It's not what you say but how you say it

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Interpersonal Justice Enactment at work:
The Actor Perspective

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Acknowledgments

Abstract

Research investigating organizational justice from an actors' perspective has advanced over the last decade, but our understanding is still fragmented. This dissertation aims to complement and extend the current theoretical knowledge to provide leverage for practical measures that promote justice. This dissertation focuses on interpersonal justice enactment – the degree individuals in power positions within organizations express respect and propriety in their daily workplace interactions. Although the least explored, this justice dimension is crucial for employees (to feel respected and valued) and actors alike (to revitalize their psychological resources). As part of this dissertation, both the phase *before* and *after* an interpersonal justice-relevant event is illuminated. As part of this holistic approach, various internal and external conditions are addressed simultaneously to draw a more comprehensive and adequate picture, providing novel insights into for *whom* and *when* current empirical and theoretical based assumptions apply. First, a set of two studies (Manuscript 1) – dedicated to the *before*-justice phase – investigates the adverse effect of high situational demands, and the role of person- and context-specific conditions as unique and interrelated boundary conditions. Second, a set of three studies (Manuscript 2) – dedicated to the *after*-justice enactment phase – empirically investigates actors' affective response to their own interpersonal justice enactment, acknowledging the role of person-specific and situation-specific cognitive evaluations as unique and inter-related boundary conditions. Along with interpersonal *justice*, interpersonal *injustice* is investigated. This represents a novel conceptualization and measurement approach in actor-centric research which can refine current theoretical models. The integrated findings provide a novel answer to why interpersonal justice at work can occur and why it may persist: (1) Because being interpersonally just and avoiding interpersonally unjust behavior appears to be challenging for actors in situations with competing situational demands. (2) Because not to all actors acting interpersonally unjust provokes the feeling of having done something wrong. Finally, this dissertation recommends supporting actors' interpersonal justice enactment by fostering justice-promotive values and by establishing clear interpersonal justice promotive standards in organizations.

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List of Abbreviations

CMC	Computer-mediated communication
IP-IJ	Interpersonal injustice enactment
IP-J	Interpersonal justice enactment
IPJ	Interpersonal justice
IPJE	Interpersonal justice and interpersonal injustice enactment
SCD	Self-control demand
STV	Self-transcendence values

1 Introduction

It's not what you say but how you say it

(Anonymous)

Interpersonal justice (IPJ) is the degree to which individuals in power positions within organizations act with respect and propriety in their social interactions (Bies, 2001).

Can you recall a situation where you intended to be polite and respectful to your counterpart in a conversation but somehow displayed neither of these qualities? This situation is likely familiar to managers and leaders in organizations because empirical evidence reveals that employees repeatedly report experiencing unfair interpersonal treatment at work (Colquitt et al., 2015). To better understand why and under what conditions individuals in power positions (i.e., actors) fail to engage in interpersonally just behavior was the first goal of this dissertation.

The first dissertation aim focuses on the *before*-justice phase to explore why actors do not always succeed in their interpersonal justice enactment (i.e., IPJE), even though they may want to. The starting point of this investigation is the external demands actors daily face, which recent justice research has identified as an antecedent of actors' IPJE (e.g., workload and self-control tasks; Sherf et al., 2018; Whiteside & Barclay, 2016b). Based on the reasonable assumption that not all actors become unjust on a demanding workday, this part of the study draws on extended self-control strength theory (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007) to investigate person- and context-level boundary conditions simultaneously. Gaining knowledge about boundary conditions of external demands is crucial for providing leverage for practical interventions to support actors in their IPJE.

Returning to the situation when you recognized that you had failed in your goal to be polite and respectful, how did you feel afterward? According to justice literature, when actors fail to enact interpersonal justice, they likely experience guilt (Scott et al., 2009) which refers to the subjective feeling of having done something wrong (Tracy & Robins, 2004). Although this assumption has an initial appeal, it lacks empirical evidence. Thus, the second goal of this dissertation is to empirically test the relationship between IPJE and subjective guilt.

Introduction

The second dissertation aim focuses therefore on the *after*-justice phase to provide novel insights into the consequences of justice for actors, a topic that has received scant attention (for exceptions, see Bernerth et al., 2016; Johnson et al., 2014). To that end, the actor-focused model of justice (Scott et al., 2009) is integrated with the self-conscious emotion model (Tracy & Robins, 2004), which describes specific self-evaluation steps that cause a feeling of guilt. This approach can test theory-deduced person- and situational-level boundary conditions in the relationship between IPJE and guilt. Understanding *which* actors respond to their IPJE with guilt and *under what circumstances* is relevant because emotions are a fundamental driver of future behavior (Frijda & Mesquita, 1994). Moreover, especially self-conscious emotions, such as guilt, are crucial for social functioning because guilt tends to motivate individuals to reflect and to make amends for their wrongdoing (Baumeister et al., 1994; Tangney & Dearing, 2002).

Coming back to the recalled situation from above: Did your communication "just" lack politeness or respect, or did you even make a rude comment or a derogatory remark? This dissertation's final goal is to understand the differences between enacting interpersonal justice enactment (i.e., IP-J) and interpersonal injustice enactment (i.e., IP-IJ). That is because individuals, including actors, vary not only in their levels of respect and politeness (i.e., IP-J) but also in the extent to which they engage in rude, derogatory, or inappropriate interpersonal behavior (i.e., IP-IJ). Again, this differentiation has an intuitive logic. However, to date, the so-called Full-Range Justice Measurement Approach (Colquitt et al., 2015) is absent in justice enactment research. As part of this dissertation, the above cited theories are used to argue why to actors it may differ whether they aim to engage in IP-J or aim to avoid IP-IJ under external demands, and why failing one goal or the other should be related differently to a sense of guilt.

Therefore, this dissertation's final contribution is to conceptualize and survey IP-IJ as well as the commonly targeted IP-J (i.e., respect and propriety; Colquitt & Rodell, 2015) across all included studies. In doing so, this dissertation offers novel insights into the theoretical and practical benefits of the Full-Range Justice Measurement Approach to actor-centric research (vs. target-centric research; Colquitt et al., 2015) on interpersonal justice.

The gained knowledge of this dissertation is important for the theoretical refinement of IJPE. Specifically, this dissertation expands and refines the current understanding of IPJE in three fundamental ways: (1) simultaneously considering various internal and external explanatory factors to understand the influence of external demands on IPJE (i.e., a factor-level

expansion), (2) illuminating not only the antecedents but also the consequences of IPJE (i.e. a temporal-level expansion), and (3) investigating IP-IJ in addition to IP-J (i.e., a construct-level expansion).

Concerning the practical level, social encounters are an integral part of everyday work life, and the quality of these social interaction has great impact on actors and targets alike. Engaging in interpersonally just encounters with their employees was shown to revitalize actors (Johnson et al., 2014), which not only providing them with the energy to engage in just behavior (Whiteside & Barclay, 2016) but to face various other managerial demands and tasks. Additionally, an interpersonally just working environment, which can be fostered by actors' IPJE, increases actors' satisfaction and overall well-being (Bernerth et al., 2016). On the other hand, employees who perceive interpersonally fair treatment feel seen and valued as individuals (Bies, 2001, 2015), which in turn, can foster employees' commitment, engagement, and well-being (for meta-analytic reviews, see Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001, 2013; Karam et al., 2019). Subsequently, organizations benefit from the positive impact on their overall functionality (Ang et al., 2003; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). Thus, understanding how actors can be supported in their IPJE is crucial for organizations and all their members.

2   Background

2.1   Justice at Work

This chapter briefly reviews the justice at work paradigm, introducing IPJ as one of the four core dimensions of the organizational justice construct, and outlines different measurement approaches recently discussed in the field. The chapter concludes by addressing the paradigm shift in organizational justice literature, in which justice is investigated as a dependent rather than an independent variable, to clarify the distinction between target and actor perspective or fairness and justice research.

2.1.1 Construct

IPJ is one of the four dimensions of *organizational justice*, broadly referring to the study of fairness in the workplace (French, 1964). The *distributive justice* dimension, which considers the perceived fairness of allocated or distributed outcomes, initially received scholars' attention (Adams, 1965; Leventhal, 1976). The second dimension, *procedural justice*, concerns the perceived fairness of decision-making procedures (Leventhal, 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Nearly a decade later, scholars claimed that individuals are, besides the decision and the process leading up to it, sensitive to *how* they are treated throughout the process. The organizational justice paradigm was extended to include the quality of interpersonal treatment, referred to as *interactional justice*, which changed the organizational justice theory from two-dimensional to three-dimensional (Bies, 1987; Bies & Moag, 1986). Another decade later, Greenberg (1993) introduced a four-dimensional conceptualization of organizational justice by further differentiating (for meta-analytical support, see Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2013) interactional justice into *informational justice* (i.e., truthfulness and justification of explanations) and *interpersonal justice* (i.e., respect and propriety of procedure enactment).

This dissertation focuses on IPJ for several reasons. First, IPJ was the last dimension of organizational justice constraints to be identified, and there has been a lengthy debate about the conceptual distinctness of interactional and procedural justice (Bies, 2005) as well as interpersonal and informational justice (Colquitt & Rodell, 2015). Accordingly, there is a need to obtain knowledge about the IPJ dimension and its specific relationships with other variables. Second, and related to the first reason, IPJ has two characteristic features that distinguish it from the other justice dimensions, underscoring the relevance of IPJ-specific research. For one,

compared to the other justice dimensions, IPJ provides actors with the highest level of discretion (Scott et al., 2009). Thus, IPJ is vulnerable to internal and external factors, which can have positive (i.e., subject to greater external influence) and negative (i.e., less controllable) implications, making it essential to understand how to strengthen it systematically. Additionally, IPJ centers on everyday interactions (Bies, 2001, 2015), while procedural and distributive tend to concern more formal procedures (e.g., implementing redundancy or promotion decisions). Although some disagreement exists among researchers on this point (Bies, 2015), violations of the interpersonal code of conduct are the most commonly reported experiences of injustice (Mikula, 1986; Mikula et al., 1998), and research into adjacent areas has evidenced the occurrence and detrimental consequences of absent interpersonal respect at work (e.g., incivility; Cortina et al., 2001, 2017). Hence, a better understanding of the occurrence and consequences of IPJ can have far-reaching positive effects on everyday working life. Finally, according to current knowledge, IPJ appears to be the only justice dimension that revitalizes rather than drains actors' resources (Johnson et al., 2014). Thus, gaining insights into what could hinder actors' IPJ is relevant to reducing obstacles to this replenishment source.

2.1.2 Measurement

Scholars investigating organizational justice, including IPJ, tend to ask individuals to report the extent to which powerholders adhere to the justice rules of interest (Colquitt & Rodell, 2015). Specifically, IPJ is commonly assessed by asking targets to report the extent to which they were treated with (1) politeness, (2) dignity, and (3) respect, and (4) he/she refrained from making improper remarks, on a scale ranging from 1, *to a very small extent*, to 5, *to a very large extent* (Colquitt, 2001). However, this approach does not ask perceivers to report the extent to which he/she violated justice rules. Colquitt et al. (2015) introduced the Full-Range Justice Measurement Approach to assess the complete spectrum of justice-relevant behaviors to overcome this shortcoming. The original scale was supplemented with items focusing on justice rule violations to assess injustice behavior explicitly. Regarding interpersonal justice, items were added asking individuals to report the extent to which they were treated in a (1) rude, (2) derogatory, (3) degrading, or (4) inappropriate manner, constituting interpersonal injustice.

The Full-Range Justice Measurement Approach has several theoretical and practical advantages. First and foremost, it explicitly assesses unjust behavior. Solely applying the justice

scale captures unfair behaviors alongside hurtful or insulting behavior in the same low value(s). Conversely, the injustice scale allows more differentiated mapping of the behavior. Furthermore, broadening the spectrum of justice-relevant behavior facilitates testing theoretically deduced hypotheses that differentiate between justice and injustice behavior. This approach can help uncover relevant effects and relationships with other variables, which, in turn, helps refine current theorizing to make more accurate predictions of workplace behaviors. The Full-Range Justice Measurement Approach can capture this difference, which can help gain a more accurate understanding of real-world implications because, in some cases, targets seem to react more strongly to or put more weight on violations than the extent of adherence (Colquitt et al., 2015; Gilliland et al., 1998), which can equally apply to actors, and is investigated as part of this dissertation.

This dissertation uses the Full-Range Justice Measurement Approach and conceptualizes IPJE as comprising the dimensions of interpersonal *justice* and interpersonal *injustice.*[1] This dissertation adopts the actors´ perspective (which will be addressed in the next section in more detail). Accordingly, IP-J is assessed by the extent actors adhered to the IPJ rules of politeness, respect, and dignity, and IP-IJ, is assessed by the extent actors violated IPJ rules by showing rudeness or making degrading, derogatory or inappropriate remarks. The aim of using this bi-dimensional approach is to test distinct theory-guided hypotheses for both behavioral spectrums. In line with this dissertation's theory-guided operationalization of IP-J and IP-IJ, the analyses exclude the "absence of improper remarks" originally included in the justice scale (Colquitt, 2001) because it captures the omission of IP-IJ rather than the commission of IP-J. Furthermore, in certain studies (Study I-II), IPJE was assessed by content-coding written messages. This approach avoids the confounding effects of rating one behavioral marker (absence vs. presence of improper remarks) on both scales.

2.1.3 Perspectives

Like any behavior, justice behavior can be viewed from the targets' and actors' perspectives. In justice literature, the first lines of inquiry focused on the targets of (un)fairness

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[1] For simplification, regarding the following terms, (1) interpersonal *justice* enactment (IP-J) refers to actors' IPJ rule adherence (i.e., the degree to which actors show respect and propriety), whereas (2) interpersonal injustice enactment (IP-IJ) refers to actors' IPJ rule violations (i.e., the degree to which actors make rude, derogatory or inappropriate remarks), and (3) the term IPJE is used to refer to the full-spectrum of interpersonal justice relevant behavior (IP-J and IP-IJ).

treatment (Virtanen & Elovainio, 2018). Scholars adopted the perceiver perspective, exploring how individuals form fairness perceptions and how those judgments influence their attitudes, behavior, and emotions (Cugueró-Escofet & Fortin, 2014). Having established across dimensions, contexts, and various dependent variables that fairness matters to employees (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, 2012; Colquitt et al., 2013; Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005; Shao et al., 2013), scholars shifted their focus to those who enact justice in organizations - the "actors" (e.g., Scott et al., 2009) or "agents" (e.g., Fortin et al., 2015). The governing idea introducing this shift in perspective was that "We cannot understand, nor can we effectively mitigate the tenacity of justice violations without a thorough understanding of those who have the power to treat others fairly and the factors that help or impede their ability to do so" (Graso et al., 2020, p. 2).

To distinguish both perspectives, scholars started to use the term "fairness" to refer to the target view. Fairness can broadly be defined as "a global perception of appropriateness" (Colquitt & Rodell, 2015, p. 188) and reflects the extent to which recipients judge the actions of an actor as more or less aligned with certain normative standards of fairness (Leventhal, 1980), also referred to as justice rules (Colquitt & Rodell, 2015; Goldman & Cropanzano, 2015). Contrastingly, "justice," "justice rule adherence" (e.g., Scott et al., 2009), or "justice enactment" (e.g., Graso et al., 2020) tend to refer to the actor perspective, or the extent to which actors act in line with the relevant justice rules (i.e., sometimes the terms are still used interchangeably; Colquitt & Rodell, 2015; Goldman & Cropanzano, 2015).

This dissertation adopts the actor perspective; hence, the focus is on IPJE, the degree to which actors adhere to or violate the normative rules that provoke a sense of fair or unfair interpersonal behavior in targets. As was stated by Graso and others (2020), understanding the actor's perspective is relevant because fairness is a downstream consequence of justice. Hence, to mitigate unfairness at work, it is crucial to understand why and when the source of fairness fails or succeeds. In addition, and as surfaces throughout the authors' seminal review of justice enactment, adopting the actor perspective is vital because justice affects not only targets but also actors, including their vitality, well-being, and satisfaction (Bernerth et al., 2016; Johnson et al., 2014), and, supposedly, their self-perception (Camps et al., 2019) and affective states (Molinsky & Margolis, 2005; Scott et al., 2009). Research into actor consequences is in comparison to fairness research less ample (Brockner et al., 2015), yet it crystallizes the understanding that justice behavior is significant for powerholders and their welfare and

performance levels (e.g., self-perception impacts leaders effectiveness; Hannah et al., 2009). Given that now, more than ever, organizations are continually evolving at a rapid pace (Burke, 2002; Stouten et al., 2018), actors must be not only equipped with the relevant technical skills and knowledge but also inner resources and interpersonal qualities, such as IPJE, allowing them to navigate the social world of organizations effectively.

In organizational justice literature, the term "actor" has historically been used to refer to individuals within organizations who have the authority to make and implement decisions (Colquitt et al., 2005). The focus on the power holder stems from early fairness research concerning perceived fairness in decision contexts, such as pay or promotion decisions (Deutsch, 1975; Leventhal, 1976). In their seminal review, Graso et al. (2020) broadened the research scope and suggested, in line with others (e.g., Fortin et al., 2015), that actors can be individuals with formal and informal or temporary decision-making authority. In this dissertation, the term "actors" refers to individuals who exhibit justice-relevant behaviors because they have temporary (Studies I–IV, simulation studies with undergraduates assigned the leader role) or stable (Study V, working managers) decision power, consistent with the term's use in current justice literature. After setting the foundations, the following two chapters introduce the two main research foci of this dissertation and the addressed research questions are introduced.

2.2   Interpersonal Justice Enactment – The *Before* Phase

"Everyone knows that being fair costs little and pays off handsomely.

Then why do so few executives manage to behave fairly, even though most want to?"

(Brockner, 2006).

The question provided the starting point for this dissertation. Broadly, scholars can approach the guiding question – why actors enact or fail to enact justice – from three different angles: (1) the person – what motivates actors to enact justice (2) the situation – justice enactment as a consequence of temporary external influences, and (3) the context – justice enactment as a consequence of more stable external characteristics. The first part of this dissertation will consider all three factors collectively to better understand why interpersonal justice enactment can occur. To that end, I will briefly review recent findings in the justice literature to deduce the research questions addressed as part of the *before*-justice phase

investigation. The aim of this chapter is not to provide a comprehensive review of the current justice enactment literature; instead, the aim is to outline and discuss the relevant findings and emphasize relevant research gaps.

A focus on person-related factors dominated the first wave of actor-centric justice research, which explored what motivates actors' justice enactment. These investigated person-related factors included justice motives (Cropanzano et al., 2003; Lerner, 2015) and a range of personal characteristics, including empathy or empathic concern (Cornelis et al., 2013; Holt et al., 2021; Patient & Skarlicki, 2010; Whiteside & Barclay, 2016a), trait perspective-taking (Holt et al., 2021), self-control (Matta et al., 2017; Wolfe et al., 2018), low core self-evaluations (Hillebrandt et al., 2022), self-efficacy (Eib et al., 2020), trait mindfulness (Reb et al., 2019; Schuh et al., 2019), and moral identity (Brebels et al., 2011). The findings of this initial stream of research on person-related factors suggest the following: (1) actors' motivations to act just are driven by three main motives: deontic reasons (i.e., enacting justice as an end in itself); instrumental reasons (i.e., enacting justice as means to an end); or relational reasons (i.e., enacting justice as relational management), and (2) actors with certain characteristics are either more sensitive to the needs of others or more able to establish and maintain relationships are more inclined to enact justice than those not possessing those traits.

This first wave of research produced important insights into actors' motivations, but scholars have increasingly argued that external factors must be considered to fully understand justice enactment (Ganegoda et al., 2016; Monin et al., 2013; Sherf et al., 2018; Valentine, 2018). One such external factor relates to the daily work demands of justice actors (Sherf et al., 2018; Whiteside & Barclay, 2016b). This body of research on situational influences is highly relevant to this dissertation, so it will be outlined in detail.

One core premise within justice research on external demands is that justice enactment might be more costly than previously assumed (e.g., Brockner, 2006). Accordingly, justice behavior might suffer when actors confront high situational demands. For instance, Whiteside and Barclay (2016) argued that "a manager who reprimands an employee for poor performance needs to invest … energy into preparing and outlining the reasons for why the employee's performance has been inadequate, tailoring one's communications to the specific needs of the employee" (p. 5). Such actions require effort. Thus, when actors are "overloaded" (Sherf et al., 2018, p. 3), they may momentarily lack the psychological capacity to enact justice, unable to listen attentively or address a topic with the required sensitivity.

Background

To explore how and when external demands influence actors' justice behavior, research has drawn on self-regulation theories (e.g., self-control strength theory; Baumeister et al., 1994) and on theories based on self-regulation (e.g., multiple-task pursuit framework; Neal et al., 2017). Self-regulation refers to "the various ways in which people modify their thoughts, feelings, and behaviors in the service of a personal goal" (Inzlicht et al., 2020, p. 321). A core tenet of self-regulation theories is that the resources required for successful self-regulation are finite (Baumeister et al., 2014; Inzlicht et al., 2020; Lord et al., 2010). The self-control strength theory (Baumeister et al., 1994) is one of the most prominent self-regulation theories[2] (Inzlicht et al., 2020).

Additionally, this theory posits that this self-control resource, which is akin to strength or energy (Baumeister et al., 2014; Muraven & Baumeister, 2000), can be temporarily depleted if overused. Consequently, subsequent self-control attempts "to override or change one's inner responses, interrupt undesired behavioral tendencies and impulses, and refrain from acting on them" (Tangney et al., 2004, p. 274) are ineffective. A body of research supports the existence of this personal resource. Namely, research has demonstrated that prior situational SCD (vs. no prior situational SCD) were associated with less successful self-control attempts (Hagger et al., 2010). In summary, self-regulation theories provide a foundation for understanding how actors may respond to demanding situations, especially those of high SCD, which are inherent in the daily lives of individuals in positions of power.

Research on situational antecedents of justice enactment provided initial support for self-regulation theories: in situations of high prior demands, actors' justice rule adherence is impaired. Specifically, Sherf et al. (2018) examined the impact of high workload (i.e., a sense of having too much work or being overwhelmed with the amount of work that has to be completed; Ilies et al., 2010), and showed a negative effect of workload on actors' global justice behavior (i.e., justice as a higher-order construct that constitutes diverse justice dimensions). Another study (Whiteside & Barclay, 2016b) explored tasks that could be detrimental to actors' justice enactment, demonstrating that self-control tasks negatively affected actors' interactional justice rule adherence. Together, these findings indicated that justice enactment has psychological costs (i.e., demands self-regulatory resources) and that in particularly

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[2] Although self-control and self-regulation refer to two different processes (Inzlicht et al., 2020), the terms are often used interchangeably (Vohs & Baumeister, 2004). Because the difference between the processes is not of importance to the present dissertation, both terms will be used interchangeably.

demanding situations, adhering to justice rules (at least interactional and overall justice rules) can be too psychologically costly.

However, not all forms of justice enactment may be equally psychologically costly. For instance, Johnson et al. (2014) investigated various forms of justice enactment as predictors of actors' regulatory-resource levels. Specifically, drawing from self-control strength theory (Baumeister et al. 1994), these researchers investigated the influence of actors' daily procedural and IP-J on their regulatory resources level. This work's results revealed that adhering to procedural justice rules drained regulatory resources. Notably, IP-J revitalized actors' regulatory resources.

