinity orientation.

According to the definition of the masculinity orientation, team members focus on their self-interests in terms of personal career and success. This focus on self-interest is congruent with the self-interest model of justice. Therefore, distributive fairness from teammates may be valued for the sake of guaranteeing the reception of favorable team outcomes in the future, protecting self-interests in the long-term. Teammate-based distributive fairness may bring these members to believe that the basis for receiving favorable team outcomes in the future is created. The reception of favorable outcomes is highly related to distributive justice (Brockner et al., 2009). Distributive fairness provides them with the security that their effort and engagement will be recompensed, so that they are willing to improve their TP in order to increase their chances for desirable outcomes. In contrast, experiencing teammate-based distributive unfairness, they may think that it is not ensured that their engagement will be rewarded. Consequently, their TP could suffer as a consequence of lower work motivation and engagement.

*Hypothesis 4a: Masculinity-femininity moderates the distributive justice-TP relationship. Distributive justice effects are stronger for team members with a masculinity than with a femininity orientation.*

Femininity can be considered as the opposite of masculinity. Team members with a femininity orientation value interpersonal relationships in the workplace (Hofstede, 2001; Vitell et al., 2003). It is important for them to work in a harmonious workplace that is



characterized by solidarity and loyalty. They try to have a good relationship with their teammates and supervisors. They are even willing to sacrifice personal interests in order to not disrupt the harmony in the workplace. Based on the attached importance to interpersonal relationships in the workplace, the group engagement model (Blader & Tyler, 2009; Tyler & Blader, 2003) can be utilized to explain the reactions of team members high in femininity toward distributive justice.

In line with the group engagement model, team members high in femininity may care about distributive justice, because it conveys information about their social standing in the team. It also indicates the respect and the value that teammates attribute to the individual member. Distributive justice can therefore create the basis for positive interpersonal relationships that are highly valued by members with a femininity orientation. Having harmonious relationships with teammates and working in a fair environment, the individual member is likely to identify with the team (Lind & Tyler, 1988). TP may be the positive result of distributive justice and team identification. Therefore, the group engagement model should fit better to explain the reactions toward distributive justice of members high in femininity. These members do not pay such a high attention to the realization of material self-interests, making the self-interest model of justice less valid for them.

*Hypothesis 4b: Masculinity-femininity moderates the distributive justice-TP relationship. Distributive justice effects are stronger for team members with a femininity orientation than for members with a masculinity orientation.*

The presented hypotheses above (except Hypothesis 3) include contradicting predictions about the moderating role of cultural values on distributive justice effects. To evaluate these contradicting hypotheses, empirical research is required to provide information about the validity of the respective justice theories.

## **Methods**

### ***Sample and Procedures***

The hypotheses were tested with self-managed teams composed of marketing students (Master level). Self-managed teams have not a formal team leader and are characterized by high autonomy (Banker et al., 1996). Self-managed teams were chosen to highlight the importance of fairness-related behavior among team members (Roberson & Williamson, 2012). The team members were responsible for outcome distributions, decision-making procedures, social norms of interpersonal treatment, and the provision of social accounts (see also Blader et al., 2010; Neville & Brodt, 2010; Roberson & Williamson, 2012).

The participants came from a large French University. The teams had 6 weeks to prepare a written report and an oral presentation. All team members have received the same grade for this team task, emphasizing strong interdependence among members. The team size ranged between three and six members. In total, 448 students participated, resulting in a response rate of 91%. The research sample was characterized by high nationality diversity. In total, 22 nations were present. 62% of the participants came from France. The other participants came from Algeria, Belgium, Benin, Bosnia, Burkina Faso, Cameroun, China, England, Germany, Greece, Italy, Ivory Coast, Madagascar, Mexican, Morocco, Netherlands, Portugal, Rumania, Spain, Tunisia, and Vietnam. 60% of the participants were women.

Self-report surveys were distributed in the end of the classes. The measurement was conducted after around 7 weeks, few days after the oral presentation and the deadline for the written report. The measurement was not directly conducted after the presentation to avoid the emotional influence on the responses.

## **Measures**

The participants were asked to respond to a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Different anchors were used for the scale of task performance: 1 (below average) to 5 (above average). A professional translator was paid to translate the original scales into French. As the authors are bilingual, they verified the translation and discussed with the translator possible misunderstandings.