Overall, the abovementioned evidence suggests that justice enactment is arduous and that different types of justice appear to consume different amounts of regulatory resources. Specifically, IP-J may be low in demands. Thus, the relationship between situational SCD and IP-J might be weak or even nonexistent. However, empirical evidence is lacking on this subject, and the existing evidence concerns potential benefits after IP-J but does not address initial costs associated with IP-J. In this vein, research on self-control has shown that prosocial behaviors (e.g., perspective-taking or helping behavior; Fennis, 2011) rely on available regulatory resources and are less likely to occur following prior SCD. Thus, the guiding question of the first part of this dissertation was as follows: How are situational SCD related to actors' IP-J?

However, more recent perspectives on the self-control process have suggested that whether individuals achieve self-control depends on their underlying behavioral goals. Drawing from research on the motivational structure of goals (Carver, 2006; Deci & Ryan, 2000), and referring to their underlying psychological and physiological processes (e.g., level of cognitive processing; Carver, 2006; Elliot et al., 2014; Higgins, 1998) scholars have proposed that certain behavioral goals are more easily attained than others (Baumeister et al., 2018; Fujita, 2011; Papies & Arts, 2016; Werner & Milyavskaya, 2018). Amongst others, scholars have argued that individuals are less effective at attaining behaviors that avoid potentially harmful consequences (i.e., avoidance goals) than behaviors that produce potentially positive outcomes (i.e., approach goals; Inzlicht et al., 2020; Werner & Milyavskaya, 2018). Initial empirical evidence supported this assumption (Elliot et al., 2014; Muraven, 2008; Oertig et al., 2013), and, based on these recent advancements, SCD may have different effects on actors' IP-J and IP-IJ. Thus, this dissertation investigated both IP-J and IP-IJ to discover their differential relationships with third

variables, advancing the conceptual understanding of both constructs. Hence, this work refines the initial question as follows:

(1) *How are situational SCD related to actors' IP-J and IP-IJ?*

Furthermore, this dissertation aimed to achieve a comprehensive understanding of IP-J and IPI-J that included, besides situational influences, both person- and context-specific factors. To pursue this aim, the extended self-control strength theory (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007) provides a theoretical foundation. An important advancement of the original self-control strength theory (Baumeister et al. 1994) was that personal motivation was included as an additional factor that influenced self-control success. Specifically, the extended self-control strength theory (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007) proposes that "motivation to achieve the goal or meet the standard" (p. 117) can counteract the detrimental effects of situational SCD. Therefore, this theory further illustrates the self-control process by explaining *for whom* situational SCD are more or less consequential. However, the extended self-control strength theory (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007) lacks an explicit conceptualization of personal motivation. To this end, self-regulation scholars (Werner, 2016; Werner & Milyavskaya, 2018) have attempted to fill this gap. They have proposed that situational SCD are less detrimental for individuals motivated by self-concordant goals, defined as "the degree to which stated goals express enduring values and interests" (Sheldon & Elliot, 1999, p. 482). The beneficial role of such personal value-based motivation is also called autonomous motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000) and has been supported by empirical evidence (Berkman et al., 2017; Muraven, 2008; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Werner, 2016). Hence, a second research question was the following:

(2) *How does value-based motivation influence the relationship between situational SCD and actors' IP-J and IP-IJ?*

Furthermore, this dissertation investigates the role of context-specific factors in the relationship between situational SCD and actors IP-J and IP-IJ. Drawing on the extended self-control strength theory (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007), alongside personal motivation, the clarity of standards is predictive of self-control success. In this vein, Baumeister and Vohs (2007) suggested that "regulation means change so as to bring into line with some standard, and

hence effective self-regulation requires a clear and well-defined standard" (p. 117). The basic premise of this idea is that individuals compare their actions against certain standards to evaluate whether they have fallen short of these standards and need to alter their behavior. Beyond internal standards, as discussed in the previous paragraph, a context can be associated with certain standards. The clarity of externally provided standards by a given context is best conceptualized by situational strength, which refers to "implicit or explicit cues provided by external entities regarding the desirability of potential behaviors" (Meyer et al., 2010, p. 122). Situational strength refers to the idea that in a context characterized by clear and consistent norms (i.e., a strong context)[3], individuals are more likely to comply with the respective norms of a given context. Conversely, in a context characterized by ambiguous and inconsistent norms (i.e., a weak context), individuals are more likely to act according to their own preferences. Furthermore, the force of strong contexts should reduce behavioral variance (Cortina et al., 2019; Meyer et al., 2010). Additionally, situational strength is one of the most relevant contextual influences on individuals behavior (Dalal, 2020; Lozano, 2018; Meyer et al., 2010; Meyer & Dalal, 2009), and serves as a conceptualization for clarity of standards, proposed but not further specified by the extended self-control strength theory (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007). Thus, the third and the fourth research questions were the following:

> *(3) How does context strength influence the relationship between situational SCD and actors' IP-J and IP-IJ?*
>
> *(4) How do value-based motivation and context strength combined influence the relationship between situational SCD and actors' IP-J and IP-IJ?*

In closing, prior evidence has suggested that in situations of high demand, actors are less capable of adhering to justice rules than when demand is low (Sherf et al., 2018; Whiteside & Barclay, 2016b). However, following recent theoretical advancements in self-control strength theory (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007) it is reasonable to suggest that amid situational SCD, it may be easier for *some actors* in *some contexts* to engage in IP-J and refrain from engaging in IP-IJ.

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[3] For clarity, the term "context strength" is used instead of "situational strength" to distinguish this context-related factor from the situational-level factor (i.e., situational SCD). The term "situational strength" is only used when theoretically relevant.

It is concerning to practitioners to advance the theoretical understanding of situational SCD as an antecedent to actors' justice enactment. Considering the diverse challenges actors face, (Burke, 2002) they will continue to face high work demands. Beyond this, reducing these demands may be nearly impossible in some contexts. Hence, organizations would benefit from knowledge about the conditions that influence the consequences of situational SCD on actors' justice behavior. Specifically, this knowledge could help craft effective interventions to promote actors IPJE. This knowledge may be particularly valuable regarding IPJE because, as mentioned above, this kind of justice behavior leaves actors the most discretion among the four kinds of justice (Scott et al., 2009). Thus, it is essential to understand when actors may engage in disrespectful behavior, so learning *when* or *which actors* are more or less vulnerable to suffering from high situational SCD is crucial for organizations to adequality support their actors.

2.2.1 Original Research

In the current study, the researcher conducted two simulation laboratory studies (Study I-II) to address the research questions and deepen the theoretical explanation of situational SCD as an antecedent to IPJE (Manuscript I). The same experimental procedure and measurement instruments were used in both studies. However, the studies differed in that the participants communicated via *WhatsApp* in Study I and via email in Study II. This design allowed the researcher to investigate context strength because *WhatsApp* is characterized by weak behavioral standards (i.e., a weak context), whereas email is characterized by strong behavioral standards (i.e., a strong context). Accordingly, the data from both Study I and Study II were integrated to investigate the influence of context strength.

In both studies, IP-J and IP-IJ were assessed by coding composed messages through the applicable channel (Study I: *WhatsApp*; Study II: email). Furthermore, value-based motivation as the person-level boundary condition was operationalized by self-transcendence values (i.e., STV). This higher-order personal value "emphasizes acceptance of others as equals and concern for their welfare" (i.e., universalism and benevolence; Schwartz, 1994, p. 25).

Additionally, STV is a core construct incorporated in the *before*- and *after*-justice phase models investigated within this dissertation. Therefore, the relevance of integrating the universal theory of human values (Schwartz, 1994, 2017) with justice enactment literature is highlighted here. The role of personal values as a motivational component of actors' identities

should be investigated for several reasons. First, besides personality traits, personal values are a core characteristic of a person that drive individuals' behavior (Bilsky & Schwartz, 1994). Thus, by investigating personal values as a core transcendent aspect of the self (Hitlin, 2003; Hitlin & Piliavin, 2004) the present research adds to the literature on inner drivers of justice behavior. Second, besides motivating actors' behavior (Sagiv & Roccas, 2021), personal values shape the evaluation of these actors' own actions and those of others (Schwartz, 1992b). This trend suggests that personal values comprise a relevant psychological construct throughout the entire justice process (in both the *before-* and the *after*-justice phase), an idea addressed by this dissertation. Third, personal values are related to goal content, the decision to pursue a specific goal (Parks & Guay, 2009). Thus, examining personal values can inform the literature on the under-researched deontic motive (Diehl et al., 2021; Graso et al., 2020), which concerns the inner drive of caring about justice because it feels as the inherently right thing to do (Cropanzano et al., 2003; Folger, 2001). Given that values define what seems subjectively right and desirable (Schwartz, 1992b) it is reasonable to assume that actors with self-transcendence values are predisposed to striving for justice and equity as underlying values of STV. Fourth, personal values are activated in relevant situations and manifest themselves behaviorally in situations where actors are more oriented to internal rather than external expectations (Arthaud-Day et al., 2012; Bardi & Schwartz, 2003). That is, values should be crucial variables in a situation involving high discretion, such as IPJE (Scott et al., 2009).

2.3 Interpersonal Justice Enactment – The *After* Phase

"The justice literature has paid considerable attention to the beneficial effects of fair behaviors for recipients of such behaviors. It is possible, however, that exhibiting fair behaviors may come at a cost for actors." (Johnson et al., 2014, p. 635)

After discussing potential influencing factors that can hinder actors from engaging in interpersonally just behavior, the next chapter turns to the consequences that can arise from such incidents for the actors themselves. Especially, the affective consequences of failing to be interpersonally just or being interpersonally unjust. The quotation above provided the starting point for the second focus of this dissertation - on the *after*-justice phase.

The current understanding of what justice enactment, including IPJE, implies for the actors is based on theoretical work. As one of the first addressing the topic, Scott et al. (2009)

introduced an actor-focused mode of justice. The latter addressed both actors' motives for engaging in just behavior and how actors might feel about fulfilling or violating justice rules. Building on emotion literature (Lewis, 2000), the authors of the model argued that individuals appraise their actions against internal or external standards, and "guilt is experienced when an individual concludes that he or she has fallen short of [these measures]." (Scott et al., 2009, p. 764). Based on the assumption that justice is a prevailing societal standard, the authors further concluded that violating justice rules is especially likely to trigger guilt in actors. Guilt is "an individual's unpleasant emotional state associated with possible objections to his or her actions, inaction, circumstances, or intentions" (Baumeister, Stillwell, et al., 1994, p. 245). This emotion tends to be elicited in social situations (Tangney & Dearing, 2002) and has been associated with other disrespectful leadership behavior (e.g., abusive supervisor behavior; Liao et al., 2018; Shum et al., 2020). Accordingly, the first research question was as follows:

(1) How are actors IP-J and IP-IJ related to their feelings of guilt?

Notably, guilt belongs to the class of self-conscious emotions, which depend on self-evaluation (Tracy & Robins, 2004). That is, whereas basic emotions, such as anger or fear, are related to survival threats, self-conscious emotions occur when individuals judge an event or behavior to be a self-threat because it deviates from their own inner standards (Tracy et al., 2007). This self-evaluative process is illustrated by the self-conscious emotions model (Tracy & Robins, 2004). The latter describes a series of self-evaluations, cognitive appraisals that individuals make as responses to an event or a behavior that elicit either positive or negative self-conscious emotions. To elicit guilt, the model specifies two important cognitive appraisals: first, the behavior must be evaluated as identity-goal relevant (i.e., whether an event is relevant to a person's goals for who they are and want to be; Tracy et al., 2007), and second, as caused by something about the self (vs. outside the self). Thus, to comprehensively explain the elicitation of guilt as a consequence of IP-J and IP-IJ, one must include relevant cognitive evaluations (i.e., both self-identity goal relevance of justice and perceived responsibility) as potential boundary conditions. Therefore, the following research questions were addressed:

(2) What role does the perceived identity-goal relevance of justice play in eliciting guilt following actors' IP-J and IP-IJ?

(3) What role does perceived responsibility for interpersonal behavior play in actors' guilt experience following their IP-J and IP-IJ?

(4) How do the perceived identity-goal relevance of justice and the perceived responsibility for their interpersonal behavior combined influence actors' guilt experience following their IP-J and IP-IJ?

In conclusion, current theorizing in the justice literature suggests that actors likely respond with guilt to their IP-J and especially their IP-IJ (Scott et al., 2009). However, according to the self-conscious emotion model (Tracy & Robins, 2004), *some actors* in *some situations* are more likely to experience guilt than other actors or in other situations.

Investigating actors' justice-related emotions is relevant from a practitioner perspective. In this area, guilt is relevant for several reasons. First, emotions are essential in motivating and regulating how individuals act (Frijda, 1987) and interact with others (Ekman, 1994; Fox, 2018; Frijda & Mesquita, 1994), yet actor-centric evidence addressing the role of emotions is still underemphasized. More recently, initial qualitative and quantitative work has highlighted the role of emotions in justice enactment (Hillebrandt et al., 2022; Zwank & Diehl, 2019). However, some of these articles have investigated general affective states (i.e., overall well-being; Bernerth et al., 2016) or emotion as a boundary condition (Hillebrandt et al., 2022). Although insightful, for a better understanding of how actors may behave after engaging in justice or injustice behavior, a first crucial step, is to better understand the affective response triggered by evaluating their own justice behavior. To this end, guilt is a relevant emotion to examine because the internally generated sanction upon the recognition of wrongdoing creates a highly adverse state in individuals (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). This inner sensation tends to motivate individuals to reflect on their interpersonal behavior (Tangney & Dearing, 2002) and make amends for their wrongdoing (Goodstein et al., 2016). Accordingly, guilt has been associated with reparatory actions (Ilies et al., 2013, 2013) and more constructive future behavior (Tangney & Dearing, 2002), including leadership behavior (Schaumberg & Flynn, 2012; Shum et al., 2020). Consistent with these findings, a recent qualitative study revealed that even the fear of guilt can be a critical driver to enact justice (Zwank et al., 2022). However, regardless of the quality of guilt for restorative actions (Tangney et al., 2007), guilt is a painful sensation and can have adverse consequences. That is, guilt can trigger a so-called "what-the-hell effect" (Muraven et al., 2005) or trigger intense self-doubts and reduce one's self-control capacity

(Hofmann & Fisher, 2012; Muraven et al., 2005), which is predictive of lower justice rule adherence (Whiteside & Barclay, 2016b), as discussed above. Thus, if actors feel guilty about their lack of IP-J or their IP-IJ, they could experience either an upward spiral (i.e., apologize and reduce feelings of guilt) or a downward spiral (i.e., have tormenting thoughts that consume cognitive resources, leading to less energy to engage in just encounters). Both scenarios emphasize the relevance of studying guilt for all organizations' stakeholders.

2.3.1 Original Research

The present author conducted three studies (Study III–V) to address the above deduced research questions to deepen the theoretical understanding of guilt as a consequence of actors' IPJE (Manuscript 2).

First, Study III established the relationship between IP-J and IP-IJ and guilt and investigating identity-goal relevance as a person-specific boundary condition. Additionally, IP-J, IP-IJ, and guilt were assessed via self-reporting, and identity-goal relevance was operationalized using STV.

Next, Study IV replicated the findings of Study III while investigating perceived responsibility as a situation-specific boundary condition. Actors perceived responsibility of their interpersonal behaviour was operationalized through internal attributions (i.e., the extent to which the cause is something about the attributer; Russell, 1982).

Lastly, Study V replicated the findings of the two prior studies to establish external validity (the study sample was working managers vs. undergraduates, as in Study III and Study IV). Furthermore, this study investigated the complete theoretical model to produce a comprehensive explanation of how IP-J, and IP-IJ, respectively, identity-goal relevance of justice, and perceived responsibility simultaneously predict guilt.

3   Overview of Studies

This chapter provides a detailed summary of the five studies comprised in this dissertation (see Table 1 for an overview of the five studies and their respective features). The studies can be grouped into two sets of consecutive projects. The first set of studies (Studies I-II) illuminates the *before*-justice phase and contributes to the understanding of situational SCD as an antecedent of IPJE (Manuscript 1). The second set of studies (Studies III - V) illuminates the *after*-justice phase and contributes to the understanding of guilt as an outcome of IPJE (Manuscript 2). The focus of the study summary is on the description and the results to allow the general discussion and conclusion (see Chapter 6 for the full-length manuscripts). Figure 1 shows an overview of the relationships investigated in Studies I-V.
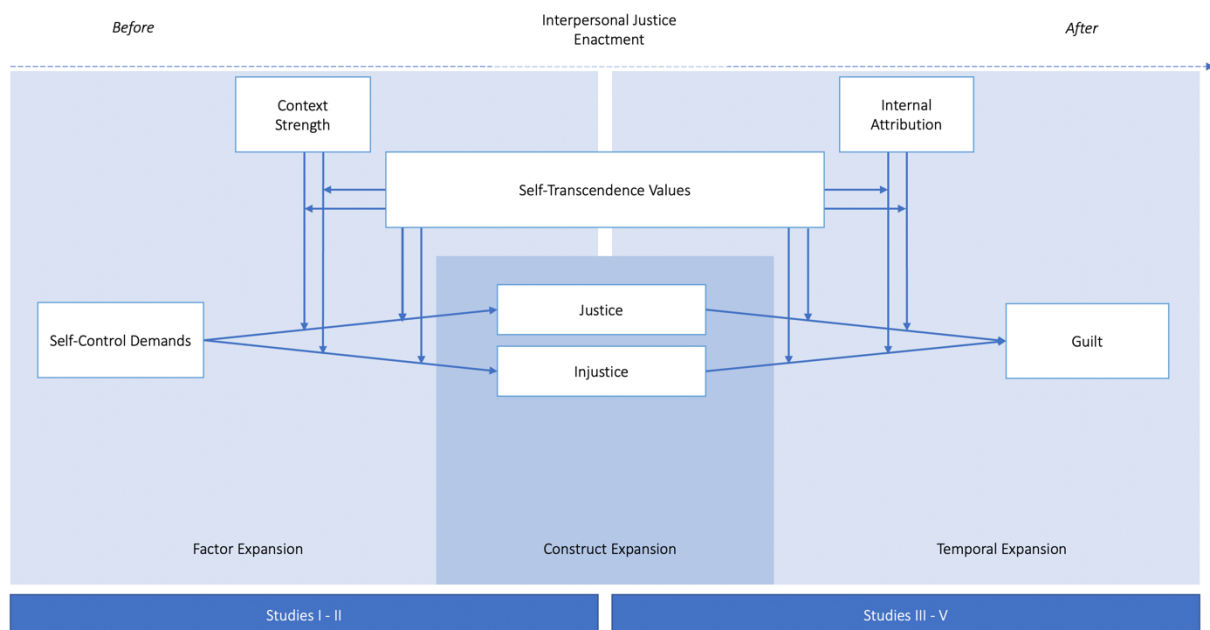

Figure 1: Illustration of the Relationships Investigated in Studies I-V

Overview of Studies

Table 1: Overview of the Five Studies Included in this Dissertation

Study	Ms.	Main Research Question	N	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Procedure	Main findings
I	1	How are SCD related to actors' IP-J/IP-IJ, and how does actors' value-based motivation influence the relationships?	147	Self-control demand Self-transcendence values	IP-J & IP-IJ	Simulation in the lab	SCD are related to less IP-J and more IP-IJ, and the relationships are stronger among actors with higher STV
II	1	How does context strength, singularly and combined with actors' value-based motivation, influence the SCD-IP-J/IP-IJ relationships?	130	Self-control demand Self-transcendence values Context strength	IP-J & IP-IJ	Simulation in the lab	A strong context can buffer the adverse effect of SCD on actors´ IP-J /IP-IJ, and only actors with lower STV, who act in a weak context engage in more IP-IJ after high SCD
III	2	How are IP-J/IP-IJ related to actors' subjective guilt, and how does identity goal-relevance of justice influence the relationships?	128	Self-perceived IP-J & IP-IJ Self-transcendence values	Subjective Guilt	Simulation in the lab	IP-IJ but not IP-J is related to guilt, and the relationship is stronger for actors with higher STV
IV	2	How does perceived responsibility influence the relationships between actors´ IP-J /IP-IJ and their subjective guilt?	110	Self-perceived IP-J & IP-IJ Self-transcendence values Internal attribution	Subjective Guilt	Team simulation in the lab	Internal attributions have no significant moderating effect
V	2	How does perceived identity-goal relevance of justice, singularly and combined with perceived responsibility, influence the relationships between IP-J/IP-IJ and their subjective guilt?	290	Self-perceived IP-J & IP-IJ Self-transcendence values Internal attributions	Subjective Guilt	Online panel survey	IP-IJ is related to guilt among actors with higher STV, and internal attributions have no significant moderating effect

Note. IP-J = Interpersonal justice enactment; IP-IJ = Interpersonal injustice enactment; SCD = Self-control demand; STV = Self-transcendence values.

3.1 Study I: Situational SCD, STV, and IP-J / IP-IJ

Study I was an experimental investigation of the influence of situational SCD on actors' IP-J/IP-IJ. Integrating the extended self-control strength theory (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007) with motivation literature that suggests avoidance to be more demanding than approach behavior (Werner, 2016; Werner et al., 2018) provided theorizing for why the effect of situational SCD should be greater on IP-IJ than on IP-J. Informed by the extended self-control model (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007), actors' value-based motivation was further expected to buffer the adverse effect, thereby offering novel insights into our understanding of the role of individual characteristics in predicting how actors' IP-J/IP-IJ is affected by situational SCD.

In a realistic laboratory simulation study, 147 undergraduates adopted the role of a superior and engaged with a fictitious assistant in an interaction via the instant messaging service *WhatsApp*. Participants were informed that they were supposed to run an experiment with an assigned assistant to prepare their final thesis. While waiting for the assistant, participants' self-control resources were manipulated with a validated controlled writing task (see, e.g., Gino et al., 2011; Schmeichel, 2007). After answering to a manipulation check, a confederate informs participants via the massaging service *WhatsApp* in the name of the assistant that they run late, which implies that running the experiment is unfeasible. Participants are probed to answer via the *WhatsApp* messaging service using a priorly provided mobile phone. The respective message was subsequently used for coding participants' level of IP-J and IP-IJ, using Colquitt's (2015) Full-Range Justice Measurement Approach. Before the experiment, STV and negative affect were assessed via a self-report questionnaire; the latter was used as a control. Excluding participants who sent no *WhatsApp* message, the final sample consisted of 139 participants (M_{age} = 23.11, SD_{age} = 1.90; 73% women).

Results confirmed the assumptions that situational SCD were negatively related to IP-J and positively related to IP-IJ. However, the theoretical prediction that situational SCD has a stronger effect on IP-IJ than IP-J was not supported. Further, STV moderated the effect of situational SCD on IP-J and IP-IJ, such as only among participants with lower emphasis on STV, situational SCD resulted in less IP-IJ.

In line with the extended self-control strength theory's prediction (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007), situational SCD were less detrimental among actors who are likely autonomously motivated to engage in IPJE. These findings support personal motivations as an additional

ingredient of self-control, suggesting that specifically autonomous motivation may facilitate self-control towards value-congruent goals. Besides methodological reasons, one potential explanation for the non-significant finding regarding the differential predictive power of situational SCD is that engaging in IP-J respectively, avoiding IP-IJ, is not exclusively driven by approach respectively avoidance motivation, thereby blurring the effect. For instance, participants may demonstrate respect and propriety in their communication to avoid negative appearances or responses, which would trigger cognitively demanding processes that could explain why similar effects of situational SCD are observable.

3.2   Study II: Situational SCD, STV, Context Strength and IP-J / IP-IJ

Study II was a replication of the first Study. However, this time participants communicated via a computer mediated communication channel characterized by matured and well-established behavioral norms (i.e., email) as opposed to a channel typified by unclear and inconsistent norms, like *WhatsApp*, used in Study I. This approach allowed to examine the influence of context strength, as posited by extended self-control strength theory (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007). Additionally, adopting a situational strength view (Mayer et al., 2009) can extend current theorizing (Baumeister et al., 2018; Baumeister & Vohs, 2007) by offering a theoretically deduced mechanism that explains *how* external standards may shape individuals' behavior. Study II contributes to a deeper understanding of contextual factors in determining actors' PIJE, adding to the growing work on contextual matters in work behaviors that signal a lack of respect (Hershcovis et al., 2020).

130 undergraduates followed the same procedure and provided answers to the same measurements as in Study I. After the Situational SCD manipulation, participants had to respond to an incoming email using the Microsoft Outlook 2010 mailing program (vs. a *WhatsApp* message on the mobile phone as in Study I). Two of the participants were excluded because they sent no email, resulting in a final sample of 128 participants (M_{age} = 23.5, SD_{age} = 3.03; 70% women). Finally, to test the situational strength hypotheses and the three-way interaction (situational SCD, STV, and context strength), Studies I and II were combined, resulting in a final sample of 267 participants.

Results of regression analyses confirmed the moderating effect of clear external standards: only in a weak context situational SCD led to a significant decrease in IP-J and an increase in IP-IJ. The posited variance restriction effect, informed by situational strength theory

(Meyer & Dalal, 2009), was only observed regarding IP-IJ but not regarding IP-J. A multiple hierarchical regression analysis revealed a three-way interaction effect of personal and contextual characteristics: situational SCD were related to more IP-IJ in weak contexts only among people with lower STV.

The findings supported the extended self-control strength theory (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007): actors´ IPJE is a function of personal and contextual characteristics. Specifically, they indicate that situational SCD are not inevitably accompanied by less IP-J, as previously assumed (Whiteside & Barclay, 2016). Both inner and outer standards conducive to IPJE can mitigate the adverse consequences.

3.3   Study III: I IP-J / IP-IJ, STV, and Guilt

Study III was a laboratory simulation addressing the identity goal-relevance of justice in determining actors' subjective experience of guilt as a response to their IP-J and IP-IJ.

Self-conscious emotion theory (Tracy & Robins, 2004) suggests that (1) the more individuals perceive their expressed behavior to have deviated from what they or others consider appropriate, the more intense they will experience a sense of guilt, (2) if the behavior is identity goal-relevant (i.e., holding STV). Investigating STV introduces the role of the self, which is critical to any self-conscious emotion, and thus, deepens the understanding of the relevance of personal characteristics, refining existing justice theorizing (Scott et al., 2009)

The data for this study was collected as part of a larger-scale project. Precisely, after the 128 participants interacted with the fictitious assistant via email, as described under Study II, their perceived IP-J and IP-IJ, as well as their subjective guilt were assessed via self-report. 10 individuals were excluded because of missing data on focal variables, which left a final sample of 118 participants (M_{age} = 23.41 years, SD_{age} = 3.03; 72% women). Again, negative affect was measured before the interaction, and experimental condition was used as controls to isolate the relationships of interest.

Results demonstrated that IP-IJ, but not IP-J, was significantly related to actors' feelings of guilt. Moreover, the guilt effect was only found among individuals with higher (vs. lower) STV, supporting the role of the identity goal-relevance of justice.

Although providing initial support, the study was restricted in mainly two crucial ways. Subjective guilt was measured with a single item because the data stemmed from a larger project that overall restricted the assessment time, and only one of the two main cognitive

antecedents of guilt proposed by the self-conscious emotion theory (Tracy & Robins, 2004) was addressed. Study IV addressed these shortcomings by assessing guilt with a multiple-item measure and assessing internal attribution.

3.4   Study IV: IP-J / IP-IJ, STV, Internal Attributions and Guilt

Study IV was a realistic simulation team study addressing, besides the identity goal-relevance of justice (i.e., STV), the role of situational internal attributions in determining actors' subjective experience of guilt as a response to their IP-J and IP-IJ was investigated.

110 participants (M_{age} = 22.34, SD_{age} = 4.01; 72% women) engaged in groups of maximally 20 in a simulation study, wherein they, all role-playing a supervisor, interacted through an instant messaging system (i.e., *Zoom*) with their assigned team members. After interacting with one of their team members via the private chat function of *Zoom*, participants completed questionnaires assessing IP-J and IP-IJ, internal attribution, and subjective guilt. STV were assessed via an online questionnaire sent to all participants one week before the data collection on campus.

 The results provided further evidence that actors respond more strongly with guilt to IP-IJ than IP-J and that the guilt response seems to be contingent on holding higher STV. Results did not support the assumed moderating effect of internal attributions.

A follow-up study was conducted for several reasons. First, to better understand what the non-significant effect of internal attributions represents. Internal attributions were assessed with two items that asked participants to indicate the extent they viewed themselves or others respectively as responsible, recoding the latter for scale construction. However, the item-inter correlation was considerably low (r =.51), and the fact that individuals can attribute an event to internal and external causes (Robins et al., 1996), thus, two distinct dimensions, may have obscured the unique effect of perceived responsibility. Hence, Study V used a measure exclusively capturing internal attribution, aiming at higher internal consistency. Second, to test the three-way interaction. An a priori power analyses indicate a required sample size of 290 participants. Third, to see whether the finding that IP-IJ (vs. IP-J) is a stronger predictor can be replicated. A high correlation between the two predictor variables were observed, which may indicate that respondents referred to the same behavioral incidence when rating their IP-J and IP-IJ. Thus, in Study V, a broader timeframe was used to increase the

frequency of justice-relevant encounters. Lastly, to establish the external validity of the findings. Hence, in Study V, the study population was working managers.

3.5   Study V: IP-J / IP-IJ, STV, Internal Attributions and Guilt

Study V was an online panel study conducted on *Prolific* and aimed to address the shortcomings mentioned above. Using such platforms is common practice in managerial research (Aguinis et al., 2021) and particularly appropriate when exploring deviating managerial behavior because heightened anonymity and the absence of organizational implications increase the probability of capturing real-life experiences. To conduct a robust and reproducible study, various best practices recommended by a recent study on panel studies were followed throughout the planning, implementation, and reporting stage of the study (e.g., pre-decided on screening qualification of respondents, establishing the required sample-size, formulating compensation rules, report details regarding all procedures to ensure transparency; Aguinis et al., 2021).

Data was collected on two-consecutive workdays using a time-lagged design. In the morning, participants received a questionnaire assessing demographics, STV, and negative affect—the latter used as a control variable. In the afternoon, participants completed a second survey, including measures of IP-J and IP-IJ, internal attribution, and subjective guilt. The final sample consisted of 307 responses (42% women) with an average age of 44.67 (SD = 9.78).

Using a sample of working managers, Study V replicated the resulting pattern of the prior studies, which provides additional confidence in the results and the theorizing. That is, IP-IJ but not IP-J predicted guilt, and again, only actors with higher levels of STV reported feelings of guilt. Moreover, results demonstrated that internal attributions had no moderating effect.

4   General Discussion

Understanding of IPJE, the latest addition to the organizational justice construct (Virtanen & Elovainio, 2018), has remained limited despite its significance for organizations and their members (Bernerth et al., 2016; Johnson et al., 2014). This dissertation's overall goal was to gain a holistic understanding of IPJE from the actor perspective. The objectives within this aim were threefold. First, a three-way interaction model of situational SCD and IPJE was proposed with the goal of examining the *before*-justice phase based on the following question: How do actors´ value-based motivation (i.e., STV) and context strength, singularly and in combination, influence the relationship between situational SCD and actors' IPJE? Second, a three-way interaction model of IPJE and guilt was proposed to examine the *after*-justice phase based on the following question: How do two factors of the self-evaluation process leading to guilt – the self-relevance of justice (i.e., STV) and feelings of responsibility (i.e., internal attributions) – uniquely and in combination shape actors' guilt response to their IPJE? Finally, in all five studies included in this dissertation, IP-IJ was investigated alongside IP-J to learn how the effects of both dimensions differ. Hence, this dissertation has extended and refined the current understanding of IPJE in three fundamental ways: (1) simultaneously considering various internal and external explanatory factors to better understand the influence of situational SCD on IPJE (i.e., factor-level expansion), (2) illuminating not only the antecedents but also the consequences of IPJE (i.e., temporal-level expansion), and (3) investigating IP-IJ in addition to IP-J (i.e., construct-level expansion).

The following sections summarize the main findings of Studies I–II (dedicated to the *before*-justice phase) and Studies III–V (dedicated to the *after*-justice phase). Only the main theoretical implications are highlighted because the integral implications of the two sets of studies are discussed in Manuscript 1 and Manuscript 2, respectively. Subsequently, the theoretical implications of the findings concerning IP-J and IP-IJ are discussed, and the theoretical, methodological, and practical implications of the dissertation, as a whole, as well as open questions related to the results, are outlined.

4.1   The *Before*- Interpersonal Justice Enactment Phase

The first aim of this dissertation was to refine the knowledge about the influence of situational SCD on actors' IPJE. To that end, Studies I–II focused on explanatory factors to

extend knowledge about the conditions under which situational SCD are related to actors´ IPJE. Specifically, in Chapter 2.2, four research questions were deduced: (1) How are situational SCD related to actors´ IP-J and IP-IJ? (2) How does value-based motivation influence the relationship between situational SCD and actors' IP-J and IP-IJ? (3) How does context strength influence the relationship between situational SCD and actors' IP-J and IP-IJ? (4) How do value-based motivation and context strength combined influence the relationship between situational SCD and actors' IP-J and IP-IJ?

First and foremost, the results of Studies I-II demonstrate that a higher level of situational SCD is negatively related to IP-J, which is in line with previous research (Sherf et al., 2018; Whiteside & Barclay, 2016b), and positively related to IP-IJ. This finding adds to the growing stream of justice research focusing on external factors and extends current theory by highlighting that situational SCD can result not only in less IP-J but also in more IP-IJ.

Furthermore, the results reveal that both factors – holding higher STV and acting in a strong context – independently mitigate the adverse effects of situational SCD on IP-J and IP-IJ. This finding is consistent with the extended self-control strength theory (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007), which assumes that personal motivation and clear external standards buffer the adverse impacts of situational SCD. The results therefore refine current theory by identifying *for which actors* and *under which conditions* the adverse effect of situational SCD on IPJE emerges, which is valuable because delineating boundary conditions is critical for creating effective practical interventions for functioning work environments (Aguinis, 2004).

To that end, the results complement previous research that established external motivation as a buffer against the detrimental effects of work demands (i.e., workload) on justice behavior (Sherf et al., 2018). However, it should be noted that it remains to be empirically tested whether external motivation also buffers the effect of self-control related tasks. Future research could further investigate motivations as underlying processes of self-control success (e.g., internal and external motivation) to better understand how they fit into the process of self-control and to gain leverage for effective interventions. Furthermore, the findings regarding the role of context strength raise some interesting questions. For example, situational strength theory proposes the consequences resulting from norm deviations (e.g., sanctions by the superior or team members) as important factors of the context's strength, besides consistency and clarity (Meyer et al., 2010). One source of variability in the consequences that could follow from IPJE is the climate within teams or organizations. Hence,

justice climate in teams (i.e., shared perceptions of justice that emerge from common experiences and sensemaking in work units; Mossholder et al., 1998) may be an interesting moderator effect worth exploring, which would test the generalizability of the present findings to more distal levels of influence (vs. moderation channel as more proximal to actors) and provide leverage for potential large-scale interventions.

The results of a three-way interaction (Study II) further refined the understanding of the relationship between situational SCD and IPJE by demonstrating that situational SCD was only related to more IP-IJ among actors with lower STV who interacted in weak contexts. This finding highlights the crucial role of actors' inner standards when outer standards are weak, and the situational conditions impede actors' "capability" to engage in interpersonally just behavior. Overall, the findings of Studies I-II highlight that justice scholars can significantly improve the prediction of IPJE and, potentially, other kinds of justice when they consider that behavior is best understood as a product of both the individual and the context (i.e., factor-level expansion), which is supported by other work in the field (for a review, see Graso et al., 2020).

Lastly, regarding further differential effect for IP-J and IP-IJ, Study II revealed that, for IP-IJ only, restricted variance was found as one mechanism that explains the impact of strong contexts. This finding (see Chapter 6.1 for a more detailed discussion of the implications) strengthens the assumption that justice and injustice are conceptually distinct (Colquitt et al., 2015; Colquitt & Rodell, 2015; Gilliland et al., 1998).

In conclusion, the *factor-level expansion* refines the theoretical understanding of situational demands as an antecedent of IPJE by identifying person- and context-related boundary conditions of the situational SCD effect. Thus, this dissertation provides a novel answer to why injustice can occur at work: because of tasks that consume personal resources, which leave less energy for actors to communicate in a polite and respectful way. Particularly, managers whose focus on the concerns of others is not as pronounced seem to struggle more heavily under high demands. However, on a positive note, contexts characterized by behavioral standards that promote interpersonally just behavior can successfully compensate for weaker inner standards. Strong contextual standards seem to particularly mitigate those behaviors that deviate more from what is perceived as interpersonally fair in workplace interactions. This finding is relevant because such behavior increases the likelihood of perceived unfairness on the part of employees, which is more strongly associated with strong negative reactions than is the perceived level of fairness (e.g., hostility; Colquitt et al., 2015).

4.2 The *After-* Interpersonal Justice Enactment Phase

The second aim of this dissertation was to broaden the understanding of the implications of IPJE for actors. To that end, Studies III-V were devoted to the investigation of affective implications of IPJE for actors and how these implications differ regarding personal-related and situation-related factors, individually and in conjunction. Specifically, in Chapter 2.3, four research questions were deduced: (1) How are actors' IP-J and IP-IJ related to their feelings of guilt? (2) What role does the perceived identity-goal relevance of justice play in eliciting guilt following actors' IP-J and IP-IJ? (3) What role does perceived responsibility for interpersonal behavior play in actors' guilt experience following their IP-J and IP-IJ? (4) How do the perceived identity-goal relevance of justice and the perceived responsibility for their interpersonal behavior combined influence actors' guilt experience following their IP-J and IP-IJ?

The results across all three studies indicate that IP-J is largely unrelated to guilt while IP-IJ is significantly related to guilt. Specifically, in only one of three studies (Study IV) was actors' level of IP-J associated with their feelings of guilt. This finding is in line with the SCEM (Tracy & Robins, 2004), indicating that the more one's actions deviate from one's inner expectations, the more intense the affective response. Additionally, the finding refines the current theoretical understanding of what kinds of justice (at least IPJE) related behaviors are associated to feelings of guilt (Scott et al., 2009) and again indicates the conceptual distinctiveness of IP-J and IP-IJ.

Furthermore, although IP-IJ was related to guilt across all three studies, the effect was accentuated by higher STV, a finding that again is consistent with the SCEM (Tracy & Robins, 2004), which links guilt to experienced identity-goal relevance of the expressed behavior. This finding suggests that IP-IJ particularly affects actors who perceive the way they treat others as an important part of their self-identity, as IP-IJ directly violates these values. Thus, this finding contributes to the conceptual framework because it specifies *for which actors* justice is more or less impactful and refines the current theoretical knowledge by indicating that guilt as response to actors' own IPJE, and potentially other kinds of justice, is less global than currently assumed (Scott et al., 2009).

The proposed moderating role of internal attribution was not supported by the empirical evidence of Study IV or Study V. Implications of the non-significant finding are discussed in more detail in Manuscript 2.

More broadly, the empirical results of this second set of studies suggest that the role of person-related factors in shaping actors' responses to their IPJE could be integrated and advance existing actor-centric models, such as the actor-focused model of justice (Scott et al., 2009) and the review-based justice enactment model (Graso et al., 2020). In conclusion, *temporal-level expansion* provides novel empirical evidence that refines the theoretical understanding of how IPJE is related to actors' own emotional states (Margolis & Molinsky, 2008; Scott et al., 2009). The findings suggest that how actors feel about their behavior towards others depends greatly on how they see themselves and most likely how they want to be seen by others (i.e., their ideal self; Baumeister, 1998). Accordingly, the way actors interpersonally behaved triggers a feeling of having done something wrong, especially if it is incongruent with their values, which are a core aspect of the self (Hitlin, 2003). As such, the findings highlight that understanding of the consequences of justice for actors can be significantly improved (i.e., at least the extent of guilt, and likely other self-conscious emotions that are inextricably linked to the self; Tracy & Robins, 2004) when we acknowledge the role of the actor's self.

4.3   Interpersonal Justice and Interpersonal Injustice

A third aim of this dissertation was to conceptualize and assess IP-IJ alongside IP-J to refine the understanding of the IPJE construct. Overall, results stemming from this *construct-level expansion* indicate that the two constructs are differentially related to additional variables, which supports the constructs distinctiveness. Across all five studies included in this dissertation, certain differences in how IP-J and IP-IJ are related to other variables emerged. For instance, in Study II, functional differences emerged for person-level and context-level mechanisms. Specifically, only IP-IJ increases (IP-J did not systematically decrease) when inner (i.e., STV) and outer (i.e., context strength) justice-promoting standards are weak. Moreover, whereas IP-IJ was a consistently strong predictor of guilt, IP-J was only related to guilt in Study IV (a relationship that did not hold when controlling for negative affect). While these findings and other observed differences are discussed in more detail in Manuscript 1 and Manuscript 2, respectively, on a theoretical level, the construct-level expansion suggests that justice and injustice (at least IP-J and IP-IJ) do not appear to be interchangeable dimensions. This conclusion is consistent with the target-centric results obtained using the bi-dimensional approach (Colquitt et al., 2015).

The observed differences for IP-J and IP-IJ have theoretical and methodological implications for justice enactment research. First, the observed differences imply that current assumptions in the justice literature, which are based on theoretical models that solely include justice, cannot be transferred to injustice. Accordingly, there is value in using the Full-Range Justice Measurement Approach in future research, in the words of Colquitt et al., (2015) to avoid "missing the action" (*p*. 291). Specifically, this dissertation highlights the conceptual value of treating and assessing IP-J and IP-IJ as bi-dimensional constructs (vs. reverse-coding the injustice items to combine them with the justice items). Colquitt et al. (2015) note that a limitation of the bi-dimensional approach is the high number of items needed to assess all four kinds of justice. However, when targeting specific kinds of justice, such as IPJ, this approach enables researchers to gain a nuanced picture and can uncover theoretically and practically meaningful distinctions.

However, the utility of the Full-Range Justice Measurement Approach may depend on the research question and underlying theoretical assumptions. For example, this dissertation´s findings show that IP-IJ explained significantly more guilt variance than IP-J. However, when investigating positive self-conscious emotions, such as pride, the predictive power of injustice could be attenuated because not violating norms likely fails to elicit a sense of pride in most individuals (Sunstein, 1996). Thus, justice could be the better fit, as it could explain more variance in the outcome. Moreover, future research ought to explore the Full-Range Justice Measurement Approach in investigations focusing on other kinds of justice. It is possible that the approach is particularly useful when investigating IPJE because actors can make a disrespectful comment and adhere to rules of politeness in one conversation or message. In contrast, distributing outcomes (e.g., a promotion decision or pay) is more likely to either be equitable and inequitable. However, Camps et al. (2022, p. 13) argued that "justice agents often need to make tradeoffs between these different principles when enacting distributive justice," referring to the principles of equality (e.g., outcomes should be distributed equally amongst targets) and need (e.g., outcomes should be distributed based on the need of a target). According to this logic, one decision could indeed be equitable with respect to one principle and inequitable with respect to the other principle. Future research could examine how justice and injustice ratings on these principles may provoke distinct emotional pattens in actors. In conclusion, although the utility of the Full-Range Justice Measurement Approach to justice enactment needs to be further explored to better understand when it can deepen the

understanding and contribute meaningfully to the justice literature, the findings of this dissertation illustrate the theoretical and practical value of the approach. Additionally, gaining more knowledge about injustice enactment is relevant because targets' negative responses (Colquitt et al., 2015) and overall fairness ratings (Gilliland et al., 1998) depend more on unfairness perceptions than the level of perceived fairness. This dissertation demonstrates that solely studying IP-J would not have allowed for the detection of certain relationships and boundary conditions (e.g., context strength) that can effectively support actors in avoiding injustice. Hence, by using the bi-dimensional approach, the findings can provide a stronger argument for resulting practical measures.

4.4   Holistic Consideration of the Study Results

In the following sections, the implications of this dissertation's findings, as a whole, are discussed more broadly. To simplify the discussion, the findings of the five studies included in this dissertation are illustrated and merged into the conceptual model depicted in Figure 2. This synthesis provides the basis for discussing the key findings of this dissertation in depth, with an emphasis on how the findings can inform future research to extend the justice literature. The broader discussion emphasizes four main aspects: (1) the role of STV in the justice enactment process, (2) the costs and benefits of *in*justice enactment, (3) the bi-dimensional scale in justice research, and (4) completing the shift from targets to actors.
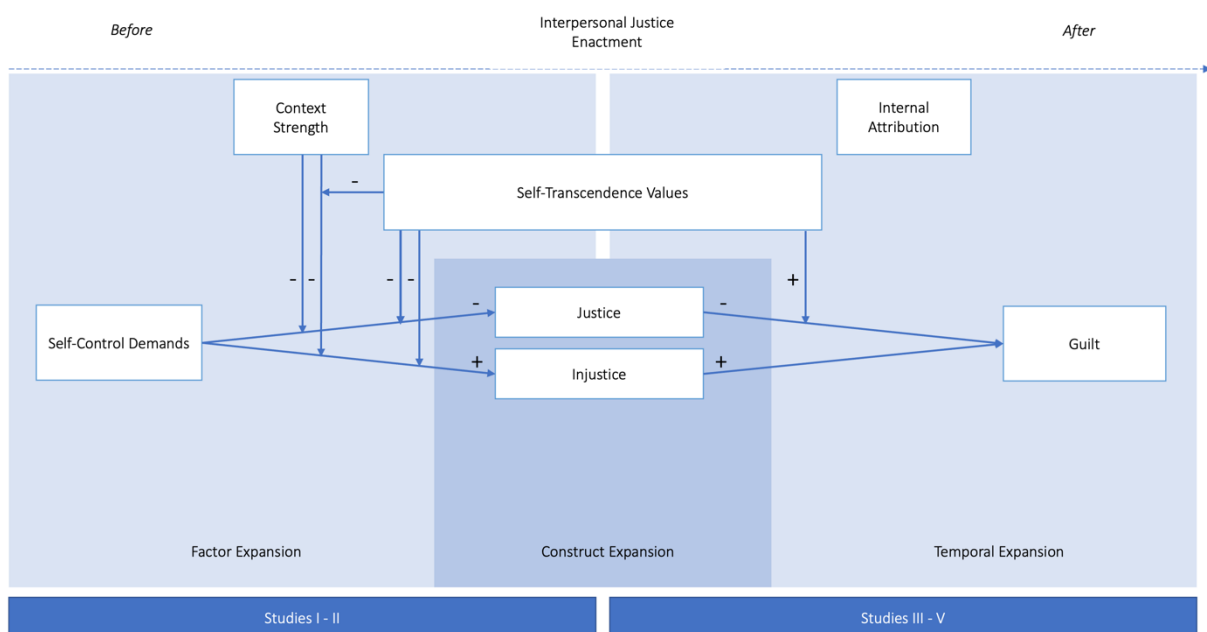

Figure 2: Overview of Results of Studies I-V

4.4.1 The Role of Self-Transcendence Values in the Justice Process

The integrated findings of the five studies indicate a notable phenomenon that contributes to a more comprehensive understanding of how justice unfolds over time for different actors and specifically for actors with varying levels of STV. First, actors with higher STV seem to cope better with high situational demands (i.e., SCD ha a weaker detrimental effect on IPJE for actors with higher STV: Study I-II), which may indicate that they have a generally higher track record of interpersonally fair encounters. Furthermore, the findings of Studies III-V suggest that in cases when actors with higher STV engage in IP-IJ, they are more likely to recognize their behavior as inappropriate. Thus, they are more likely to apologize for disrespectful behavior, as guilt has been demonstrated to trigger reparative actions (Greenspan, 1995; Tracy & Robins, 2004). In contrast, actors with lower STV enacted less IP-J and more IP-IJ, which could indicate that they more often express disrespect or make a degrading remark, considering that the managerial role is inextricably linked to various tasks and activities that require self-control, such as task-switching, (ethical) decision-making, restricting emotional expression, and exhibiting impulsive responses or choices (Clinton et al., 2020; Lian et al., 2017; Rua et al., 2017). Additionally, actors with lower STV appear less concerned by their interpersonal treatment of others (Studies III-V). This outlook could result in fewer expressions of remorse over their transgressions (i.e., IP-IJ), which was shown to restore a sense of justice in targets after perceived unfairness (Goodstein & Aquino, 2010). This dissertation empirically supports this pattern and highlights the need for further research to fully understand and to empirically test the proposed broader picture.