*Individualism-collectivism* was measured with a uni-dimensional scale composed of three items, developed by Earley (1993). The three items have been used frequently in previous cultural value studies (e.g., Ng et al., 2011; Schaubroeck et al. 2007). A sample item is “One does better working alone than in a group”.

*Power distance* was measured with a 3-item scale. The three items have been developed by Dorfman and Howell (1988). Their power distance scale has been used widely by cultural value researchers (e.g., Farh et al., 2007; Ng et al., 2011). “Employees should not disagree with management decisions” is an item example.

*Masculinity-femininity* was assessed with a 4-item scale that was developed by Vitell and colleagues (2003). A sample item is “It is important for me that I outperform others in my team”.

*Uncertainty avoidance*. To measure uncertainty avoidance, three items were used that were developed by Dorfman and Howell (1988). “Standard operating procedures are helpful to employees on the job” is one of the three items.

*Distributive justice from teammates* was assessed with three items that were adapted from the scale of Kim and Leung (2007). Colquitt’s distributive justice scale (2001) was not used, as it only refers to the allocation norm of equity. However, it is likely that the allocation norms of equality and need play an important role in the present team context. Therefore, it was more appropriate to capture distributive justice with a direct measure. A sample item was for example “The outcomes I receive from my team-mates are quite fair.” To measure perceived teammate-focused distributive justice, the referent of the items changed from the organization to teammates. The instruction asked the respondents to refer to outcomes (e.g., workload, responsibilities, tasks, appreciation, support, material, punishment) that they receive from teammates.

*Task performance*. To assess TP, the respondents were asked to evaluate their own performance with regard to the following three criteria effectiveness, mission fulfillment, and quality. “Please evaluate yourself in an objective and neutral way compared to your teammates with respect to the following criteria ...” was used as instruction. This approach to measure TP was developed by Ancona and Caldwell (1992). Van der Vegt and Bunderson (2005) and Hempel and colleagues (2009) used the same approach.

*Control*. Team size and gender dissimilarity were included as control variables. Gender dissimilarity was calculated through the D-score (e.g., Tsui, Egan, & O’Reilly, 1992). The results did not differ, when the control variables were included.

## **Confirmatory Factor Analysis**

The hypotheses included six factors: Collectivism-individualism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity-femininity, distributive justice, and TP. The resulting model provided a good fit to the data,  $\chi^2(137) = 331.904$ ; comparative fit index (CFI) = .96; Tucker-Lewis fit index (TLI) = .94; standardized-root-mean-square residual (SRMR) = .05; root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .05. Furthermore, all factor loadings were statistically significant, ranging from .52 to .95. The average of the loadings was .76.

## Results

### *Descriptive Statistics*

Means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and zero-order correlations among the variables are presented in Table 1.

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### *Hypothesis Testing*

To test the hypotheses, we used hierarchical moderated regression analyses. All variables were mean centered prior to analyses (Aiken & West, 1991). When the interaction terms had significant beta coefficients, we used Aiken and West's (1991) procedure ( $\pm 1$  SD) to plot the interactions.

#### *Test of Hypothesis 1*

Hypothesis 1a proposed that distributive justice should be a stronger predictor of TP for team members high in individualism, whereas Hypothesis 1b proposed that distributive justice should be a stronger predictor for members high in collectivism. To evaluate which of these opposing hypotheses is right, we applied a hierarchical moderated regression analysis. This analysis contained three hierarchical steps (Aiken & West, 1991). First, the control variables were examined. Second, the main effects of distributive justice and collectivism-individualism were entered in the equation. Third, the interaction term of distributive justice and collectivism-individualism was added.

The results in Table 2 demonstrate that the interaction term reached significance ( $\beta = .091$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Figure 3 graphically represents the two-way interaction between distributive justice and collectivism-individualism. As shown in Figure 3, the impact of distributive justice on TP is stronger for team members high in individualism. Simple slope analysis added further support that the distributive justice effects are stronger for individualistic members ( $\beta = .476$ ,  $p < .001$ ) than for collectivistic members ( $\beta = .294$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Hypothesis 1a is therefore supported, whereas Hypothesis 1b is rejected.

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#### *Test of Hypothesis 2*

Hypothesis 2a states that the effect of distributive justice on TP should be stronger for low power distance team members, whereas Hypothesis 2b states that the effect should be stronger for high power distance members. As shown in Table 2, the interaction term reached significance ( $\beta = .320$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Distributive justice had stronger effects for team members high in power distance (Figure 4). Simple slope analysis confirmed this finding by showing that distributive justice effects were stronger for high power distance members ( $\beta = .555$ ,  $p < .001$ ) than for low power distance members ( $\beta = -.085$ ,  $p > .05$ ). Therefore, Hypothesis 2a is rejected, whereas Hypothesis 2b is confirmed.

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INSERT FIGURE 4 ABOUT HERE  
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### *Test of Hypothesis 3*

Hypothesis 3 proposed that the distributive justice effects on TP should be stronger for team members with a high uncertainty avoidance orientation. The regression results revealed the significance of the interaction term ( $\beta = -.262, p < .001$ ) (Table 2). Figure 5 illustrates the interaction term, which did not function in the hypothesized direction. Distributive justice was a stronger predictor of TP for team members low in uncertainty avoidance. Simple slope analysis also demonstrated that distributive justice influences TP more strongly, when members are low in uncertainty avoidance ( $\beta = .567, p < .001$ ) compared to when they are high in uncertainty avoidance ( $\beta = .043, p > .05$ ). In conclusion, Hypothesis 3 is not supported.

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### *Test of Hypothesis 4*

On the one hand, Hypothesis 4a proposed that the impact of distributive justice on TP should be stronger for team members high in masculinity. On the other hand, Hypothesis 4b stated that the impact of distributive justice should be stronger for members high in femininity. The interaction term reached significance ( $\beta = -.129, p < .01$ ) (Table 2). Figure 6 illustrates the effect of the interaction term, whereby distributive justice had a stronger influence on TP for members high in femininity. Simple slope analysis also indicated that distributive justice is a stronger predictor for members high in femininity ( $\beta = .544, p < .001$ ) than for members high in masculinity ( $\beta = .286, p < .001$ ). Accordingly, Hypothesis 4a needs to be rejected, whereas Hypothesis 4b is supported.

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INSERT FIGURE 6 ABOUT HERE  
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## **Discussion**

We advanced cross-cultural justice research (Beugré, 2007; Li & Cropanzano, 2009b; Shao et al., 2013) by conducting the first study that examined the moderating influence of Hofstede's cultural values on the connection between distributive justice and TP in self-managed teams. Drawing on justice theories and cultural value theory, we proposed competing hypotheses for the moderating role of collectivism-individualism, power distance, and masculinity-femininity. To clarify these competing hypotheses, we conducted a survey study with self-managed teams. Distributive justice had stronger effects on TP for team members high in individualism, high in power distance, low in uncertainty avoidance, and high in femininity. These cultural values are therefore not only important moderators for supervisor- and organization-based fairness (Shao et al., 2013), but also for teammate-based fairness.

Our results confirm to some extent the results of the meta-analysis of Shao and colleagues (2013). For example, justice effects are stronger for people high in individualism and high in femininity, confirming the validity of the self-interest model of justice for people high in individualism and of the group engagement model for people high in femininity. Nevertheless, it is noteworthy that we obtained different results than Shao and colleagues with regard to uncertainty avoidance and power distance. The reason for the different results should be related to the source of justice perceptions. While Shao and colleagues investigated the supervisor and organization as source of justice perceptions, we focused on teammates as source. This may be one reason why high power distance (and not low power distance) did

strengthen the effects of distributive justice in our study. Low power distance members expect from the authority figure high distributive justice, whereas high power distance members have lower expectations about distributive justice (Beugré, 2007; Leung, 2005; Steiner, 2001). Therefore, high power distance members may count on their teammates to balance the distributive unfairness of the authority figure. That means they could be more sensitive to teammate-focused distributive justice as compared to low power distance members. Since low power distance members assume distributive fairness from their supervisor, they could attach less importance to teammate-focused distributive justice. Accordingly, their reactions toward teammate-focused distributive justice turn out to be smaller.

The different results for the moderating role of uncertainty avoidance should be also based on the self-managed team context. To explain this difference, it is important to note that uncertainty avoidance was negatively related to individualism (Table 1). It could be that team members high in uncertainty avoidance and high in collectivism reduce uncertainty by relying on teammates. They feel comfortable working in a team (Earley, 1993), as their uncertainty related concerns can be eliminated through discussions with teammates. They may also adopt the group norms, rules, and attitudes (Fischer et al., 2009; Jackson et al., 2006) to further reduce uncertainty. Therefore, teammate-focused distributive justice is not anymore required to reduce uncertainty. In contrast, members low in uncertainty avoidance and high in individualism do not feel comfortable to rely on teammates and do not act in line with team norms (Fischer et al., 2009; Jackson et al., 2006). Therefore, they may need distributive justice to reduce workplace-related uncertainty, creating the pre-condition for their motivation to improve their TP.