In the following paragraphs, three potential paths are outlined that build upon this dissertation's findings and can extend the justice literature. First, the data in this dissertation suggest that a strong context can help actors with lower STV to overcome the depletion effect, but it may also influence the association between IPJE and guilt. An open question worth exploring is whether strong justice-supportive context also increase actors' ability to recognize their injustice as norm-deviating. Research shows that salient norms can activate individuals' self-awareness (Silvia & Duval, 2001), which draws attention to the self and triggers the cognitive self-evaluation process that can elicit guilt (i.e., the comparison of one's behavior to internal or external standards; Duval & Wicklund, 1972). Thus, it is reasonable to assume that in a context with strong justice-promotive standards, actors will more likely feel guilty about their injustice behavior. Additionally justice research shows that heightened subjective self-

awareness (i.e., when attention is directed towards the self) leads to more interactional justice rules adherence (Whiteside & Barclay, 2016a), even among actors with low trait empathy. Considering that strong context (via norm salience) increases self-awareness, which in turn, activates the self-evaluation process that can trigger guilt, two interesting questions arise that could be addressed by future research. First, does guilt explain the relationship between self-awareness and interactional justice enactment? Guilt is a motivating energy that tends to drive norm compliance (Baumeister et al., 1994). Thus, guilt may be the fuel for increased interactional justice rule adherence because only being conscious of one´s transgression may not be sufficient to act on it. Second, can self-awareness increase a sense of wrongdoing about one's IP-IJ in actors with lower STV? Given that self-awareness could promote interactional justice among actors with lower empathy (i.e., sensitivity to the experiences of another; McNeely & Meglino, 1994), which like (lower) STV is a person-characteristic associated with (lower) other-focus, it is possible that increased self-awareness (e.g., by a strong context) can increase a sense of wrongdoing about IP-IJ in actors with lower STV. Thus, future research ought to examine the efficacy of strong justice-promotive context, inter-individual differences, and underlying mechanisms to provide guidance for practitioners.

A second avenue could be to incorporate STV and situational SCD into models that seek to explain how guilt manifests. According to the self-conscious emotion model (Tracy et al., 2007) and empirical research (Howell et al., 2012; Salvador & Priesemuth, 2012), guilt motivates reparative actions, such as admitting wrongdoing and wanting to make amends. Research demonstrates that individuals who fail to live up to their personal values are more prone to compensating for their behavior (Verplanken & Holland, 2002), which may suggest that actors with higher STV are more likely to apologize. However, other research has revealed that individuals morally disengage when their self-view is threatened (Bandura, 2017; Martin et al., 2014). This finding could be more applicable to actors with higher STV and is relevant as moral disengagement tends to reduce guilt (Kacmar et al., 2019) and presumably those actors' propensity to apologize. The effect could further be amplified by situational SCD because with external demands, guilt and subsequent prosocial behavior decreases (Xu et al., 2012), whereas moral disengagement increases (Kacmar et al., 2019). Furthermore, scholars could expand the conceptual model of this dissertation even further to close the behavior-emotion loop. It is possible that actors' experience of guilt has an impact on their self-regulatory resources because guilt can have depleting effects (Xu et al., 2012), which in turn would negatively affect

their IP-J behavior. In summation, integrating STV and situational SCD as moderator variables into models that investigate the justice-guilt relationship could shed light on when and among whom guilt has beneficial or adverse consequences, further illuminating actors' consequences and how justice and injustice may enfold over time.

Finally, and more broadly, it would be valuable to understand whether actors with different levels of STV also vary in their IPJE under typical demands. If this is not the case, actors with lower STV only fail to be interpersonally just under high demands. Such a pattern suggests that actors with lower STV are inconsistent in their IP-J behavior, which can provoke stress, emotional exhaustion, and reduced daily work satisfaction in targets (Matta et al., 2017) and has been associated with targets' willingness to replace the respective manager (De Cremer, 2003). The findings of this dissertation suggest that STV could be another person-level factor that creates intraindividual variability in justice enactment. Overall, this synthesis of the dissertation's empirical findings and the broader justice literature highlights that the concepts targeted in this dissertation (i.e., as part of the factor-level expansion) could be explored further to gain a more comprehensive picture of how person, situation and context factors interact in influencing actors' justice-related experiences and to gain leverage for effective practical interventions.

4.4.2 The Costs and Benefits of *In*justice Enactment

This dissertation also provides novel insights into the costs and benefits of *in*justice enactment for actors. Acknowledging that adhering to specific rules can require effort, initial research examined what engaging in just behavior entails for actors (Ganegoda et al., 2016; Koopman et al., 2015; Margolis & Molinsky, 2008; Monin et al., 2013; Patient, 2011; Whiteside & Barclay, 2016b). A summary of previous findings reveals the following picture: enacting justice is costly to actors, as adhering to justice rules can require effort, time, and cognitive capacity. At the same time, IP-J (vs. procedural justice enactment) seems relatively profitable, as it can recharge personal resources (Johnson et al., 2014).

This dissertation has identified novel costs, refining the current understanding. First, this dissertation builds upon the findings of Johnson et al. (2014) by demonstrating that engaging in interpersonally just behavior and avoiding interpersonally unjust behavior seems to consume resources; a decrease in IP-J and an increase in IP-IJ were observed under high situational SCD. Furthermore, engaging in IP-IJ induces guilt, which represents a distinct psychological cost.

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Thus, based on this novel information, one could conclude that IP-J has a positive return on investment and that IP-IJ is psychologically costly, indicating that having fair interpersonal encounters is likely an attractive investment for actors.

However, this dissertation`s findings suggest that the calculation is more complex than currently recognized. That is, considering the role of STV, this conclusion should be extended as follows: (1) for actors with higher STV, engaging in IP-J seems to require less effort, but being interpersonally unjust has a higher cost; (2) enacting IP-J seems relatively costly for actors with lower STV; in particular, not enacting IP-IJ seems to exceed these actors' resources or was not considered worth the investment when resources were already strained, yet IP-IJ was unrelated to costs for these actors. These novel insights generate an informative new picture. For managers with lower STV, not investing their energy in IP-J could be more attractive in the short term, given that Studies III-V suggest that not engaging in IP-J has no benefit (no guilt reduction), and not avoiding IP-IJ is without cost (no guilt). Conversely, for managers with higher STV, the initial cost appears to be manageable, and the price of not investing in interpersonally fair conduct seems high. These patterns provide novel insights into why some actors may be more inclined to invest their energy into fair encounters than others. This observed pattern has practical values.

Again, these findings provide fruitful suggestions for future research. One way to refine the understanding of the costs and benefits of justice for actors could be to examine whether not only the effect of situational SCD on IP-J (as shown by Studies I-II) but also the replenishing effect of IP-J (Johnson et al., 2014) varies with actors' STV. Value-congruent behavior is experienced as rewarding and associated with positive affect (Edwards & Cable, 2009), which tends to have a replenishing effect (Tice et al., 2007). Hence, actors with higher STV could benefit more intensely from engaging in IP-J that is likely experienced as an expression of their values. Empirical research provides support for this reasoning that self-affirmation (i.e., behavioral or cognitive events that bolster the perceived self-integrity; Steele, 1988), which can be triggered by value-congruent behavior, to counteract the effect of high situational SCD (Schmeichel & Vohs, 2009). Investigating STV as a potential moderating effect of the IP-J-depletion relationship would confirm whether the replenishing effect is due to value-congruent behavior. Furthermore, the evidenced role of goal-identity relevance in reducing the effort of IPJE (Studies I-II) could also serve as one explanation for the finding that procedural justice is less replenishing. Procedural justice leaves actors less room for discretion and therefore likely

feels more externally driven, which tends to undermine the positive effects of value-driven actions (Bono & Judge, 2003). Further shedding light on the role of STV in the consequences of justice behavior would also provide guidance to organizations that are interested in fostering justice globally because practical interventions could be tailored to specific groups of managers, namely those with lower psychological benefits from engaging in IP-J behavior. In conclusion, future research can contribute to the justice literature by gaining further insight into the costs and benefits of engaging in just or unjust behavior and devote attention to interindividual differences. Therefore, the findings of this dissertation propose the universal theory of human values (Schwartz, 2012, 2017) as a useful theoretical framework.

4.4.3 The Bi-Dimensional Scale in Justice Enactment Research

The bi-dimensional conceptualization of organizational justice behavior may refine previous finding in the justice enactment literature: a potential avenue for future research. For example, as outlined in Chapter 2.2, Johnson et al. (2014) investigated the association between actors' (interpersonal and procedural) justice enactment and their subsequent resource level. In addition, the authors proposed that procedural justice enactment is more depleting for actors with higher neuroticism, arguing that actors with this trait tend to score higher on avoidance motivation and have overall lower levels of self-regulatory resources (Johnson et al., 2014). Empirical results of their study have demonstrated that procedural justice enactment decreases, whereas IP-J enactment increases, actors' regulatory-resource level. Furthermore, the effect of procedural justice was global, indicating that this rule-bound justice behavior (e.g., adhering to suppression of biases and consistency) may indeed be more demanding than IP-J rule adherence due to the reliance on close monitoring and cognitive-demanding processing, as supposed by the authors. Hence, it is possible that neuroticism has a moderating effect on the procedural injustice and regulatory-resources relationship. This dissertation's findings suggest that avoiding injustice is psychologically more difficult. Therefore, actors with generally fewer regulatory resources (i.e., higher neuroticism) could be less effective at avoiding procedural injustice given that, presumably, it is even more costly than avoiding IP-IJ. Thus, subsequent research could independently assess procedural justice and procedural injustice, as well as justice and injustice of other dimensions, to determine whether they have differential effects on actors' resources and whether the effects vary with actors' neuroticism levels.

4.4.4 Completing the Shift from Targets to Actors

Finally, justice research is currently undergoing a paradigmatic shift from a target to an actor perspective. This dissertation pursues this shift. The results of this dissertation demonstrate how the field could benefit from fully incorporating the actor perspective. Scholars generally agree that justice enactment has implications for actors (Diehl et al., 2021; Graso et al., 2020). However, most justice enactment research seems implicitly driven by a shared objective: to gain knowledge and understanding about why (i.e., justice motives; e.g., Cropanzano et al., 2003) and when (i.e., justice roadblocks; e.g., Sherf et al., 2021) managers act more or less fairly. The underlying goal is to enhance employee experience and well-being and, more or less implicitly, the consequences for corporate success (for exceptions, see Bernerth et al., 2016; Johnson et al., 2014; Soenen et al., 2019; Zapata et al., 2016). This goal is evidenced by various introductions of actor-centric justice research that tend to follow a structure, such as "Treating employees fairly is associated with a wide range of beneficial outcomes for employees … and organizations" (Whiteside & Barclay, 2016b, p. 3311). More recent examples are:

> "Bad news is certainly distressing for the recipient, but this distress can be reduced to some degree—or unfortunately, it can be greatly aggravated—by how the news is delivered … The impact of interactional justice cannot be overstated … employees were less likely to file for wrongful termination claims when they had been treated with interactional justice at the time of termination" (Holt et al., 2021, p. 708).

One could tentatively conclude that justice enactment is actor-centric in that it focuses on traits, states, or contexts that "produce" (un)fair outcomes under which targets, and subsequently organizations, can suffer. Thus, actor-centric research has certainly been a crucial and insightful paradigm shift in organizational justice literature that has significantly advanced the current understanding of justice at work (Brockner et al., 2015; Graso et al., 2020). However, it might be valuable to embrace the actor perspective more fully. Following other researchers, by addressing actor implications directly (Bernerth et al., 2016; Johnson et al., 2014) or indirectly (e.g., by discussing how perspective taking may reduce the adverse consequences for actors of communicating bad news; Holt et al., 2021), this dissertation demonstrates the ways in which justice enactment impacts actors. External demands can impede actors' IPJE, which not only blocks access to a source of replenishment (Johnson et al., 2014) but is also likely perceived by some actors (i.e., those with higher STV) as self-relevant,

and living according to one's life goals is a source of happiness (Deci & Ryan, 2000; McGregor et al., 2006; McGregor & Little, 1998). Furthermore, this dissertation emphasizes that IP-IJ enactment can be followed by the aversive sensation of guilt, which can be the tormenting experience of not living up to one's standards (Zwank et al., 2022).

Organizational psychology research aims to identify solutions to problems to improve the psychological well-being and success of all organization members (Riggio, 2017). In summary, the consequences of justice for targets should not be diminished. However, moving forward, justice enactment research could focus more strongly on short-term consequences (e.g., reduced relaxation or well-being; Foulk et al., 2018) that can lead to long-term consequences (e.g., burnout; Clough et al., 2017), which, of course, at some point can have severe impact on organizational functioning and success (e.g., poor job performance, reduced relationship quality, absence, and turnover; Garton, 2022, November 24; Lee et al., 2011; Salyers et al., 2017). Ultimately, one goal could be to gain leverage for practical interventions that, beyond helping actors engage in just encounters, can help them cope with the consequences of injustice enactment.

4.5   Methodological Implications

Broadly, this dissertation highlights the utility of a qualitative coding approach to assessing IPJE, which proves helpful when evaluating justice and injustice behavior. The most common approach in justice enactment research is asking actors to report the extent to which they adhere to justice rules (Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt & Rodell, 2015). However, research in related domains focusing on more or less destructive managerial behavior demonstrates gaps between self-reports and objective behavioral assessments (Scheier et al., 1978). Hence, when assessing injustice behavior, coding could be a promising approach to reduce biased responses due to, for example, social desirability. Additionally, when embedded in a convincing cover story, the topic of interest is less transparent to actors, promoting natural behavior, which would more likely capture injustice. Finally, using justice rules as criteria for rating actors' adherence to and violations of organizational justice rules allows for a reliable assessment without extensive training and the need for actual targets (that would experience unfair treatment). In conclusion, the coding approach may prove useful when investigating injustice enactment and more complex phenomena that require longitudinal data (e.g., testing the

complete conceptual model of this dissertation to explore the situational SCD, justice, guilt, and reparative behavior loop).

Another methodological contribution of this dissertation is demonstrating justice assessment in the context of computer-mediated communication (i.e., CMC) instead of face-to-face communication. Besides reducing experimenter or target biases in outcome variables, CMC has a disinhibition effect on behavior (Lapidot-Lefler & Barak, 2012). Hence, this approach could make injustice-related effects more salient. When testing more complex models, future research could utilize a comprehensive coding approach that uses longer texts and computer software programs, such as linguistic inquiry and word count (LIWC; Tausczik & Pennebaker, 2010), to capture larger amounts of data more efficiently. However, researchers should note that although software programs can provide novel and nuanced insights (e.g., displaying discrete emotions), they require careful development and applied category validation (Tausczik & Pennebaker, 2010). Overall, the proliferation of CMC in organizations has three implications for justice research: (1) justice experiences, in this context, have a significant impact on an individual's experiences at work and should, therefore, be better understood, (2) considerable amounts of data are not subject to the disadvantages of self-reporting (e.g., recall bias) and can provide valuable insights into human psychology (e.g., behavior, emotion, and cognition; Tausczik & Pennebaker, 2010), and lastly (3) again, the approach may be useful for studies focusing on injustice behavior.

4.6   Practical Recommendations

This dissertation proposes several directions for practical interventions that support managers' IPJE. Following these interventions, managers, employees, and organizations can gain access to IPJE as a valuable resource.

A promising avenue for organizations is to create and nurture values that emphasize concern for others through value statements (e.g., what values are important and what behavior aligns with or violates those values). This research highlights how concern for others benefits IPJE. Concern for others promoted managers' engagement in IP-J and avoidance of IP-IJ, even under high situational SCD, and further increased the likelihood of actors recognizing IP-IJ as wrongdoing. Although values, especially core values, are relatively stable (Schwartz, 1994), they can be influenced (Argandoña, 2002). Indeed, how strongly a given value influences a particular action or outcome is partly dependent on the environment (Argandoña, 2002; Arieli

& Tenne-Gazit, 2017), and people tend to match their values to those of the employing organizations over time (i.e., socialization process; De Cooman et al., 2009; Vleugels et al., 2018). Thus, organizational management may benefit from being clear about their core values and how these manifest in managers' and employees' daily work lives. Such value statements can establish conventions about the meanings of events and actions and can shape how work events are interpreted by individuals, subsequently guiding their actions (Arieli et al., 2019; Bardi & Schwartz, 2003; Finegan, 1994).

Research has demonstrated that such behavioral agreements (i.e., what kind of behavior is aligned with the organizations´ values) motivate individuals to take actions they would not otherwise take without a respective code of conduct (Sunstein, 1996). Significantly, meta-analytic evidence underscores the importance of not only creating but also enforcing such behavioral statements to promote the effectiveness of interventions discouraging undesired social behavior (Kish-Gephart et al., 2010). Furthermore, organizations may want to monitor the application of norms within their organization. Studies indicate that salient injunctive norms (i.e., the extent to which group members accept the behavior; Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004) have a stronger effect on individual compliance than other types of norms (Cialdini et al., 1991; Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004). Hence, organizations can benefit from promoting commitment within the management team (as promoter of the values and as role models).

The results of this dissertation demonstrate that actors with lower STV struggle more intensely under high situational SCD to engage in interpersonally just conversations. As a result, value statements could be particularly relevant in motivating compliance in these actors. An example could be creating awareness in managers that although they may consider their interpersonal conduct or actions right or acceptable (i.e., they align with their personal values), employees nevertheless tend to respond negatively (e.g., lower in-role performance and job satisfaction ; Colquitt et al., 2015) when they perceive that their values are compromised (i.e., violate the psychological contract, which is an employee's perception of the unwritten promises and obligations implicit in his or her relationship with the employing organization; Thompson & Bunderson, 2003). Crucially, these consequences can, in turn, be disadvantageous for managers' personal goals (i.e., gaining self-relevance). According to value theory, these goals are likely related to actors' own concerns (Schwartz, 2012) and may increase the efficacy of the intervention.

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The final reason for having a value statement is that companies could attract new managers with IPJE-promoting STV values because research demonstrates that individuals tend to apply to companies with values congruent with their own (Dickson et al., 2008; Ployhart et al., 2006). More actively, organizations could include STV as a hiring criterion in addition to other factors (e.g., technical skills). To this end, indirect measures of personal values may prove helpful, such as scenario or choice tasks that allow for inferring applicants' personal values (Mumford et al., 2002).

In conclusion, creating and actively enforcing a value statement could be an effective practical intervention that addresses several of the key findings of this dissertation. Since fairness research has demonstrated that other-oriented values reduce targets' negative responses to low perceived fairness (Holtz & Harold, 2013), value statements could be a worthwhile investment for organizations.

Furthermore, the results of this dissertation highlight the need to create and maintain strong contexts. Namely, the results demonstrate that strong contexts can substitute for actors' personal motivation: Study II revealed that only actors with lower STV who interacted in weak contexts engaged in more IP-IJ in response to high situational SCD. Notably, situational strength literature suggest that strong contexts can immediately mute inappropriate behavior (i.e., in the operating context; Cooper & Withey, 2009). Thus, the recommendations of this dissertation are (1) to prescribe the use of channels with strong rules (e.g., email), particularly in situations with less energy for more controlled actions and (2) to establish clear and consistent rules in other communication contexts, potentially alongside the value statement because the intervention should have direct effects, whereas interventions targeting values tend to take longer (Vleugels et al., 2018). For example, a clear set of actions in meetings could discourage IP-IJ in face-to-face communication (e.g., beginning a meeting with a greeting, sharing points of discussion, listening to, and showing appreciation for others' views and needs, and thanking participants for the time invested together). Additional recommendations are presented in Manuscript 1.

Finally, the results of this dissertation identify situational SCD as a concern in IPJE. The main implication that emerges from this finding, discussed in more detail in Manuscript 1 but summarized briefly in the following section, is that organizations could benefit from: (1) educating managers about the effect of high situational SCD on their interpersonal behavior so that they can be more mindful of their energy levels and, for example, schedule accordingly

(e.g., schedule a delicate meeting, such as a redundancy talk, at the beginning of the day), (2) providing self-control training (Muraven, 2010; Oaten & Cheng, 2006, 2022), (3) supporting managers to find sources of replenishment (e.g., breaks between meetings; Tyler & Burns, 2008), and (4) rethinking and effectively overseeing managers' workloads. For example, by matching demands with staffing capacity or eliminating tasks (Dasgupta, 2013), simplifying processes and reducing task switches (Lansdown et al., 2004), carefully managing overtime (Van der Hulst et al., 2006), or potentially even automating work procedures (Wray et al., 2015). Since the literature highlights the crucial role of perceived control on subjective workload (Taris et al., 2006), companies could benefit from providing managers with greater autonomy, such as in task allocation, time management, and task prioritization (Hockey & Earle, 2006; Miller & Hemberg, 2022; Pisljar et al., 2011; Shirom et al., 2009).

4.7   Study Strengths and Limitations

To adequately interpret the results of this dissertation, several strengths and limitations must be acknowledged. A crucial strength of this research is its sound theoretical grounding. All the studies relied on established theories that guided the narrative of the predictions. Studies I-II drew upon extended self-control strength theory (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007). Despite recent methodological debate (Baumeister, 2019; Dang et al., 2021), self-control features as one of the longest-standing psychological concepts applied in organizational contexts to explain numerous work behaviors (for a review, see Lian et al., 2017). The central assumptions and tenets of extended self-control strength theory (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007) were integrated with additional theories (i.e., situational strength theory and the universal theory of human values; Mischel, 1977; Schwartz, 1994, 2017) to provide a richer understanding of the depletion and behavior relationship. The universal theory of human values (Schwartz, 1994, 2017) is highly developed (Schwartz, 2017; Schwartz & Cieciuch, 2022) and has clear utility within organizational contexts (for a review, see Arieli et al., 2019). Furthermore, situational strength is one of the most utilized frameworks for exploring and conceptualizing contextual features (Meyer et al., 2010; Meyer & Dalal, 2009), which explicates operating mechanisms supported by numerous empirical studies (Cortina et al., 2015; Dalal et al., 2015; Meyer et al., 2010).

The findings resulting from the integrated framework return to the applied theories in this dissertation. That is, they return to the universal theory of human values (Schwartz, 1994,

2017), which clarifies potential patterns between individuals' values and their behaviors but does not address specific operations and mechanisms interacting with variables external to the model (Hitlin & Piliavin, 2004). Furthermore, the findings return to situational strength theory (Meyer et al., 2010; Mischel, 1977) by providing empirical evidence that the theory's core tenets also hold in situations of momentary depletion. Studies III–V integrated the actor-focused model of justice (Scott et al., 2009) with the self-conscious emotion model (Tracy & Robins, 2004), which provides a set of cognitive self-appraisals that determine the occurrence of guilt and allowed for a coherent set of predictions to offer a more comprehensive understanding of the justice–guilt relationship by identifying situational and interindividual differences. Overall, drawing from diverse established theories facilitated the building and testing of solid theoretical models that advance understanding of IP-J enactment. The cross-domain integration of existing knowledge advances and strengthens theories by subjecting them to scrutiny from different perspectives.

Another strength of this dissertation is the expansion of existing approaches to justice enactment on several levels. The first is factor-level expansion (i.e., combining situational, contextual, and person-related factors). Simultaneously investigating several factors provides information about their combined effect. This interactional perspective accounts for the notion that behavior is a product of individuals and context (Lewin, 1939; Mischel, 1977). In addition to advancing theory, the factor-level expansion approach can more accurately predict when injustice is more or less likely to occur, which in turn provides leverage for effective practical measures (Aguinis, 2004). Second, by expanding the temporal level (i.e., investigating the *after*-justice phase) and focusing on guilt, this study is among the first to provide insights into actors' affective responses to justice. This study thus addresses recent calls to investigate the short-term consequences for actors and understand interindividual differences (Graso et al., 2020). Finally, the construct-level expansion (i.e., investigating IP-J and IP-IJ) provides novel insights with theoretical (i.e., the constructs relate differently to other variables), practical (i.e., different practical measures appear to be effective), and methodological (i.e., there is utility in using both scales, and content-coding may prove a valuable assessment method) implications that stimulate future research.

Nevertheless, several study limitations must be acknowledged. Both theoretical models were tested cross-sectionally, placing temporal limitations on the propositions generated by them. Time could be a relevant factor because the effect of situational SCD (Muraven &

Baumeister, 2000) and guilt (Baumeister et al., 1994; Ferguson et al., 1997) are time-sensitive phenomena. For example, in their study on regulatory resources and justice behavior, Johnson et al. (2014) demonstrated that actors' depletion levels on one day did not affect their justice behavior the following day. Since observed effects do not necessarily continue, future research could account for temporality to better understand how observed patterns change over time.

Furthermore, the findings' generalizability is restricted due to the study design and population. Studies I–IV used simulation designs. Although this approach allowed for experimental control, it cannot be concluded whether responses would be similar in an organizational setting. However, several measures were taken to overcome this limitation (e.g., high psychological realism, engagement, and measuring actual behavior), and replication across different samples provided some reassurance regarding generalizability. The generalizability of the results of Studies III–V is higher, as the findings were replicated in a sample of working managers (Study V). As can be inferred from the previous argument, only Study V used a sample of working managers, which also limits external validity. Research demonstrates that managers are typically characterized by high levels of self-enhancement values (Knafo & Sagiv, 2004), which oppose STV and "emphasize the pursuit of self-interest by focusing on gaining control over people and resources, or by demonstrating ambition and competence according to social standards and attaining success" (Arieli et al., 2019, p. 6). Crucially, STV tend to be high among social-oriented groups of profession, such as psychologists (Arieli et al., 2019). Hence, when replicating the study in a management sample, incorporating self-enhancement values may be critical to better understand whether those values play a comparable (e.g., whether lower self-enhancement has a comparable effect to higher STV) or different role because different values have different implications for attitudes and behaviors (Schwartz, 2012).

Furthermore, personal resources, such as cognitive capacity (Pachur et al., 2009), diminish with age. Conversely, emotion regulation strategies tend to improve with age, allowing older employees to defuse negative emotions more quickly (Scheibe, 2019). Thus, in an older population, one might expect a stronger demand–injustice relationship and a weaker injustice–guilt relationship. Notably, although some scholars use cognitive control (i.e., relying on cognitive resources) and self-control interchangeably (e.g., Vohs & Baumeister, 2004), other scholars in the self-control domain understand self-control as a distinct construct (e.g., Inzlicht et al., 2020) with a distinct underlying mechanism, specifically as unrelated to cognitive

resources. Therefore, the assumptions remain to be empirically tested. In conclusion, further studies are required to improve the findings' generalizability across time, situations, groups, and age.

5   General Conclusion

The goal of this dissertation was to better understand IPJE from the perspective of individuals in positions of power in an organization – the actors. This dissertation, therefore, aimed to clarify antecedents, outcomes, and the concept of IPJE itself. The findings should provide leverage for effective practical interventions. Investigating potential obstacles to respectful and polite work interactions and actors' affective responses towards their IPJE offers novel answers to why interpersonal injustice occurs and why it may persist in organizations.

Reflecting on the introductory question of this dissertation: Can you recall a situation where you intended to be polite and respectful to your counterpart in a conversation but somehow displayed neither of these qualities? The findings from the *before*-justice phase (How do actors' autonomous motivation and context strength, singularly and in combination, influence the relationship between situational SCD and actors' IPJE?) suggest that actors can fail to engage in respectful and polite behavior because they previously used self-control. Thus, even unrelated events (e.g., engaging in decision-making or not covering one's frustration) can lead to situations where not only adhering to but also refraining from violating interpersonal justice rules appears to be more demanding.

The findings further showed that for actors who were autonomously motivated to engage in other-oriented behavior, competing situational demands were less likely to pose a barrier to their IPJE. In addition, the findings from the *after*-justice phase (How do two factors of the self-evaluation process leading to guilt – the self-relevance of justice and feelings of responsibility – uniquely and in combination shape actors' guilt response to their IPJE?) showed that being unjust was more likely to trigger a sense of guilt in those actors.

While several novel questions arise from this dissertation's findings (e.g., leads guilt to more subsequent IP-J and is this effect stronger for autonomously motivated actors?), the results have two important implications for organizations. Among actors with lower autonomous motivation for justice, IPJE suffers under high situational SCD. Actors with higher autonomous motivation may be plagued by a tormenting feeling of guilt in the face of IP-IJ. Thus, in line with prior work, this dissertation underscores the crucial need to support actors in their IPJE, for their own sake and the sake of others. To that end, the results of this dissertation suggest that fostering the value of respectful interactions, coupled with clear behavioral standards, is a fruitful starting point to support actors in their IPJE.

6   Full-Length Manuscripts

6.1   Manuscript 1

I Can(not) Control Myself: The Role of Self-Transcendence Values and Situational Strength in Explaining Depleted Managers' Interpersonal *In*justice

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Abstract

This study investigated whether, and under what conditions, self-control demands (SCD) are associated with less interpersonal *justice* (politeness or respect) and more interpersonal *injustice* (degrading or inappropriate remarks) behavior. Drawing from extended self-control strength theory and integrating the motivation literature, we posit that (1) SCD have a stronger effect on actors' attempts *not to be unfair* than on their attempts *to be fair* because avoidance behavior is more demanding than approach behavior. Further, extended self-control strength theory posits that people control themselves more effectively when they are personally motivated and external standards are present. Accordingly, we further posit that (2) emphasizing self-transcendence values (i.e., the stable motivational goal to consider others' welfare) and (3) acting in strong situations (i.e., the presence of external normative standards on appropriate behavior) buffer the SCD effect. Results from two realistic simulation studies show that SCD were related to actors' interpersonal justice and injustice behavior. Across both studies, different results patterns, and relationships with the other variables for justice and injustice emerged. Thus, although the stronger effect of SCD on injustice (vs. justice) was not generally supported, the finding suggests that adhering to and not violating interpersonal justice rules are indeed different from one another. In addition, SCD were less detrimental among actors with higher self-transcendence values and when actors operated in strong (vs. weak) contexts. A three-way interaction showed that especially among actors with low self-transcendence values, who act in weak contexts, SCD provoked injustice. We discuss theoretical and practical implications.

Keywords: Organizational justice, self-control, situational strength

I Can(not) Control Myself: The Role of Self-Transcendence Values and Situational Strength in Explaining Depleted Managers' Interpersonal *In*justice

High work demands can cause managers to treat others less politely and respectfully (Sherf et al., 2018; Whiteside & Barclay, 2016). This finding is relevant for organizations because managers' interpersonal justice enactment is positively related to employees' well-being and performance, while it leads to a decrease of various forms of destructive work behavior (Colquitt et al., 2001; Liao & Rupp, 2005). Additionally, managers benefit from being interpersonally fair because high-quality encounters can replenish their resources (Johnson et al., 2014) and increase their overall well-being and job satisfaction (Bernerth et al., 2016). Considering the vast beneficial consequences of managers interpersonal justice enactment for organizations and their members it is of practical and conceptual relevance to further illuminate the role of work demands as a situational roadblock to just workplaces.

The present paper adopts an extended self-control view (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007, 2018) to (1) shed light on personal and contextual characteristics that can mitigate the adverse consequences of high demands, and to (2) investigate whether they provoke not only less politeness and respect (less interpersonal *justice* enactment) in actors but may also more degrading or inappropriate remarks (more interpersonal *injustice* enactment). According to the extended self-control perspective, adhering to one's own or others' standards, such as complying with ideals of interpersonal sensitivity, can require self-control – i.e., the capability to regulate potentially corruptive thoughts, emotions, and actions. It is further suggested that people's self-control attempts can temporarily be less effective when they feel depleted by prior self-control attempts. Under such daunting circumstances, success is more likely when they are personally motivated to express certain behaviors and when clear standards are present in the context (Baumeister et al., 2018; Baumeister & Vohs, 2007). We propose that among managers to whom treating others with politeness and respect is personally important, and in situations that provide clear justice-promotive standards, being interpersonally fair

should be possible even when confronted with high demands. Therefore, we focus on self-transcendence values – the stable motivational goal of considering others' needs and their well-being (Schwartz, 1994), and situational strength – the presence of clear and established rules regarding appropriate and expected behavior in a given context (Meyer et al., 2010) as potential boundary conditions. In doing so, we aim to illuminate for *whom* and *when* high self-control demands (SCD) are less consequential.

Adopting a limited-resource perspective, prior research established that the more demands managers face, the less respect and propriety characterizes their communication (Sherf et al., 2018; Whiteside & Barclay, 2016). Although providing valuable insights into how managers' sensitivity suffers under high work demands, these findings do not portray a complete picture of the behaviors that SCD may provoke. Those prior studies conceptualized justice as the extent powerholders in organizations who enact justice (i.e., actors) adhere to interpersonal justice rules by being polite and respectful. Hence, they neglect justice rule *violations*, that is, the extent actors act in a rude manner, or make degrading or inappropriate remarks (Colquitt et al., 2015). We consider this distinction between justice and injustice relevant because motivation literature shows (Carver, 2006; Gable, 2006), and self-control scholars theorize (Werner et al., 2018; Werner & Milyavskaya, 2018) that *approaching something positive* and *avoiding something negative* are perceived as differently demanding, which in turn, can affect goal accomplishment. A large body of work suggests that people are more likely to succeed in approach (vs. avoidance) attempts (Elliot, 1999; Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996; Werner et al., 2018). We argue that being fair is a goal associated with vast positive outcomes (Colquitt et al., 2001, 2013) that actors likely perceive as desirable, whereas being unfair provokes intense negative responses and adverse consequences (Colquitt et al., 2015) that actors likely strive to avoid. We suggest that SCD may affect the goal to adhere to interpersonal justice rules and the goal not to violate interpersonal justice rules

differentially. Thus, we contend that both actors' adherence to and violation of interpersonal justice rules must both be examined to fully understand the consequences of work demands.

Concluding, we illuminate *among which* individuals enacting justice in organizations, and *in what kind of contexts* high SCD give rise to a decrease in interpersonal *justice* and an increase in interpersonal *injustice* enactment. To explore our conceptual model (see Figure 1), we adopted a bi-dimensional measurement approach and conceptualized interpersonal justice as consisting of the dimension *of justice* and *injustice* (i.e., the extent of adherence to politeness and respect vs. the extent of violations by showing rudeness or making degrading or inappropriate remarks; Colquitt et al., 2015). We conducted two realistic simulation studies, simulating a weak (Study 1) and strong context (Study 2) to investigate our suggested boundary conditions.

Figure 1

The Full Hypothetical Model
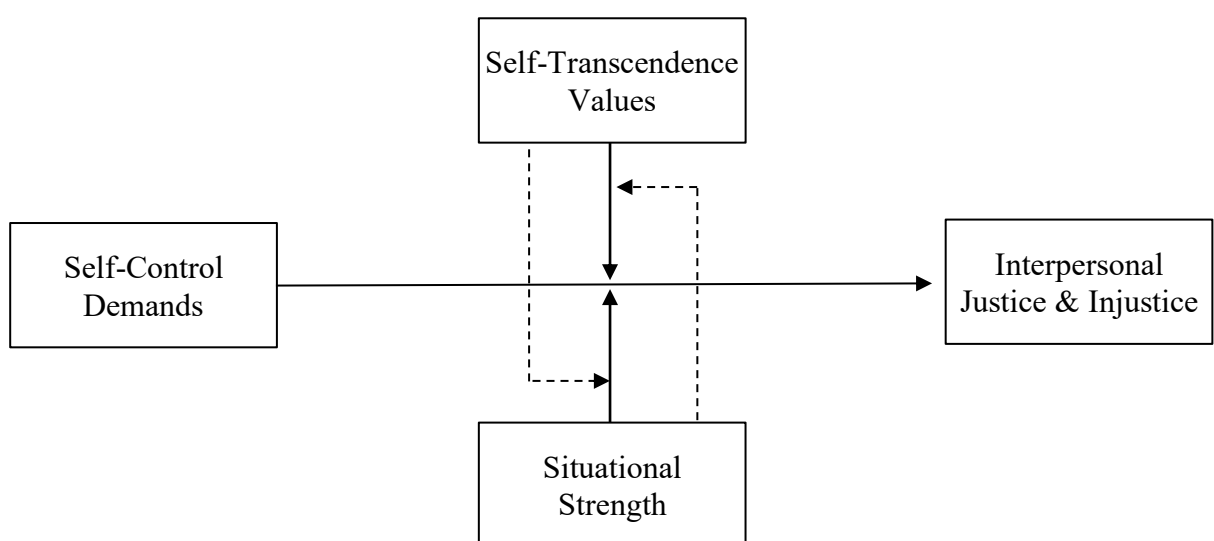
Our research makes several theoretical contributions. Overall, we extend actor-centric justice research by further illuminating the role of demands that require self-control as an antecedent of interpersonal justice enactment. Prior studies have, for the most part, studied the effect of demands under the limited-resource premise (Sherf et al., 2018; Whiteside & Barclay, 2016); that is, effective control primarily varies with competing demands. However, recent advances in the self-control domain suggest additional self-control ingredients (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007, 2018; Gillebaart, 2018; Inzlicht & Friese, 2019), indicating inter-individual and contextual differences that can attenuate the effect of limited resources, potentially by facilitating control or reducing perceived effort. Acknowledging these theoretical and empirical extensions, with our framework, we present a more refined picture. That is, we include boundary conditions and illuminate among *which* actors and *in what kind of contexts* demands are more (less) consequential. Additionally, testing our integrated framework, we give back to the extended self-control strength theory by (1) gaining insights on whether value congruent goals suffer less from SCD, and (2) by offering a theory-deduced explanatory mechanism (i.e., variance restriction; Cortina et al., 2019) for why clear standards may promote compliance with normative standards.

Moreover, by adopting an interaction perspective to examine how individual and contextual factors predict actors' justice in tandem, we provide a more detailed perspective on the effect SCD may have in the work setting. While the literature on justice enactment is constantly growing (Brockner et al., 2015; Diehl et al., 2021) our study moves beyond existing evidence, answering recent calls to examine justice enactment as complex and intertwined phenomenon (Diehl et al., 2021; Graso et al., 2020). That is, we illuminate which actors may more effectively "remain just" (those with a higher intrinsic inclination to care about others) and what kind of contexts can effectively support actors without such stable tendencies (those with clear standards). In doing so, we not only advance the literature, but also provide valuable insights into how companies can promote justice.

Second, because prior studies focused solely on justice rule adherence (Sherf et al., 2018; Whiteside & Barclay, 2016), they may have yet underestimated the consequences of high work demands. Our full-range conceptualization of interpersonal justice enactment (including justice rule violations) allows us to investigate whether the two dimensions relate differently to the other variables, thus, drawing a more comprehensive picture of justice-related work experiences. Additionally, we add novel insights to the ongoing discussion on the conceptualization of organizational justice (Diehl et al., 2021). Prior studies measuring the full-range of justice exclusively adopted a target perspective (Colquitt et al., 2015). Using the Full-Range Measurement Approach, we are among the first to provide evidence for the scale's value in actor-centric research.

Third, and more broadly, we contribute to the literature exploring the effect of justice motives (why people care about fairness) on actors' behavior. Although scholars widely agree that individuals care about justice because "one has some a priori standard … that pertains to one's treatment of other human beings" (Cropanzano et al., 2003, p. 1020), the deontic motive is still underexplored (Diehl et al., 2021; Graso et al., 2019). Our findings suggest that actors' sense of being interpersonally fair as the right thing to do, which we argue applies to people holding self-transcendence values, may serve as an inner compass, guiding their behavior when the resources for more deliberate behavior are depleted. Thereby, we answer recent calls to explore in what kind of situations the otherwise weakly predictive motive (Diehl et al., 2021) is important (Graso et al., 2020).

Theoretical Framework

Interpersonal Justice Enactment

Interpersonal justice broadly refers to the quality of workplace interactions (Bies, 2001, 2015). Most often, the concept of interpersonal justice enactment is defined as the extent to which actors treat others with respect and propriety (Bies & Moag, 1986; Greenberg, 1993). Yet repeatedly, scholars argued that we fail to cover the full spectrum of justice-

relevant behaviors by focusing solely on actions that support fairness perception – or the extent actors adhere to justice rules (Colquitt et al., 2015; Colquitt & Rodell, 2015; Gilliland et al., 1998). Consequentially, behavior, such as making rude, degrading, or derogatory, or inappropriate remarks, conceptualizing interpersonal *injustice*, was included in the Full-Range Justice Measurement (Colquitt et al., 2015). The underlying bi-dimensional definition of justice, also adopted in the present paper, stresses that interpersonal justice enactment combines two goals – to display interpersonally fair and not to display interpersonally unfair behavior or to adhere to while not violating interpersonal justice rules.

Interpersonal Justice and SCD

According to extended self-control strength theory (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007), acting in line with one's goals or others' standards, such as adhering to justice rules in a managerial role, can require self-control. For instance, employees who underperform or act uncivilly are part of actors' daily work lives and likely trigger frustration, anger, or disappointment rather than appreciation and respect. To still comply with the managerial role, actors rely on self-control – the human capacity to transform corrupting thoughts and feelings to act in accordance with one's aspirations or others' expectations (Baumeister & Heatherton, 1996). However, controlling one's natural responses is taxing, and since humans' personal resources are finite, the likelihood of success decreases with prior SCD (Muraven & Baumeister, 2000). This phenomenon, also referred to as the depletion effect, lies at the heart of the original theory (Baumeister, Heatherton, et al., 1994; Baumeister & Heatherton, 1996) and has been widely confirmed (Dang, 2018; de Ridder et al., 2012). Extensive evidence shows that depleted people engage less in normative and socially desirable work behaviors (e.g., civil behavior; Finkel & Campbell, 2001; Rosen et al., 2016). Adopting a limited-resources view, justice scholars showed that with increasing demands, actors succeed less in displaying respect and propriety when interacting with their collaborators (Sherf et al., 2018; Whiteside & Barclay, 2016b). Consistent with prior findings, we expect that:

Hypothesis 1a: SCD are negatively related to interpersonal justice enactment.

Interpersonal Injustice and SCD

Accumulating self-control research shows that, in addition to predicting the omission of goal-supportive behavior, SCD predict the commission of goal-hindering behaviors (Liang et al., 2016; Lin et al., 2016). Traditionally, scholars focused on how SCD relates to positive behaviors, including various indicators of interpersonal functioning (Finkel & Campbell, 2001) or academic performance (Tangney et al., 2004). Regardless of the domain, the evidence supported the core assumption that SCD renders people less effective in engaging in desirable behaviors (Joosten et al., 2015). Assuming that SCD may equally influence negative behavior, scholars increasingly used the framework to explore why people fail to prevent goal-hindering actions (Buckholtz, 2015; Denson et al., 2017). Results showed that people facing SCD were also less effective in counteracting the translation of their frustration into a display of various forms of aggressive behavior, including putting others down, ridiculing others, or unethical conduct (Liang et al., 2016; Lin et al., 2016). Meta-analytical evidence (de Ridder et al., 2012), while focusing on trait self-control, evidenced that the self-control relates similarly to promoting desirable and avoiding undesirable behavior. Thus, SCD can influence both peoples' success in doing something "good" and preventing something "bad". Accordingly, we predict that actors facing high SCD, in addition to being less interpersonally fair, struggle with avoiding being interpersonally unfair. We predict that:

Hypothesis 1b: SCD are positively related to interpersonal injustice enactment.

Interpersonal Justice Versus Interpersonal Injustice, and SCD

According to classical self-regulation models (Bandura, 1986; Carver & Scheier, 1982, 1989) and recent theorizing drawing on motivation literature (Werner et al., 2018), the goal itself, or *what is pursued*, plays a decisive role in determining peoples' regulatory success. Core to this line of reasoning is the fundamental motivational distinction between wanting to promote a desirable outcome and preventing an undesirable outcome (Higgins,

1998). Given the anticipated positive outcomes, the first system tends to be associated with approach tendencies, whereas the second system, because of its negative outcome focus, is associated more strongly with avoidance tendencies (Crowe & Higgins, 1997; Elliot, 1999).

Although both goals - approaching something positive or avoiding something negative - energize behavior, they trigger distinct underlying psychological and physiological processes (Elliot et al., 2014; Muraven, 2008; Roskes et al., 2013) that result in different efforts (Werner et al., 2018; Werner & Milyavskaya, 2018). Broadly speaking, attempts to approach positive outcomes tend to elicit positive affect and feelings of personal accomplishment (Bargh, 1990; Carver, 2006) because one may feel like meeting or exceeding one's own or others' expectations (Higgins, 1998). Further, approach goals promote a global and flexible processing style, which demands little mental energy and fosters a general sense of ease and vitality (Carver, 2006; Elliot et al., 2014; Hassin et al., 2009). In comparison, attempts to avoid adverse outcomes are often perceived as a collision of one's and others' expectations, resulting in feelings of having to meet external demands—one *has to* rather than *wants to* control oneself (Werner & Milyavskaya, 2018). Such a state tends to feel exhausting and is mentally costly because it activates conscious monitoring, controlled processing, anticipatory worries, and disruptive thoughts about eventual failure (Evans, 2003; Mitchell & Phillips, 2007).

We argue that enacting interpersonal justice is a desirable goal for actors because of the diverse positive short- and long-term consequences associated with being polite and respectful (e.g., strong relationships, personal success, self-concept maintenance, and overall well-being; Bernerth et al., 2016; Brockner et al., 2015; Graso et al., 2020). In comparison, enacting interpersonal injustice is likely a negative end state that actors attempt to avoid, given the associated intense negative responses of targets and the adverse implications (e.g., counterproductive work behavior, damaged relationship quality, reduced effort and

commitment; Colquitt et al., 2015; Dulebohn et al., 2009; F. Xu et al., 2019; Zapata et al., 2016).