## **Strengths, Limitations, and Future Research**

Our study is characterized by several strengths. For example, the research context of self-managed teams guarantees the practical relevance of distributive justice, as team members were responsible for the allocation of important team outcomes like tasks, responsibilities, appreciation, workload, and scheduling. The use of student teams further enabled us to get high response rates, which is an important pre-condition for team research (Nederveen Pieterse et al., 2013). Another strength is the high number of international participants, guaranteeing the existence of different cultural values. This multinationality further allows a generalizability of the present findings. In addition, we had a good mix between “majority” members (62% French students) and “minority” members (38% international students).

Some limitations also exist. First, student teams were used, creating questions of generalizability. However, research has demonstrated that students do not differ in their behavior and reactions (e.g., Brown & Lord, 1999; Dipboye, 1990). Second, we only focused on distributive justice, as this justice dimension was ignored by past peer justice research. Nonetheless, future research should include procedural justice, interpersonal justice, informational justice, and overall justice to investigate if the moderating role of the cultural values remains the same. Third, TP was a self-report measure, creating a risk of social desirability. However, the mean (3.55) of the self-reported TP was relatively low in the present study, indicating that social desirability did not influence the respondents in their answers.

## **Practical Implications**

Justice scholars have demonstrated that the organizational justice framework can be used to train supervisors in the workplace to behave and appear more fairly (Skarlicki &

Latham, 2005). As our study demonstrates the importance of fairness perceptions among team members, organizations should design training programs to train team members to treat their teammates more fairly. Increased peer fairness perceptions among team members increase TP, which is an important success factor in teams (Mathieu et al., 2008).

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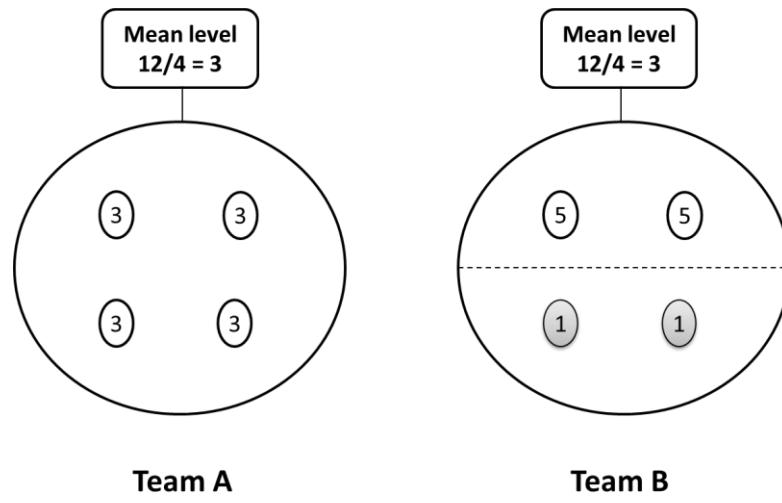
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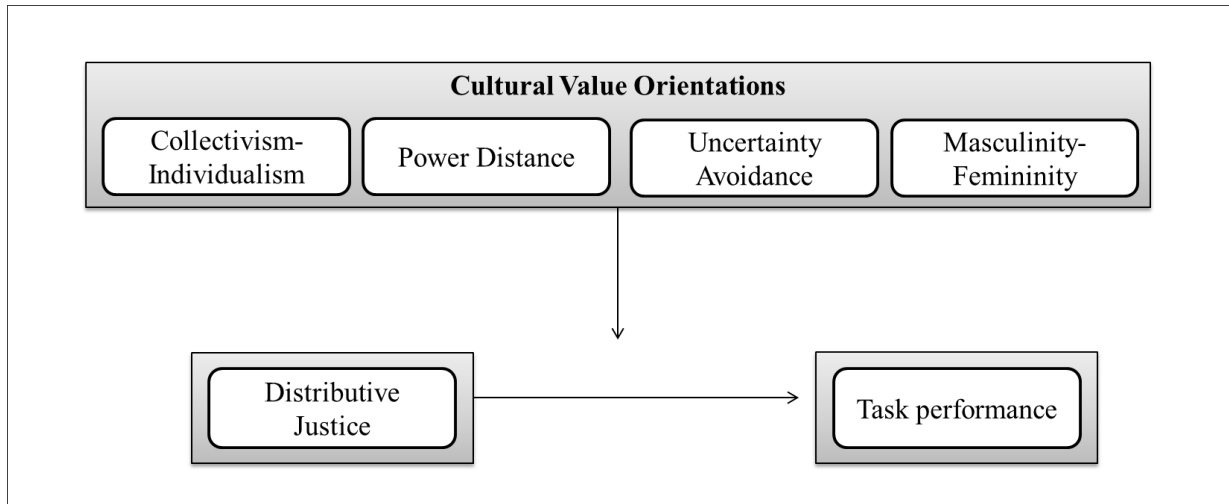
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**Figure 1: Fairness Asymmetry in Teams.**