We contend that while actors may still succeed in maintaining a minimum of politeness, withholding the pointed remark might fail if they feel too depleted to control their response, given that prevention intentions may claim additional resources. Corroborating our reasoning, initial research showed that people succeeded less in their control attempts when, experimentally, a momentary prevention (vs. promotion) focus was induced (Ståhl et al., 2012) and felt more depleted after avoidance (vs. approach) attempts (Elliot et al., 2014; Roskes et al., 2013). According to our arguments and initial evidence, we expect that:

> *Hypothesis 1c: The effect of SCD is stronger for interpersonal injustice than for*
> *interpersonal justice enactment.*

Internal Standards: The Moderating Role of Self-transcendence Values

While our arguments align with the original self-control strength theory (Baumeister et al., 1994), the extended theory suggests that self-control success also depends on peoples' motivation, or "specifically, motivation to achieve the goal or meet the standard" (Baumeister & Vohs, p. 117). The authors elaborate that "if motivation is high, such as if the person really and strongly wants to measure up to some standard, this may compensate for a somewhat lower than usual level of willpower or a greater difficulty of monitoring" (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007, p. 117).

We argue that the extent to which people consider treating others respectfully to be a desirable personal goal can vary with their emphasis on self-transcendence values (Schwartz, 1992a) – the internalized motivational base for pursuing the standards of preserving and enhancing the welfare of others. People who strongly endorse self-transcendence values are motivated to (1) express care and concern for those they are in frequent contact with or feel close to (i.e., the value benevolence), and (2) also display acceptance and concern for those who are more distant from them, regardless of their group membership (i.e., the value

universalism). Concurrently, such people have a tendency to disengage from selfish actions, across different contexts and over their lifespan (Schwartz, 1994, 2017). For example, a manager to whom benevolence is a priority will be highly motivated to take time to listen to both an employee or their spouse when faced with the decision of how to allocate their precious time (Schwartz, 2016). In other words, values constantly guide decisions or actions, often without awareness, simply because they reflect what one perceives as the important, right, or desirable thing to do (Kluckhohn, 1951). In sum, serving as an internal standard, personal values guide significant life decisions (e.g., choice of profession) and cascade down in the various gestures and decisions one expresses over the day (e.g., competing or cooperating; Arieli et al., 2014, 2019).

Accordingly, we propose that actors' success regarding respectful treatment should vary with the extent to which they hold self-transcendence values. Broadly, we suggest that actors with the chronic motivational goal of other-orientation (Schwartz, 1992a) are more likely to experience enacting justice as an autonomous goal that they *want* to (vs. have to) attain, which should facilitate being fair and not unfair in mainly two ways: first, actors should be more willing to invest resources into value congruent, or autonomously motivated behavior because humans are constantly motivated to conserve their resources, but willing to invest if a goal is subjectively worthy and rewarding (Hobfoll, 1989, 2002). Simultaneously, enacting interpersonal justice should require fewer (self-control) resources. Accumulating evidence shows that autonomous acts feel less demanding and tiring (Muraven et al., 2008; Ryan & Deci, 2008; Weinstein & Ryan, 2010) and can even enhance personal resources by evoking affective states, such as vitality (Weinstein & Ryan, 2010; Werner & Milyavskaya, 2018). In line, previous research revealed that people with self-transcendence values are less keen on conserving resources for themselves (as compared to people who value their own over other concerns; Morelli & Cunningham, 2012). At the same time, they are more willing to devote their resources (e.g., attention and time; Oll et al., 2020) to activities that express

other-related concerns (e.g., social support; Hobfoll et al., 2018; Sheldon, 2001). Initial self-control research further shows that people succeed even in objectively more demanding tasks if those are worth the effort from their perspective (Halbesleben et al., 2014; Muraven et al., 2008; Muraven & Slessareva, 2003), which we argue applies in the case of interpersonal justice to actors with the goal of caring for others needs and well-being. Hence, we expect that:

> *Hypothesis 2a: Self-transcendence values moderate the negative relationship between SCD and interpersonal justice enactment such that the relationship is weaker when actors' priority on self-transcendence values is higher (vs. lower).*

> *Hypothesis 2b: Self-transcendence values moderate the positive relationship between SCD and interpersonal injustice enactment such that the relationship is weaker when actors' priority on self-transcendence values is higher (vs. lower).*

Method

Participants

A total of 147 German-speaking undergraduates (M_{age} = 23.19, SD_{age} = 2.09; 74% women) participated in a laboratory simulation examining the impact of informational load on behavior in exchange for experimental hours. Participants were randomly assigned to either the high-SCD (n = 68, M_{age} = 23.45, SD_{age} = 2.02; 71% women) or the low-SCD condition (n = 79, M_{age} = 22.99, SD_{age} = 2.03; 77% women). Because 8 participants did not provide information on focal variables (i.e., interpersonal justice and injustice), we excluded these participants from our analyses, which resulted in a final sample of 139 participants (M_{age} = 23.11, SD_{age} = 1.90; 73% women).

Procedure

One week before data collection, participants received an online questionnaire assessing their demographic details and self-transcendence values. On the day of the data collection, participants engaged in a realistic simulation. Following recent guidelines (Clifford

et al., 2015), we designed a simulation that participants could easily imagine and required them to engage in actual behavior. Specifically, participants were instructed to adopt the role of a student who is composing their thesis and is scheduled for an important meeting with an assigned assistant. While waiting for the assistant, participants were instructed to fill out questionnaires capturing negative affect. Next, SCD were manipulated (see below), and a manipulation check was immediately administered to capture the subjective experience of depletion. After the manipulation, participants received further information regarding the meeting with their assistant, they read:

> "You are about to collect data for your thesis but must complete another pretest as a prerequisite for starting tomorrow. The respective appointments are already scheduled. Right now, you are waiting for an intern who has been assigned to you for assistance. Since the assistant had other obligations, you already stayed late, even though the assistant stood you up the last time. If the assistant does not show up on time, you cannot carry out the necessary pretest. Because you know the assistant's unreliability, you have already sent a reminder. The assistant likewise cannot begin her work until after the pretest, so you do not expect they will stand you up again."

Participants then read that they received a *WhatsApp* message from their assistant on the provided *iPhone* (with the installed messenger app *WhatsApp* version 2.21.4.23; *WhatsApp*, 2020). The message, sent in real-time by a confederate, read: "I will arrive in 10 minutes". After reading that due to a lack of time they cannot start anymore with the pretest, they were asked to compose a response using the *WhatsApp* application on the iPhone. Finally, participants were probed on their thoughts on the purpose of the experiment and debriefed.

Measures and Materials

SCD Manipulation

We manipulated SCD using a validated controlled writing task (see, e.g., Gino et al., 2011; Schmeichel, 2007). Participants wrote two essays describing the perfect university and a typical day. Following prior research (Gino et al., 2011; Schmeichel, 2007), we set a time limit of five minutes and instructed participants to write until they heard a signal. In the high-SCD condition, participants had to avoid using two letters common in the German language when writing the essays ("A/I" in the first, "R/N" in the second essay); in the low-SCD condition, participants had to avoid two uncommon letters ("X/Y" in the first, "Q/J" in the second essay). Avoiding letters that frequently occur in one's language requires active control, hence, depletes peoples' self-control resources (Schmeichel, 2007; Sjåstad & Baumeister, 2018). Additionally, the pair of letters was changed after the first essay so that participants in the high-SCD condition were constantly required to search for alternative ways to write down their thoughts, controlling their natural writing flow and inhibiting their habitual ways of writing.

Manipulation Check

To assess the effectiveness of our SCD manipulation, we asked participants to rate the extent to which the writing task required them: "to exert effort", "to use control", and, "to override habitual responses" on a 7-point scale (1 = *not at all*, 7 = *very much*; α = .87), all predictors of subjective depletion (Inzlicht & Friese, 2019). As expected, participants in the high-SCD condition experienced the writing task as significantly more demanding (M = 5.58, SD = .83) than participants in the low-SCD condition (M = 2.23, SD = 1.04), $t(127)$ = 19.98, p < .001, Cohen´s d = 3.56, 95% CI [2.99, 4.11], indicating that our manipulation was successful.

Interpersonal Justice Enactment

We assessed interpersonal justice enactment by coding the *WhatsApp* messages composed by the participants, saved as a word processing file. We trained two judges by providing relevant construct information (Bies, 2001; Colquitt, 2001), coding practices, and detailed feedback from the first author. Following Colquitt's (2015) bi-dimensional conceptualization, the judges rated the extent of (1) politeness (2) dignity, and (3) respect as indicators of interpersonal justice; and the extent of (1) rudeness (2) derogatory manner (3) disregard, and (4) improper remarks as indicators of interpersonal injustice enactment. We provide examples of *WhatsApp* messages receiving high interpersonal justice, respectively high interpersonal injustice scores in Appendix B. In line with the present paper's theory guided operationalization of justice, respectively injustice, the item "absence of improper remarks" originally part of the justice scale (Colquitt et al., 2015) was excluded from our analyses because the item captures the omission of injustice rather than the commission of justice behavior. Further, we avoided confounding effects that would result from rating one behavioral marker on both scales. The judges obtained identical transcripts and separately rated all components on 4-point scales (1 = *to a very small extent*; 4 = *to a very large extent*) while being blind to the experimental condition. To increase rating accuracy, judges first rated the messages' justice level, followed by ratings of their injustice level, whereby the rating process was performed over several days to avoid biases. Discussion resolved sporadic occurrences of coding disagreements (i.e., deviations of more than 2 points). We calculated the final interpersonal justice and injustice scales by averaging each component across coders first and second by averaging across components. Intraclass correlation coefficients (ICCs) were calculated for all components, and the final scales using the means of each component. ICC estimates and their 95% confidence intervals were calculated using R 1.1.463 (R Core Team, 2019) and the CRAN package (Huebner & Mulshine, 2022) based on a mean-rating (k = 2), consistency, 2-way mixed-effects model. The ICCs with .96 (justice) and .97 (injustice)

can be regarded as indicative of good to excellent interrater reliability (range of individual criteria ICC2: .74 -.95; McGraw & Wong, 1996), which is comparable to studies using equivalent coding approaches (Sherf et al., 2018; Whiteside & Barclay, 2016b).

Self-Transcendence Values

We assessed self-transcendence values with the German version of the Revised Portrait Value Questionnaire (PVQ-RR; Schwartz et al., 2012). The questionnaire contains 15 verbal portraits that are displayed to match the respondents' gender. Each verbal portrait describes a hypothetical person's aspiration. For example, a female respondent reads: "It is important to *her* to take care of people she is close to", or "It is important to *her* to be tolerant toward all kinds of people and groups". Male respondents read the same items but with the respective pronoun (he/him). While the first verbal portrait describes a person to whom universalism is important, the second describes a person to whom benevolence is important; both constitute the higher-order value of self-transcendence. For each verbal portrait, respondents indicate how similar the person is to themselves on a 6-point scale (1=*not at all like me*; 6=*very much like me*). Finally, respondents' emphasis on self-transcendence values is inferred from the extent they perceive themselves as similar to the 15 hypothetical individuals ($\alpha = .91$).

Control Variables

Previous research (Scott et al., 2014) revealed that negative affect can influence interpersonal justice enactment. Therefore, and to rule out accidental differences in participants' mood across conditions, we assessed negative affect with nine items of the validated German version of the Profile of Mood States (Albani et al., 2005). Participants indicated the extent to which they experienced the affective states anger, anxiety, and depressed mood, each measured with three items (0 = *not at all*; 4 = *extremely*; $\alpha = .78$). The three items of the original scale that assess the state "fatigue" were excluded because of the conceptual overlap with depletion. Further, we controlled for text length (i.e., number of

written words) in the *WhatsApp* messages, as depleted people may compose shorter messages, and text length has been associated with perceived *im*politeness in electronic communication (Chen, 2017; Oz et al., 2018). Doing so clarifies that we can draw conclusions about the extent to which interpersonal justice enactment and not only text length is a function of SCD.

Results

Descriptive statistics and correlations among focal variables are displayed in Table 1. In line with predictions, Table 1 indicates that SCD are negatively related to justice and positively related to injustice behavior.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations Among Study Variables With 95% Confidence Intervals (Study 1)

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5
1. SCD[a]	0.47	0.50					
2. Interpersonal justice	1.94	0.94	-.38** [-.52, -.23]				
3. Interpersonal injustice	2.09	1.08	.54** [.41, .65]	-.69** [-.77, -.60]			
4. Values	3.99	0.73	-.14 [-.30, .03]	.39** [.23, .52]	-.45** [-.58, -.31]		
5. Negative affect	1.73	0.57	.03 [-.14, .19]	.00 [-.16, .17]	.09 [-.07, .26]	-.19* [-.34, -.04]	
6. Text length	31.09	28.78	-.02 [-.18, .15]	.21* [.05, .36]	-.03 [-.19, .14]	.05 [-.11, .22]	-.03 [-.20, .14]

Note. *N*=139. [a]High-SCD condition = 1, Low-SCD condition = 0; Values = Self-transcendence values.
*p < .05. ** p < .01.

Hypotheses Test

Participants' negative affect did not significantly correlate with the two outcome variables (see Table 1), and independent-samples *t*-test revealed no significant differences between conditions ($t(136) = -0.31$, $p = .76$). Hence, we ruled out mood as a potential

confound (Becker, 2016). In contrast, the text length was related to interpersonal justice ($r =$ .21, p <.05). However, independent-samples t-test revealed no significant differences between conditions ($t(136) = -0.21$, $p = .93$), suggesting that we can rule out text length as a potential confound. It seems likely that participants in the low-SCD condition simply wrote longer texts and thereby signal justice. Yet, to verify the robustness of our findings, we ran all analyses with and without controls. Because the significance of our tests remained the same, we follow Becker's (2016) suggestion and only report the more parsimonious approach below. For simplification of comprehension, we will in the result part refer to *justice*, meaning the extent actors adhered to interpersonal justice rules, and *injustice*, meaning the extent actors violated interpersonal justice rules.

To test our main hypotheses, we conducted analyses of variance (ANOVAs) and a series of hierarchical regressions, centering the predictor variables around their mean to facilitate the interpretation of interaction effects following the procedure outlined by Aiken and West (1991).

Hypothesis 1 predicted that SCD are negatively related to (a) justice and positively to (b) injustice. In support, ANOVA results showed that participants in the high-SCD condition enacted significantly less justice ($M = 1.56$, $SD = 0.77$) than participants in the low-SCD condition ($M = 2.27$, $SD = 0.95$, $F(1, 137) = 23.50$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = 0.29$), and significantly more injustice ($M = 2.71$, $SD = 1.03$; participants in the low-SCD condition: $M = 1.55$, $SD = 0.80$, $F(1, 137) = 56.14$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = 0.15$). Hence, our data supports Hypothesis 1a and 1b. To test Hypothesis 1c, predicting that the SCD effect is stronger for injustice than for justice, we compared the dependent Pearson correlations with Williams *T*-test. Results showed that injustice (vs. justice) was not more likely to occur under SCD ($t(136) = -2.80$, $p =.98$). Hypothesis 1c was not supported.

Next, we fitted a linear model to predict justice and injustice with SCD and self-transcendence values (see Table 2). Both models explained statistically significant and

substantial proportions of variance (Justice: $R^2 = .33$, $F(3, 135) = 21.82$, $p < .001$; Injustice: $R^2 = .53$, $F(3, 135) = 51.38$, $p < .001$). SCD were negatively related to justice ($B = -0.66$, $SE = 0.13$, $p < .001$), and positively related to injustice ($B = 1.08$, $SE = 0.12$, $p < .001$). More importantly, we found a significant interaction effect between self-transcendence values and SCD on both interpersonal justice ($B = 0.72$, $SE = 0.19$, $p < .01$) and injustice ($B = -0.99$, $SE = 0.19$, $p < .001$).

Table 1

Regression Results Showing SCD as Predictor of Interpersonal Justice and Injustice, with

Self-Transcendence Values as Moderator (Study 1)

Variable	Interpersonal *justice*					Interpersonal *injustice*				
	B	*SE*	*t*	*p*	95% CI	*B*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	95% CI
Constant	1.98	0.07	29.67	<.001	[1.84, 2.11]	2.05	0.64	31.92	<.001	[1.92, 2.17]
SCD[a]	-0.66	0.13	-4.84	<.001	[-0.91, -0.38]	1.08	0.13	8.39	<.001	[0.82, 1.33]
Values	0.29	0.10	2.90	<.05	[0.09, 0.49]	-0.37	0.10	-3.90	<.001	[-0.56, -0.18]
Values x SCD	0.72	0.19	3.70	<.01	[0.34, 1.11]	-0.99	0.19	-5.28	<.001	[-1.36, -0.62]

*Not*e. *N*=139. SCD = Self-control demands; Values = Self-transcendence values; CI =
Confidence interval.
[a]High-SCD condition = 1, Low-SCD condition = 0.

We further probed the interaction effects for both dependent variables (Figure 2),

testing the effect of SCD at 1 *SD* above and below the mean of the self-transcendence value.

The effect of SCD at 1 *SD* below the mean on self-transcendence was significant (Justice: *B* =

-1.17, *SE* =*0.20, 95%* CI [-1.56, -0.78], *p* < .001; Injustice: *B* = 1.80, *SE*= 0.19, *95%* CI [1.42,

2.17]*, p* < .001); in contrast, at 1 *SD* above the mean on self-transcendence, the SCD effect

was markedly attenuated and not significant (Justice: *B* = -0.12, *SE*=0.19, *95%* CI [-0.50,

0.26], *p* = .52; Injustice: *B* = 0.18, *SE*= , *95%* CI [-0.01, 0.72], *p* = .05). Thus, among

participants with higher self-transcendence values the effect of SCD on interpersonal justice

enactment was less strong. Our data support Hypotheses 2a and 2b.

Figure 2

The Interactive Effects of SCD and Self-Transcendence Values on

Interpersonal Justice (above) and Interpersonal Injustice (below)
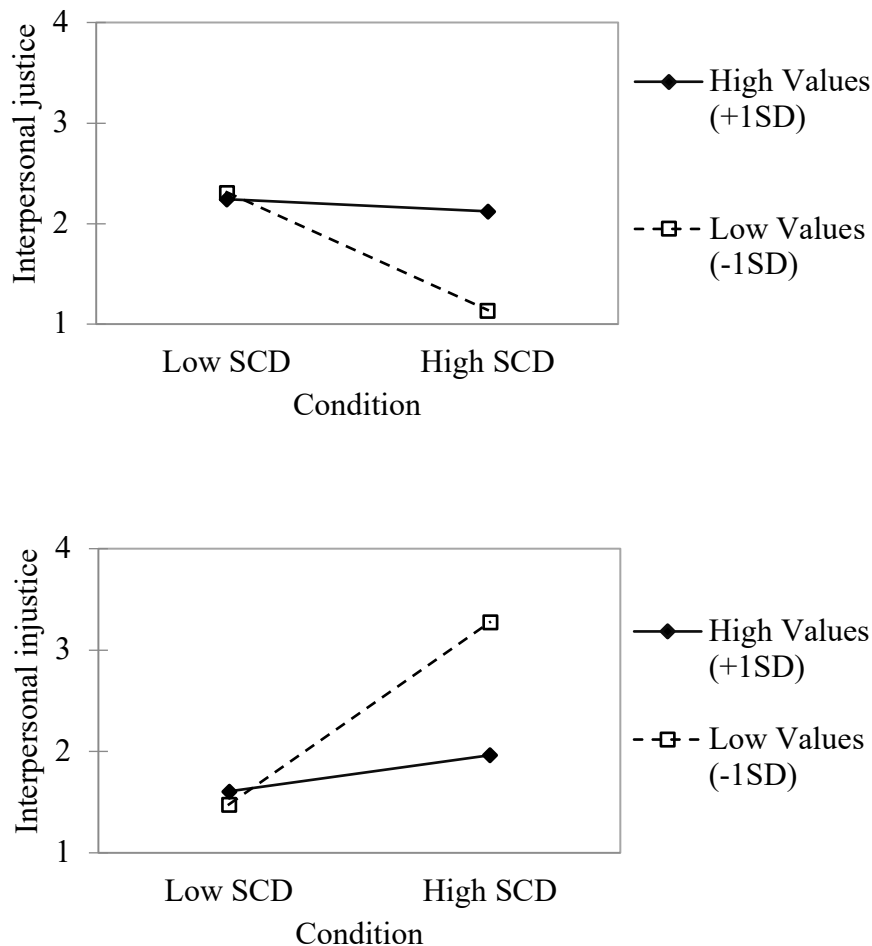
Note. SCD = Self-control demands; Values = Self-transcendence values.

Discussion Study 1

In agreement with prior research, Study 1 confirmed that actors who faced high SCD

adhered less to interpersonal justice rules. We extended existing knowledge by demonstrating

that depleted actors also more actively violated interpersonal justice rules. Contrary to our

expectations, we did not find evidence for SCD to relate differentially to interpersonal

injustice as opposed to justice enactment. This finding suggests that actors rely on available

personal resources to invest in being polite and respectful and in refraining from being rude or making inappropriate comments to the same extent. As expected, self-transcendence values moderated the effect of SCD, indicating that internal standards enable managers to act fairly, even under high demands. To further corroborate our findings and to better understand the role of the context, both in conjunction with personality and per se, in predicting the consequences of SCD, we studied their effect in a strong context in Study 2.

Study 2

External Standards: The Moderating Role of Situational Strength

Extended self-control strength theory also suggests that "regulation means change so as to bring into line with some standard, and hence effective self-regulation requires a clear and well-defined standard" (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007, p. 117). The basic premise is that individuals compare their actions against standards to evaluate whether they fall short and need to alter their behavior. In addition to inner standards, a given context can provide cues on appropriate and expected behavior. Inner aspirations and outer expectations are related; the more ambiguous and inconsistent external standards, the more difficult self-control, and the more people are expected to orient themselves to their own standards.

We built on this reasoning by suggesting that situational strength, or the presence of external cues about appropriate and expected social conduct (Meyer et al., 2010), serves as an operationalization of *clarity of standard*. Conceptualizing standards through the lens of situational strength allows us, besides highlighting the role of the context in explaining when SCD translate into less sensitive managerial interactions, to explore a theoretically deduced mechanism that explains *how* external standards may influence actors' interpersonal behavior. Situational strength theory posits that behavioral variability is restricted when situations are linked to clear standards of appropriate and expected conduct, namely when a situation is *strong*. Contrastingly, *weak* situations offer no expectations of desirable behavior; hence, people act on their proclivities, which causes a variety of reactions that may or may not be

considered appropriate (Cortina et al., 2019; Meyer et al., 2010). In line with this, research shows that - organizational or team - norms can channel people's behavior into compliance with safety measures (S. Lee & Dalal, 2016), or ethical conduct (Knoll et al., 2016; Miska et al., 2018), while muting destructive impulses such as deviance, aggression, or counterproductive work behavior (Dalal, 2020; Smithikrai, 2008). Normative pressure can explain this constraining effect that instantly mutes individuals' natural tendencies (Ju et al., 2019). Over time, people save such norms of *how to behave* as behavioral scripts (Feldman, 1984) that are associated with the specific situation and run automatically when they encounter the situation (e.g., automatically lowering one's voice in the library; Aarts & Dijksterhuis, 2003).

In the present study, we addressed the force of standards by exploring actors' interpersonal behavior across computer-mediated communication (CMC) channels used for communication, which highly vary in norm maturity, hence, their strength as situations. Digital communication largely replaced face-to-face encounters even before the rapid rise of telecommuting (Brynjolfsson et al., 2020). Nevertheless, the conduct deemed appropriate and expected varies significantly depending on the history and characteristics of the different channels, reflecting different degrees of norm maturity. For example, email as the most prominent channel (Kim et al., 2007; Pee et al., 2008) characterizes shared and consistent expectations (Ducheneaut & Watts, 2005), including salutations, openings, closings, as well as various politeness cues like *please* and *thank you* (Bunz & Campbell, 2004; Turner, 2006). Conversely, more recently, messenger apps, previously used extensively in non-work contexts (Stephens et al., 2011), entered the workplace (Graf & Antoni, 2021). Their cross-contextual use introduced more heterogeneous expectations about appropriate behavior, leaving vast discretion to the sender (Harper et al., 2005). Referring to the above features of the channels, we argue that emailing constitutes a strong situation, whereas a messenger app, such as *WhatsApp*, constitutes a weak situation.

We conclude that in a strong context, actors' behavior should be more strongly guided by the context than by their internal aspirations or capabilities. Therefore, we predict that the relation between SCD and interpersonal justice enactment will be mitigated when actors communicate via email (vs. instant messenger app) because acting in a strong context (i.e., email) should reduce actors' effort to be fair by offering clear guidance on what is appropriate conduct. Thus, actors should more easily, hence effectively control themselves. In contrast, in contexts with ambiguous or inconsistent standards, actors should perceive self-control as more difficult and their behavioral reactions should be more widely dispersed, reflecting the range of people's intuitive responses.

> *Hypothesis 3a: Situational strength moderates the negative relationship between SCD and interpersonal justice such that the relationship is weaker in a strong (vs. weak) situation.*
>
> *Hypothesis 3b: Situational strength moderates the positive relationship between SCD and interpersonal injustice such that the relationship is weaker in a strong (vs. weak) situation.*
>
> *Hypothesis 4a: The variance in interpersonal justice is smaller in a strong (vs. weak) situation.*
>
> *Hypothesis 4b: The variance in interpersonal injustice is smaller in a strong (vs. weak) situation.*

Following the situational-strength logic, we also argue that behavior conforming to the norms common in a specific context can be enacted with low mental effort or even outside of one's awareness (Aarts & Dijksterhuis, 2003; Bargh, 1990; Bargh et al., 2001). Thus, we expect strong contexts to streamline personal tendencies as targeted in Study 1 and render actors' differences in their internal standards less critical. Our argument is in line with extended self-control strength theory, suggesting that the more ambiguous a context, the more their people's values and goals guide their' actions and decisions (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007).

Hence, we propose a 3-way interaction so that in a weak context only, the level of SCD and level of self-transcendence values should interact in determining interpersonal justice enactment.

> *Hypothesis 5a: SCD are less associated with interpersonal justice among actors with a higher (vs. lower) priority on self-transcendence values, but only in a weak (vs. strong) context.*

> *Hypothesis 5b: SCD are less associated with interpersonal injustice among actors with a higher (vs. lower) priority on self-transcendence values, but only in a weak (vs. strong) context.*

Method

Participants

A total of 130 German-speaking undergraduates ($M_{age} = 23.56$, $SD_{age} = 3.14$; 69% women) signed up for an experiment on "emotions and perception" in exchange for experimental hours. Because 2 participants did not provide information on focal variables (i.e. interpersonal justice and injustice), we excluded these participants from our analyses, which resulted in a final sample of 128 participants ($M_{age} = 23.5$, $SD_{age} = 3.03$; 70% women).

Procedure

One week prior to the data collection on campus, participants received an online questionnaire assessing demographic data and self-transcendence values. On the day of the data collection, participants were randomly assigned to either the high-SCD ($n = 63$, $M_{age} = 23.59$, $SD_{age} = 3.02$; 76% women) or the low-SCD condition ($n = 67$, $M_{age} = 23.55$, $SD_{age} = 3.29$; 63% women) and were presented the same measures in the same order as in Study 1. Participants had to respond to an incoming email using the Microsoft Outlook 2010 mailing program (*Outlook Microsoft*, 2012). The instructions for the email were identical to those for the *WhatsApp* message in Study 1. As the survey was part of a larger-scale project, we

captured actors' behavior following the procedure described above. However, in view of the sequence, any influence on the variables relevant to the current paper can be ruled out.

Measures and Materials

All measures and procedures were identical to Study 1 unless indicated otherwise.

Manipulation Check

As in Study 1, participants reported on a 7-point scale (1 = *not at all*; 7 = *very much*) the extent they had to use "effort", "control" and "overriding of habitual responses" during the writing task to assess the effectiveness of our SCD manipulation (α = .91). As expected, participants in the high-SCD condition (*M* = 5.57, *SD* = 0.85) experienced the writing task as significantly more demanding than participants in the low-SCD condition (*M* = 2.22, *SD* = 1.04), *t*(127) = 19.98, *p* < .01, Cohen′s *d* = -3.53, 95% CI [-4.08, -2.97].

Interpersonal Justice Enactment

We assessed interpersonal justice enactment by content-coding of the emails by the same two judges as in Study 1. The ICCs for the justice scale (ICC_2 = .97), the injustice scale (ICC_2 = .98), and the 7 components (range of individual component ICC_2: .87-.97) all surpassed the commonly accepted threshold of .70. We provide examples of emails receiving respectively high justice and high injustice scores in Appendix B.

Self-Transcendence Values

We assessed self-transcendence values with the 15 short gender-matched portraits of the German version of the Revised Portrait Value Questionnaire (PVQ-R; Schwartz et al., 2012; α = .94).

Control Variables

We assessed negative affect with the German version of the Profile of Mood States (Albani et al., 2005; α = .90) and accounted for the text length of the email.

Situational Strength

Following prior research, we indirectly operationalized situational strength (Withey et al., 2005) with the CMC channels (email vs. *WhatsApp*), assuming that the situation's strength varies with the standards and norms of the two communication channels. Following meta-analytical results (Meyer et al., 2009) suggesting that a situation is strong when it provides clear cues on behavioral expectations (e.g., well-established norms) or/and when these expectations are uniform and consistent (e.g., across time and entities), we regard email as a strong and *WhatsApp* as a weak context. Email is the most prominent communication channel at work (Murphy et al., 2007), with shared rules on how messages are composed (Bunz & Campbell, 2004; Turner, 2006). Conversely, communication via messenger apps is characterized by considerably less matured norms and typified by widely varying linguistic and communicative forms (Stephens et al., 2011; Walther et al., 2005). The resemblance to spoken interaction further increases the channel's informality and leaves considerable discretion to the sender (Harper et al., 2005). Since norms and standards can vary with factors such as culture and age (Shuter & Chattopadhyay, 2010), we additionally pretested our assumptions in a sample that mirrored the main characteristics of our study population (M_{age} = 24.53, SD_{age} = 2.27; 62% women) and asked participants to rate the extent of standards and norms that exist for either *WhatsApp* or email communication. Results provided additional support for the distinct maturity of standards existing for email but not for *WhatsApp*.[4]

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[4] We administered an online questionnaire and asked participants to indicate either for email (n=17) or for *WhatsApp* (n=17) to what extent established standards, descriptive (i.e., beliefs about what others think one should do; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and subjective norms (Aarts & Dijksterhuis, 2003) exist for the channel on a scale ranging from 0 (*not at all*) to 5 (*absolute*). The global indicators of norm maturity were chosen because they reflect the norms most predictive of actual behavior (Aarts & Dijksterhuis, 2003). In line with our assumption, independent-samples *t*-test results indicated that writing an email is constrained by more mature norms as compared to writing a *WhatsApp* (Standards; M_{Mail} = 4.20, SD_{Mail} = 0.94; $M_{WhatsApp}$ = 2.63, $SD_{WhatsApp}$ = 1.12, $t(32)$ = 4.35, $p < .001$, descriptive norms; M_{Mail} = 3.73, SD_{Mail} = 0.80; $M_{WhatsApp}$ = 2.79, $SD_{WhatsApp}$ = 1.03, $t(32)$ = 2.92, $p < .01$; subjective norms; M_{Mail} = 4.33, SD_{Mail} = 0.62; $M_{WhatsApp}$ = 3.16, $SD_{WhatAapp}$ = 0.77, $t(32)$ = 4.83, $p < .001$).

Results

Descriptive statistics and correlations among focal variables are displayed in Table 3. As above, for the sake of comprehensiveness, we refer in the results part to justice and injustice, representing respectively interpersonal justice rule adherence and interpersonal justice rule violations. In line with a situational strength argument that predicts a weaker impact of predictor variables on behavioral outcome variables in strong contexts, the table indicates that SCD is not significantly correlated with justice and injustice.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations Among Study Variables with 95% Confidence Intervals

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5
1. SCD[a]	0.49	0.50					
2. Interpersonal justice	2.03	0.78	.16 [-.02, .32]				
3. Interpersonal injustice	1.86	0.74	-.03 [-.21, .14]	-.64** [-.73, -.53]			
4. Values	4.65	0.69	-.10 [-.27, .07]	.09 [-.08, .26]	-.11 [-.28, .06]		
5. Negative affect	1.72	0.60	.08 [-.09, .26]	.05 [-.12, .23]	-.07 [-.24, .11]	.04 [-.13, .21]	
6. Text length	310.5	212.61	-.01 [-.18, .17]	.26** [.09, .41]	.12 [-.06, .29]	.06 [-.12, .23]	.09 [-.09, .26]

Note. N =128. SCD = Self-control demands; Values = Self-transcendence values.
[a]High-SCD condition = 1, Low-SCD condition = 0.
** *p* < .01.

To further test our situational strength hypotheses (Cortina et al., 2015; Meyer et al., 2010), we combined the current sample (*N* = 128) with the final sample of Study 1 (*N* = 139), representing a strong and weak context of interactional standards, as discussed previously. We controlled for text length in all models because in the total sample (*N*=267) the variable

significantly correlated with our outcome variable justice ($r = 0.17$, $p < .01$)[5]. As in Study 1,

the significance of our tests remained the same, therefore, we only report the more

parsimonious approach below (Becker, 2016).

Hypotheses Test

To test Hypothesis 3, in a first step, we fitted two linear regressions predicting justice

and injustice by SCD and situational strength. Following recommendations (Cortina et al.,

2015), we used unstandardized coefficients because standardized coefficients obscure

restricted variance interaction effects. Both models, with justice and injustice as outcome

variables, explained a significant and substantial proportion of variance (Justice: $R^2 = .10$, $F(3,$

$263) = 9.88$, $p < .001$; Injustice: $R^2 = .21$, $F(3, 263) = 23.96$, $p < .001$). As can be seen in

Table 4, SCD were negatively related to justice ($B = -1.67$, $SE = 0.32$, $p < .001$), and

positively related to injustice ($B = 2.38$, $SE = 0.32$, $p < .001$). Also, the interactions between

situational strength and SCD on justice ($B = 0.95$, $SE = 0.20$, $p < .001$), respectively injustice

($B = -1.22$, $SE = 0.21$, $p < .001$), were both significant.

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[5] In the total sample ($N=267$), again, participants' negative affect did not significantly correlate with the two outcome variables (justice: $r = -.04$, $p = .51$; injustice: $r = .06$, $p = .30$), and independent-samples t-test revealed no significant differences between conditions ($t(265) = -1.04$, $p = .24$). In contrast, text length did significantly correlate with the outcome variable justice ($r = .17$, $p < .01$). Again, independent-samples t-test revealed no differences between conditions ($t(265) = -0.21$, $p = .90$) but we ran all analyses with and without text length for the sake of completeness.

Table 4

Regression Results Showing SCD as Predictor of Interpersonal Justice and Injustice, with

Situational Strength as Moderator (Study 1and Study 2)

| Variable	Interpersonal *justice*					Interpersonal *injustice*				
	B	*SE*	*t*	*p*	95% CI	*B*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	95% CI
Constant	2.62	0.22	12.09	<.001	[2.20, 3.05]	1.21	0.22	5.48	<.001	[0.77, 1.64]
SCD[a]	-1.67	0.32	-5.28	<.001	[-2.29, -1.05]	2.38	0.32	7.41	<.001	[1.75, 3.01]
Strength[b]	-0.35	0.14	-2.53	<.05	[-0.63, 0.08]	0.34	0.14	2.39	<.05	[-0.06, 0.62]
Strength x SCD	0.95	0.20	4.72	<.001	[0.56, 1.35]	-1.22	0.21	-5.91	<.001	[-1.62, -0.81]

Note. N = 267. SCD = Self-control demands; Strength = Situational strength; CI = Confidence
interval.
[a]High-SCD condition = 1, Low-SCD condition = 0. [b]Strong context = 1, Weak context = 0.

We ran simple slope analyses to explore the interaction and examined the SCD effect

in strong and weak contexts (see Figure 3). In the weak context, the SCD effect on justice (*B*

= -0.71, *SE* = 0.14, *p* < .001) and injustice (*B* = 1.16, *SE* = 0. 14, *p* < .001) were significant;

while in the strong context, the SCD effect was attenuated and not significant (Justice: *B* =

0.24, *SE* = 0.15, *p* = .10; Injustice: *B* = -0.05, *SE* = 0.15, *p* = .73). The results provided

evidence for our prediction that strength buffers the adverse effect of SCD on interpersonal

justice enactment. Hypotheses 3a and 3b were supported.

Figure 3

The Effect of SCD on Interpersonal Justice (above) and Interpersonal Injustice Enactment

*(below) in a Strong Context vs. a Weak Context*
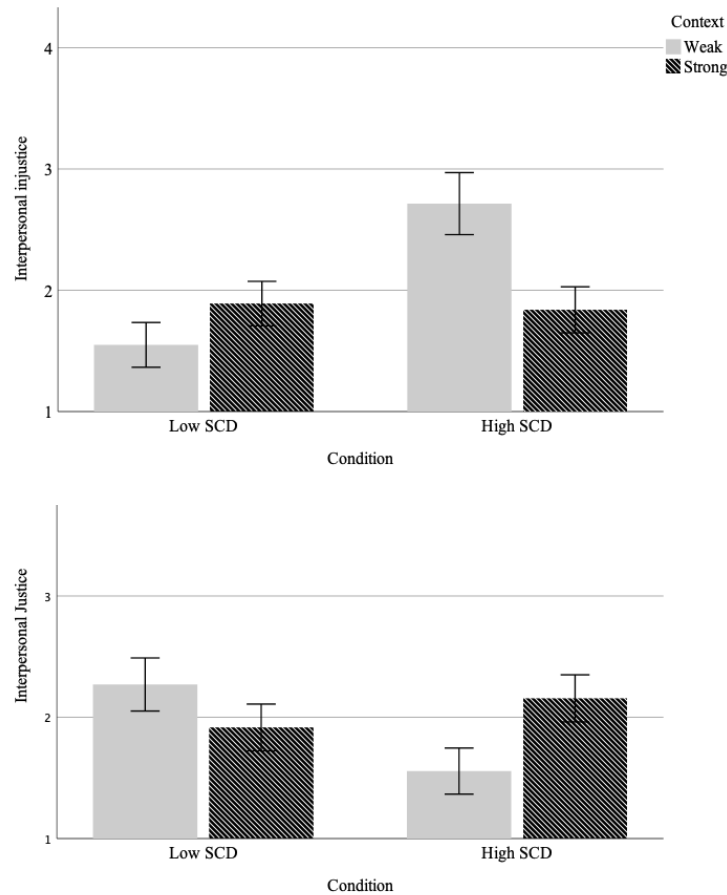
Note. SCD = Self-control demands. Error bars show 95% Confidence Intervals.

In a second step, we tested the defining characteristic of a situational-strength

argument (Cortina et al., 2019). That is, the variance of the outcome variables should be

restricted in the strong but not the weak context (Hypothesis 4). The comparison of variability

across contexts showed that when participants acted in a strong (vs. weak) context, the

variability of justice was not significantly lower $F(1,265) = 0.85$, $p = .36$. In contrast, the

standard deviation of injustice was significantly lower $F(1,265) = 4.01$, $p < .05$. The results

suggest that strong contexts restrict actors' variance of injustice, but not justice enactment.

While our results provide no support for Hypothesis 4a, there was support for Hypothesis 4b.

Lastly, we conducted multiple hierarchical regression analyses to test our proposition that the SCD effect should be strongest for actors with lower self-transcendence values acting in a weak context. To simplify the interpretation, we centered self-transcendence values around their grand mean. The three main effects were entered in a first step, followed by the three two-way interactions, and finally by the three-way interaction terms. The proposed three-way interaction was significant on injustice ($\beta = 0.81$, $p < .01$) but not significant on justice ($\beta = -0.39$, $p = .19$); see Appendix A). For a more specific test, we ran simple slope analyses following Aiken and West (1991) and conducted slope differences test as proposed by Dawson and Richter (2006). The slope of individuals with low self-transcendence values in a weak context significantly differed from the slope of individuals with low self-transcendence values in a strong context ($t = 4.80$, $p < .001$; see Figure 4). Results suggest that SCD were more strongly related to injustice when participants interacted in a weak compared to when they interacted in a strong context among individuals with low self-transcendence values. All other slopes were not significant. In sum, while we could not find the predicted pattern for justice, our results support our proposition that specifically among actors with low self-transcendence values who act in a weak context, SCD is related to injustice. Whereas Hypothesis 5a was not supported, Hypothesis 5b was.

Figure 4

The Interactions Between SCD and Self-Transcendence Values Predicting Interpersonal
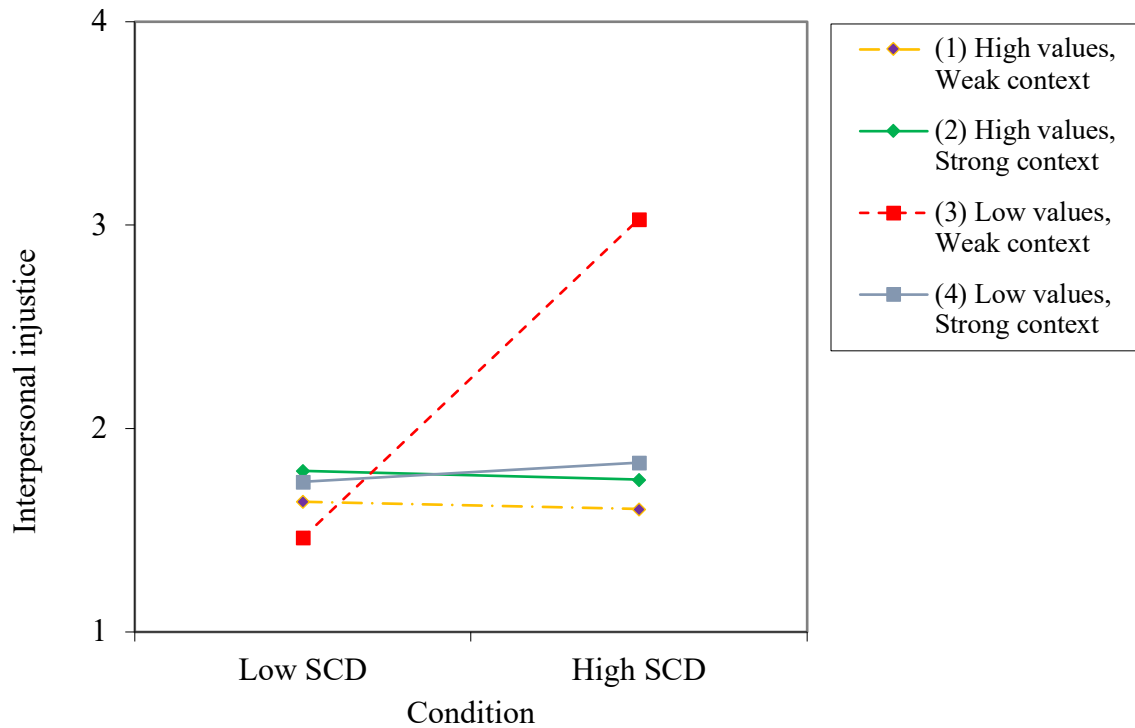
Injustice

Note. SCD = Self-control demands; Values = Self-transcendence values.

Discussion Study 2

Our research demonstrated that the level of SCD predicts interpersonal justice and

injustice enactment, and that self-transcendence values function as a person-level boundary

condition (Study 1). At the same time, these effects depend on the nature of the situation

(Study 2). More precisely, findings of Study 2 showed that in weak contexts, SCD resulted in

less justice and more injustice enactment. In contrast, strong contexts seemed to facilitate both

enacting justice and not enacting injustice, particularly among actors with lower levels of self-

transcendence values. Thus, as predicted by situational strength theory (Mischel, 1977), when

the context uniformly guides individuals to engage in or refrain from certain behaviors

expected within a given context, such as following the widely shared rules of, e.g., starting an

email with a polite greeting, the influence of personal characteristics (momentary level of personal resources and individual differences in self-transcendence values) was minimized. Our expectation that the moderating effect of interactional norms would restrict the variance in actors' behavior was only significant, however, for interpersonal injustice enactment. One potential explanation is that standards set an invisible bottom line, muting behavior that would deviate from normative work interactions. Nonetheless, anticipating social sanctions or exclusion due to violations of external norms fosters a variety of negative emotions like guilt (Costarelli, 2005), which are linked to increased compliance (Konecni, 1972). Additionally, unfairness universally provokes stronger negative reactions in recipients as compared to the size of the positive reactions justice provokes in them (Colquitt et al., 2015; Mikula et al., 1998), which might overall result in actors being uniformly motivated to refrain from justice violations. Concluding, the second study underscored that the context matters and allowed us to gain a more profound understanding of the personal and contextual boundary conditions of the SCD effect, as well as their joint influence.

General Discussion

Prior research found that managers who felt depleted because they priorly faced self-control demands were less capable of adhering to the rules of politeness and of treating others with respect (Whiteside & Barclay, 2016b). In the present study, we drew on the extended self-control strength theory and demonstrated that although actors seem to rely on self-control resources to both enact justice and refrain from enacting injustice, SCD were less consequential (1) for actors with high levels of self-transcendence values, and (2) when actors interacted in strong (vs. weak) contexts. In other words, results suggest that only in situations where neither internal nor external standards provide managers with guidance on appropriate or expected behavior SCD cause low levels of justice or even injustice by making, e.g., degrading, or derogatory remarks. Below, we discuss theoretical and practical implications.

Theoretical and Practical Contributions

There has been a proliferation of theories and models illuminating how individuals attain personal goals (Inzlicht et al., 2020). With self-control linked to fundamental personal and work-related outcomes, like well-being, longevity, relationship satisfaction, job performance, career advancement, and financial savings (Baumeister, Heatherton, et al., 1994; Lian et al., 2017), the aspiration to better understand the consequences of SCD does not come as a surprise. Self-control resources help individuals achieve their ideal self, such as being a respectful and polite manager, and allow social structures, like teams and organizations, to function successfully (Lian et al., 2017). By incorporating accumulating empirical and theoretical work that views self-control as a multifactorial process influenced, e.g., by motivation and cognitive processes, our study provided support for two theoretically derived boundary conditions. Hence, we detail for *whom* and *when* self-control failure is less likely, while providing additional empirical evidence for the claim that self-control does not rely exclusively on willpower.

Our findings underscore the role of motivation, specifically autonomous motivation, as a relevant ingredient of self-control success. Conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989) posits that overall, people tend to conserve their resources but are willing to invest if it feels worthwhile. Consistent with the theory, we were able to show that actors with higher self-transcendence values seemed more inclined to invest their limited personal resources. In other words, individuals seem to succeed more likely in being fair if the behavior is deemed valuable and worth spending energy.

Hence, we give back to the extended self-control strength theory by operationalizing motivation through personal values, thereby providing insights on a theoretical refinement of the kind of motivation (autonomous motivation, or *why*) that serves as an effective substitute for self-control resources.