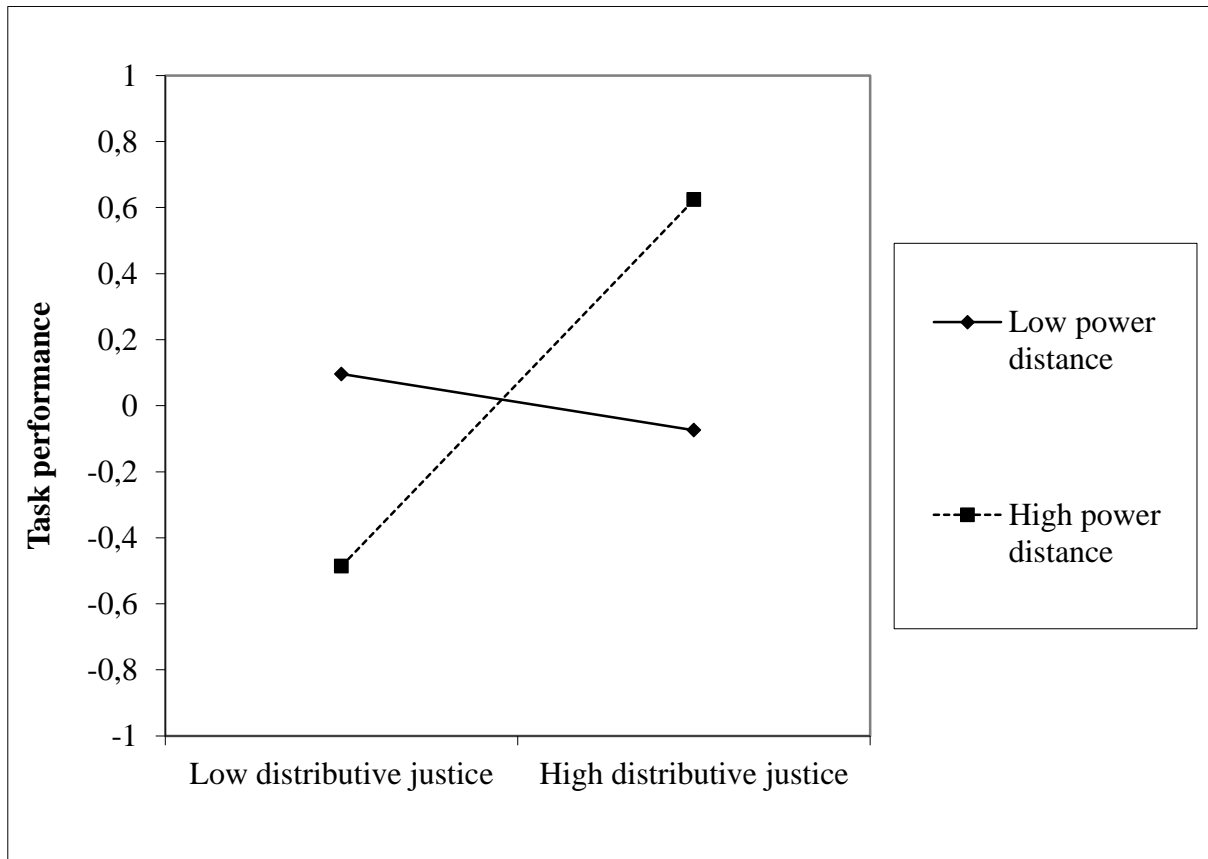
**Figure 2: The Moderating Role of Cultural Values on the Distributive Justice-TP Relationship.**



**Figure 3: Two-Way Interaction between Distributive Justice and Collectivism-Individualism.**

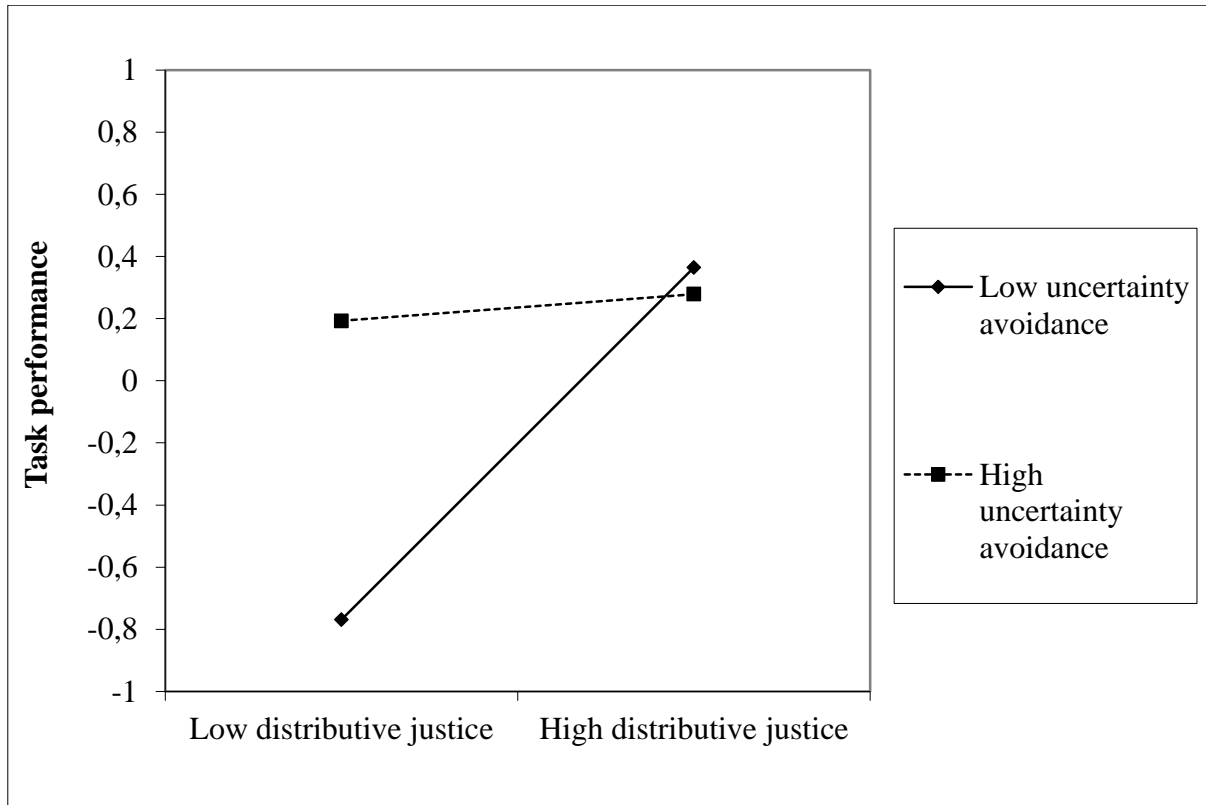


**Figure 4: Two-Way Interaction between Distributive Justice and Power Distance.**

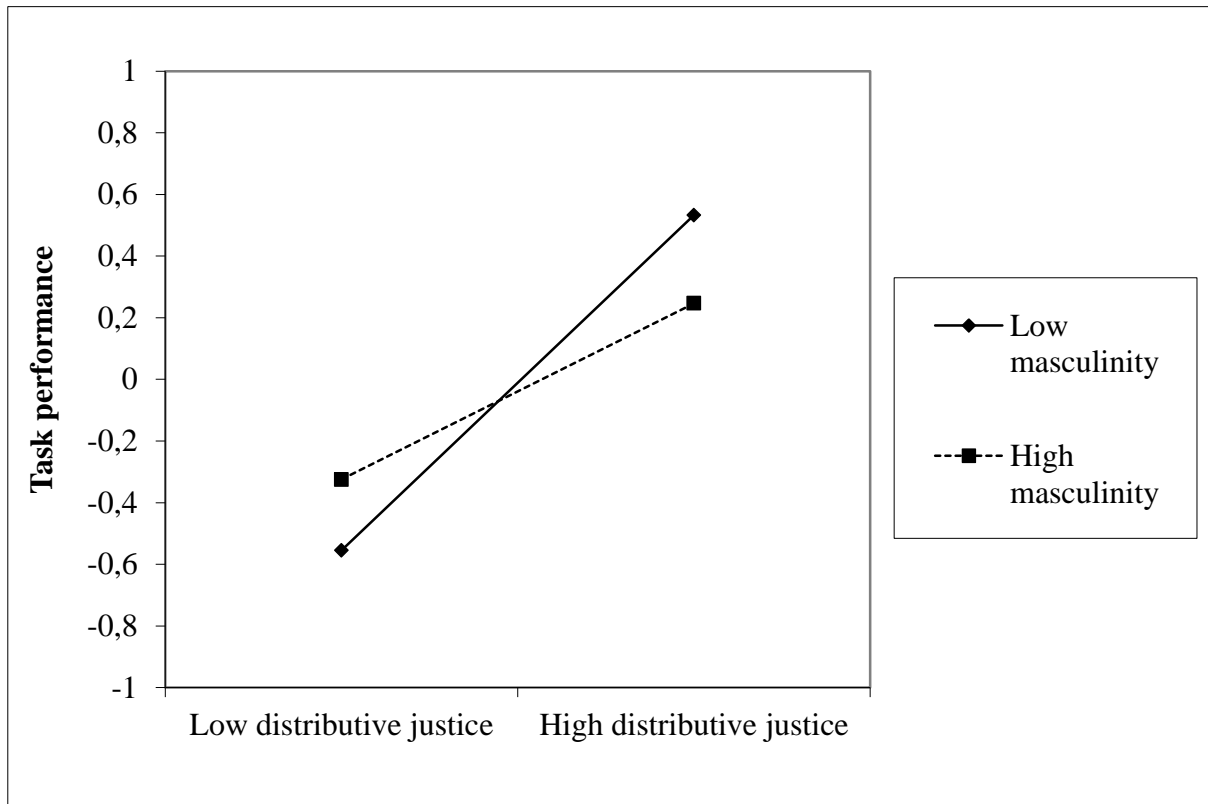




**Figure 5: Two-Way Interaction between Distributive Justice and Uncertainty Avoidance.**



**Figure 6: Two-Way Interaction between Distributive Justice and Masculinity-Femininity.**



**Table 1: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations.**

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
Individualism-Collectivism	3.30	0.90	(.71)					
Uncertainty Avoidance	3.52	0.83	-.293**	(.82)				
Masculinity-Femininity	4.15	0.62	.454**	-.090	(.72)			
Power Distance	2.20	0.73	.308**	-.125**	.116*	(.71)		
Distributive justice	3.20	0.88	-.223**	.071	-.070	-.064	(.91)	
Task performance	3.55	0.97	-.060	.245**	-.043	-.037	.555**	(.90)

*Note.* N = 448. Reliabilities (coefficient alpha) appear in parentheses on the diagonal.

\* $p < 0.05$

\*\* $p < 0.01$ .

**Table 2: Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analytical Results for TP.**

	<u>Task performance in self-managed teams</u>			
	Moderators:			
	Collectivism-Individualism	Uncertainty Avoidance	Masculinity-Femininity	Power Distance
Control				
Size	.114*	.114*	.114*	.114*
Gender dissimilarity	-.127*	-.127*	-.127*	-.127*
$\Delta R^2$	.025**	.025**	.025**	.025**
Main effect				
Distributive justice	.411***	.384***	.398***	.394***
Collectivism-Individualism	.049			
Uncertainty avoidance		.251***		
Masculinity-Femininity			-.008	
Power distance				-.039
$\Delta R^2$	.155***	.212***	.153***	.154***
Interaction terms				
Distributive justice × Collectivism-Individualism	.091*			
Distributive justice × Uncertainty Avoidance		-.262***		
Distributive justice × Masculinity-Femininity			-.129**	
Distributive justice × Power Distance				.320***
$R^2$	.188***	.324***	.191***	.353***
$\Delta R^2$	.008*	.086***	.013**	.173***

N = 448. TP was measured at T2. Values are standardized regression coefficients.

\*p<0.05

\*\* p<0.01

\*\*\*p<0.001.