Illuminating actors' personal values, we answer very recent calls to explore the deontological justice motive (Diehl et al., 2021). Whereas research on actors' motives has proliferated over the last decade, work on deontological reasons operationalized via self-transcendence values as a reflection of what feels subjectively right and desirable is still scarce (Diehl et al., 2021; Graso et al., 2020). That is, even though treating others fairly because "it feels right" is one of the three key motives to act fairly (Brebels et al., 2011; Folger, 1998) and personal values are a key driver of behavior (Arieli et al., 2019), how stable internal standards guide justice behavior has only been addressed by few studies (see e.g.; Blader & Chen, 2012; Qin et al., 2018). The present study suggests that actors' deontological motives, such as their values, may play a decisive role when resources are scarce, and people are forced to decide on how to allocate their limited time and effort. Hence, exploring actors' deontic justice motives as moderators (vs. antecedents) may be more fruitful and allow for more distinct conceptualizations of how they shape managers' justice behavior across different situations.

Our findings further highlighted that interpersonal justice, like any other behavior (Lewin, 1939; Mischel, 1977), is a function of both the individual characteristics of actors and the context. Specifically, our results show that shared expectations of what is appropriate conduct empowered actors to particularly refrain from interpersonal injustice enactment. While actors with low self-transcendence values enacted significantly more injustice when the situation left room for discretion, a strong situation effectively limited such violations of mutual respect. Thus, we gave back self-control research by integrating situational strength theory into the extended self-control strength theory. We are among the first to explore the moderation of the relationship between SCD and interpersonal justice by actors' individual characteristics in distinct contexts of workplace interactions.

Providing empirical evidence for the extended model's prediction that clear standards improve self-control attempts, we hope to stimulate a discussion already present in the

situational-strength literature (see e.g.; Amiot et al., 2013; Collins et al., 2019). Our findings suggest that situational strength may be particularly effective in facilitating the goal of avoiding norm deviations, which may be transferable to other forms of disrespectful behavior and serve as a promising avenue for interventions. Testing an interactionist model, we echoed recent calls to explore in which contexts hostile leader behavior (Hershcovis et al., 2020), such as organizational injustice occurs (Diehl et al., 2021). Specifically, we highlighted that established norms can serve as powerful guidelines for promoting interpersonal fairness, particularly among managers who may be less predisposed to focus on the needs and concerns of others. With our approach, we contribute to the growing literature highlighting that context matters (Ambrose et al., 2013; Sherf et al., 2018) for predicting actors' behavior. A significant milestone, given that managers serve as role models on what behavior is appropriate and rewarded in certain situations (Dragoni, 2005), and thus, are subjected to as well as creating the context that implicitly and explicitly holds the rules that define workplace interactions.

Across both studies, we conceptualized and measured interpersonal justice as a bi-dimensional construct and partly found different patterns of results and relationships with the other variables, suggesting that interpersonal justice and injustice represent different constructs. The results need to be interpreted with caution, however, because although the effects differed in strength for justice and injustice as outcome variable, only few differences reached empirical significance. Within our study, the main goal was to broaden the range of behavior that constitutes interpersonal justice (Colquitt et al., 2015), to empirically test what has hitherto been theoretically implied, echoed in the comment "low levels of fairness should not be equated with unfairness" by Johnson et al. (2014). Thereby, we could demonstrate that (1) interpersonal injustice occurs (individuals made degrading or hurtful comments), and (2), SCD explained more between-person variance in interpersonal injustice than in interpersonal justice enactment (across both studies). Further, the restricting effect of a strong situation was only found for injustice behavior, and actors with low-self-transcendence values enacted

significantly more injustice but not less justice when they interact in a weak situation. These findings may indicate an extension to the "bad is stronger than good" principle, which refers to the established phenomenon that "when equal measures of good and bad are present … the psychological effects of bad ones outweigh those of the good ones" (Baumeister et al., 2001, p. 323). Our findings gently suggest that people may not only be more affected by bad events but also are less inclined to enact bad behavior.

Overall, we add valuable insights to the ongoing discussion on the conceptualization of organizational justice (Diehl et al., 2021). Specifically, we conclude in agreement with Colquitt et al. (2015) that although content and parsimony considerations are useful, current models may benefit from a separate analysis. Nonetheless, future work is needed on the utility of this undoubtedly more complex approach to organizational justice.

With regard to practice, our study provides vital insights that can promote interpersonal justice at work, under the premise that work demands likely increase or at least remain high (Marsh & Blau, 2007). Our findings suggest that low interpersonal justice is most likely among managers with low personal aspiration, interacting in situations with few external standards on appropriate behavior. Combined with the fact that organizations particularly benefit from interventions with low cost and direct, large-scale effects, especially implementing justice-promotive norms should represent a desirable approach for organizations. In that regard, our findings suggest that companies can use the implementation of standards to enable managers to engage in respectful and, more importantly, mute disrespectful encounters in the presence of thigh SCD and absence of high personal motivation. This approach is promising because standards are particularly effective in cognitively demanding situations (Fischer et al., 2019), which applies to several management tasks, and because social conventions, such as a greeting at the beginning of an email, do not even require much practice to become a habit (Aarts & Dijksterhuis, 2003). This allows organization members to navigate social interactions nearly free of effort and use their

resources for core tasks. We argue that this compelling approach helps managers enact justice rules and reduce the perceived costs. Situational-strength theory suggests external rewards, demonstrating what companies aspire to achieve and stand for, as one way to explicitly set and manage company norms (Crisp & Jarvenpaa, 2013). Combined with the finding that external rewards were evidenced as effective in promoting actors' interpersonal justice behavior (Sherf et al., 2018), companies likely benefit from reinforcing their interactional norms with tangible (e.g., promotion) and non-tangible (e.g., recognition) benefits. Lastly, taking into account that discretion increases with every hierarchical level (Hambrick et al., 2004) and that what is appropriate can be modeled by co-workers but is more likely adopted from superiors (Feldman, 1984), a collective agreement on desirable organizational standards is particularly influential. Concluding, our study illustrated that strong standards are an effective strategic tool to overcome the adverse effect of overworked managers.

Strengths, Limitations, and Suggestions for Future Research

There are limitations to the present research that should be addressed by future research. First, although the standardized environment allowed us to manipulate willpower and obtain high internal validity (Dang et al., 2021), our results were obtained via experimentally manipulating self-control resources and the associated challenges. In the present research, we addressed various of the prevailing points of critique that became evident in recent discussions concerning the SCD effect, which, as we argue, elicited an ongoing refinement of the concept and its measurement (Baumeister et al., 2020; Friese et al., 2019; Gillebaart, 2018). First of all, we used a writing task that has been successfully employed in various studies (Ainsworth et al., 2014; Mead et al., 2009; Schmeichel, 2007) and requires behavior more likely present in real life as compared to e.g., the widely used *e*-crossing task (Baumeister et al., 1998). Further, our experimental manipulation contained two different trials (with changed prohibited letters) to induce constant habit inhibition, which is core to the self-control paradigm and produces strong and reliable effects (Ainsworth et al., 2014; Sjåstad

& Baumeister, 2018). Moreover, we highly standardized our procedures and ruled out alternative explanations by controlling for negative mood as a robustness check (Sjåstad & Baumeister, 2018).

Secondly, our dependent measures captured justice enactment in a simulated situation rather than by assessing participants' experiences in the real world. To reduce threats to external validity as much as possible, we followed recent advice on scenario design (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014). We aimed to, a), increase realism by presenting the message on a mobile phone, or in the outlook app, respectively, b), increase participants' immersion by designing the scenario such that it is a situation likely familiar to the target group, and c), to provoke personal relevance by linking the assistant's lateness to a failure of the participants' project launch. Additionally, we used a multi-method approach by combining self-reports with the behavior assessment to reduce common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003) and further increase generalizability. Still, future research should replicate our findings in a real organizational setting.

Thirdly, our research solely focused on interpersonal justice enactment. Since the four key justice forms differ in their characteristics, e.g., level of discretion (Scott et al., 2009), we expect distinct effects. For instance, procedural justice enactment (i.e., the fairness of the principles and processes that lead to decision-making; Greenberg, 1990) with a low discretion level (Scott et al., 2009) may imply demanding decision processes that either (1) make actors vulnerable to violations when they lack energy or (2) remain unaffected because of the highly habitualized procedures that may reduce the need for resources altogether. However, one could equally assume that organizational restraints that usually guide actors in their allocation decisions serve as a strong situation that naturally mitigates rule deviance, hence, buffers the influence of SCD. Also, our study operationalized the situation as justice promotive, so future work is needed to explore how a strong situation influences justice behavior if managers perceive injustice as norm-congruent behavior. Recent work showed that abusive supervisor

behavior was less noteworthy or even tolerated in work climates characterized by rude and aggressive behavior (Ambrose & Ganegoda, 2020). In such cases, situational strength may be less influential or even have a negative effect—an important area for future inquiry.

Conclusion

Managers need to be motivated and capable to enact interpersonal justice. While managers with an internal motivation seem to enact justice and refrain from enacting interpersonal injustice more effortlessly, regardless of their personal resource level, strong situations appeared to reduce the self-control effort even among those actors with low personal motivation. In other words, the relationship between SCD and interpersonal justice enactment appears to be more complex than hitherto assumed, depending on the single and joint effects of actors' personal as well as contextual characteristics. We hope that our research stimulates researchers to consider both aspects as well as the full range of interpersonal justice enactment (i.e., justice and injustice behavior) to deduce meaningful theoretical implications and to promote the creation of interpersonally just work environments.

Appendix A

Table 5

Hierarchical regression results for interpersonal injustice enactment

Variable	Interpersonal *injustice* enactment						
	B	95% CI for B		*SE*	*β*	*R²*	ΔR²
		LL	*UL*				
Step 1						.15	.15***
Constant	1.30***	.72	1.87	.293			
SCD[a]	.52***	.30	.73	.109	.28***		
Values	.64**	.25	1.01	.194	.19**		
Strength[b]	-.17	-.39	-.05	.110	-.09		
Step 2						.38	.23***
Constant	1.51***	.94	2.07	.288			
SCD[a]	2.34***	1.76	2.93	.296	1.25***		
Values	-.15	-.52	.23	.191	-.05		
Strength[b]	.12	-.234	.47	.178	.06		
Values x SCD	-.86***	-1.10	-.62	.123	-.69***		
Strength x SCD	-.63**	-1.03	-.23	.204	-.55**		
Strength x Values	.107	-.01	.28	.060	.169		
Step 3						.40	.02**
Constant	1.57***	1.01	2.13	.284			
SCD[a]	3.12***	2.36	3.87	.382	1.66***		
Values	-.30	-.68	.09	.194	-.09		
Strength[b]	.27	-.09	.63	.182	.14		
Values x SCD	-1.60***	-2.13	-1.08	.266	-1.28***		
Strength x SCD	-1.30***	-1.88	-.72	.294	-1.14**		
Strength x Values	.03	-.10	-.16	.064	.05		
Values x Strength x SCD	.58**	.22	.95	.187	.81**		

Note. SCD = Self-control demands; Values = Self-transcendence values; CI = Confidence interval; LL = Lower limit; UL = Upper limit.

[a]High-SCD condition = 1, Low-SCD condition = 0. [b]Strong situation = 1, Weak situation = 0.

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

Appendix B

Example of a High-Scoring WhatsApp, Respectively Email on the Interpersonal *Justice* Scale

WhatsApp

Hey there, when you arrive in 30 minutes, it will be too late, unfortunately. We can then no longer perform the pretest ... it's a bummer for both of us because we have to postpone the dates for the actual test. I do understand that often something can come up, but we have to manage finding an appointment, okay? Kind regards.

Email

Good day assistant,

Thank you for your reply. As you are already running quite late, I suppose that it may not be possible anymore to run the experiment. I intended to start collecting data tomorrow, but this is not possible without the experiment … Would you be willing to run the experiment with me, tomorrow? It would really be a big concern for me, because otherwise I can't get through with my schedule. Thank you very much for your quick reply. With best regards.

Example of a high-scoring WhatsApp, Respectively Email on the Interpersonal *Injustice* Scale

WhatsApp

Dude, are you kidding me? There's not enough time, you don't have to come, we have to do this another time. We really have to get this right, now, and it really bugs me that you stood me up again... How come you have to work longer again?

Email

Dear assistant,

You don't have to show up anymore. I cannot do the pretest with you anymore because we are running out of time. This is very annoying for me. Now I have to postpone my data collection. I hope hard that you can come up with a good reason why you are late.... You had a commitment. I will now have to look for another intern - willy-nilly....

6.2   Manuscript 2

The Role of Managers' Interpersonal (In)justice Enactment, Self-Transcendence Values and Internal Attributions in Predicting Guilt

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Abstract

Being sensitive in their interpersonal encounters is a major managerial responsibility, and extensive research documents employees' diverse aversive reactions when they feel treated interpersonally unfairly. However, how managers (i.e., actors) themselves feel about their own interpersonal *in*justice enactment is based primarily on theoretical assumptions. Drawing on the self-conscious emotion model, we posited that actors might respond with guilt when they fail to uphold and, particularly, when they actively violate the standards of interpersonal treatment. We investigated this probability across three studies in diverse settings (laboratory simulations and survey design) and with diverse samples (undergraduates and working managers). We explicitly operationalized interpersonal *injustice* besides interpersonal *justice* behavior and found that the former elicited guilt to a greater extent. Emphasizing self-transcendence values amplified the guilt response. Contrary to our expectations, feeling responsible (i.e., making internal attributions) for the quality of one's interpersonal treatment did not strengthen the effect of interpersonal *in*justice enactment on guilt. Our research contributes to the theoretical understanding of actors' affective consequences of justice enactment and illuminates personal characteristics that make actors more (or less) vulnerable to feeling guilty. We discuss theoretical implications for research on actor-centric justice and self-conscious emotions and practical implications for organizations and their managers.

Keywords: Justice enactment, self-conscious emotions, personal values, attributions

The Role of Managers' Interpersonal (In)justice Enactment, Self-Transcendence Values and Internal Attributions in Predicting Guilt

The notion that employees experience interpersonal injustice on a daily basis (Colquitt et al., 2005) has motivated a tremendous amount of fairness research over the last three decades (Colquitt et al., 2005, 2013). Evidence shows that experiencing unfairness provokes negative attitudes, emotions, and various destructive work-related behaviors (Barclay et al., 2005; Colquitt et al., 2001; Liao & Rupp, 2005). More recently, scholars shifted their focus to those who enact justice (i.e., actors), predominantly managers, to better understand their justice motives (Brockner et al., 2015) and potential roadblocks to justice enactment (e.g., Sherf et al., 2018, 2021; Whiteside & Barclay, 2016). Although this stream of research established a more holistic picture and offered valuable insights into why managers act unfairly, an understanding of *how actors* experience a justice-relevant event is still largely lacking.

Available evidence, albeit in short supply, shows that justice is not without consequences for actors. Adhering to justice rules can cost actors time, effort, energy, and cognitive capacity (Ganegoda et al., 2016; He et al., 2017; Margolis & Molinsky, 2008; Monin et al., 2013; Whiteside & Barclay, 2016b), but also allows them to revitalize personal resources (Johnson et al., 2014) and overall satisfaction and well-being (Bernerth et al., 2016). These accounts shed novel light on the impact of justice for actors, yet little is known about how justice-related decisions impact actors' own feelings. To gain knowledge on actors' affective states is pertinent because emotions strongly shape decision-making, attitudes, and behavior (Ashkanasy et al., 2011; Day et al., 2014), which can have micro-and macro-level impacts on organizations and all stakeholders.

Our research addresses this lacuna in the literature by focusing on the negative self-conscious emotion of guilt. Guilt is a state that "involves negative feelings about a specific behavior or action taken by the self" (Robins & Schriber, 2009, p. 889) and is an actor's

response to social norm violations (Tracy et al., 2007). Guilt signals individuals that they did something "wrong" (Baumeister et al., 1994) and tends to motivate approach-related behavioral adjustments, including constructive managerial behavior (Caprara et al., 2001). However, the emotion is elicited as a consequence of a self-evaluation process: whether actors experience guilt is dependent on the self-perceived relevance of the behavior for actors' identity and feelings of responsibility.

To understand how actors' own interpersonal justice behavior is related to the experience of guilt, we draw on the actor-focused model of Justice (i.e., AFJM; Scott et al., 2009) and the self-conscious emotion model (i.e., SCEM; Tracy & Robins, 2004). According to the models, guilt occurs when individuals' attention is drawn to themselves, and they perceive themselves as having fallen short of their own standards. Specifically, guilt requires individuals a) to perceive an event as identity-goal relevant and b) to feel responsible for the event's outcome. This suggests that actors should only experience guilt if they feel responsible for failing to enact justice *and* if this failure to enact justice violates their own standards.

In the present paper, we test the propositions of the SCEM in light of the relation between interpersonal (in)justice enactment and guilt. Specifically, we examine whether the relationship between interpersonal justice enactment and guilt is contingent on actors' self-transcendence values (i.e., the stable personal importance placed on others' well-being and needs; Schwartz, 1994) and internal attributions (i.e., whether actors see themselves as the primary cause of an outcome; Weiner, 1995). We adopt a bi-dimensional conceptualization of interpersonal justice; that is, we explicitly investigated both interpersonal *injustice* and interpersonal *justice* behavior (Colquitt et al., 2015). This approach allowed us to theorize about and test whether the mere absence of politeness and respect (i.e., of interpersonal justice) provokes guilt in actors with a similar intensity as the presence of behavior that violates interpersonal norms, such as rudeness or acting in a derogatory or degrading manner (interpersonal injustice).

Figure 1

The Full Hypothetical Model
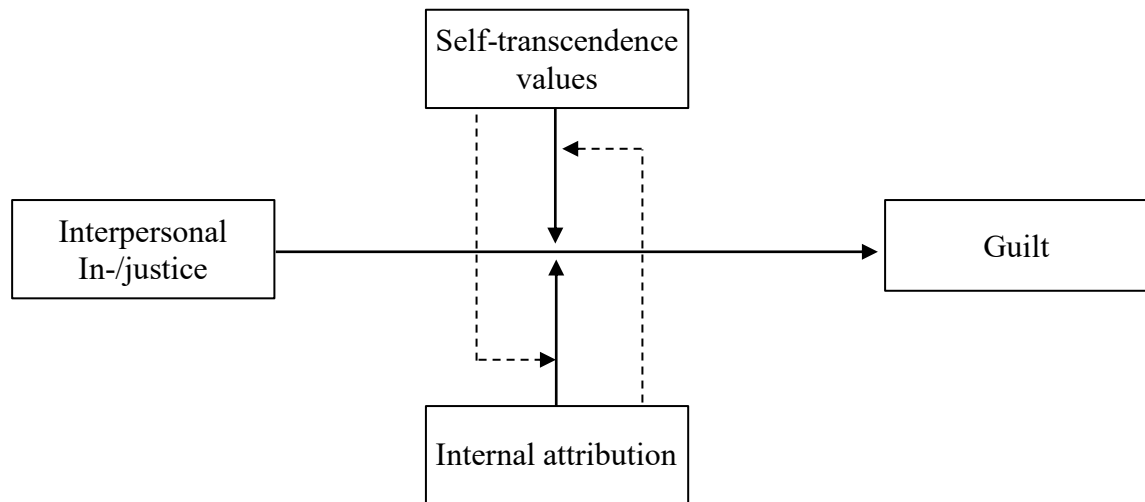
In proposing our model (see Figure 1), we make several contributions to the justice

literature. First, we address an important shortcoming in justice literature by focusing on the

affective consequences of justice enactment for actors (vs. targets; Colquitt et al., 2001,

2013). While the role of emotions in forming targets' justice experiences has long been

recognized (Barclay et al., 2005; De Cremer & van den Bos, 2007), the repeated calls to

broaden the knowledge regarding actors' emotional reactions remained largely unanswered

(Graso et al., 2020), and existing research mainly explored emotions as boundary conditions

(Barclay & Kiefer, 2019). Addressing recent calls to investigate emotions as a consequence of

justice enactment, our study broadens the understanding of actors' potential psychological

costs and benefits (Graso et al., 2020). Second, we draw from and test the propositions of the

SCEM (Tracy & Robins, 2004) to explore how justice enactment is related to guilt. We test

two theoretically deduced boundary conditions (i.e., self-transcendence values and internal

attributions) to refine current theorizing in the justice literature (Molinsky & Margolis, 2005;

Scott et al., 2009) and to draw a more accurate picture of workplace reality. Additionally,

despite the centrality of values to the self (i.e., shaping behavioral choices and emotional reactions; Hitlin, 2003) and their relevance for predicting work-related outcomes (Arieli et al., 2019, 2020), research on justice enactment has devoted scant attention on the matter. By explicitly investigating the role of self-transcendence values in the relation between interpersonal justice enactment and guilt we acknowledge the importance of the self in justice enactment (Camps et al., 2022). Lastly, by applying a bi-dimensional conceptualization of justice (Colquitt et al., 2015), we provide a finer-grained understanding of what kind of justice-related behaviors (actions versus nonactions) may elicit guilt. Investigating justice and injustice, we may detect meaningful relationships that remain obscured when limiting our investigation to the commonly used one-dimensional interpersonal justice scale (Colquitt & Rodell, 2015). We aim to highlight the theoretical and practical relevance of considering the full range of interpersonal justice behavior and stimulate future research to do the same (Colquitt et al., 2015).

Theory and Hypotheses

Interpersonal Justice Behavior and Guilt

Interpersonal justice refers to the quality of interpersonal communication (Bies, 2001, 2001). Employees' interpersonal fairness perception is fostered when actors adhere to rules of dignity and respect (Bies & Moag, 1986) and refrain from violating these rules by being rude or making inappropriate or degrading remarks. Scott et al. (2009) introduced an actor-focused justice model to explain adherence to and violation of justice rules on the part of managers. Besides theorizing about affective and cognitive motives of justice enactment, the authors describe how actors may react to their own justice, with a focus on guilt. Arguing that justice "represents a prevailing societal standard" (p. 764), Scott et al. (2009) posit that managers may experience guilt if they feel they failed to enact justice and thereby violated the prevailing societal norms or standards.

Broadly speaking, both the AFJM (Scott et al., 2009) and the SCEM (Tracy & Robins, 2004) posit that guilt occurs when individuals compare their (non) actions against existing standards and conclude that they have failed them. People need to be self-aware for the self-appraisal process to be activated. That is, behavior or events need to draw attention to themselves, which tends to be the case when people perceive them as self-relevant. Relevant to the self is any event or behavior that is subjectively important, thus, activates any part of the self, or individuals' self-representations (stable beliefs about what kind of person one is or wants to be), including beliefs concerning role-related behaviors.

Since self-representations are often tied to individuals' social roles (Brewer, 1991), managers likely have stable beliefs concerning typical managerial behavior (Stryker & Burke, 2000). Specifically, communicating decisions in ways that others can (more easily) accept them (i.e., with sensitivity; Bies, 2001), is a core characteristic (Yukl, 1998) and responsibility associated with the managerial role (Blau, 1964; Colquitt et al., 2001). In other words, managers likely have beliefs concerning their interpersonal fairness (Camps et al., 2022), which suggests that how they interact with others should activate this self-representation and trigger the self-appraisal process (was my behavior in line with how managers should treat others?). Further, external norms, or what society regards as appropriate and desirable in certain situations or within specific roles, largely shape individuals' implicit standards (Tracy et al., 2007). Because people tend to have a shared understanding of what they consider as interpersonally fair treatment (Colquitt et al., 2005), actors likely perceive their lack of sensitivity as a violation of how managers should treat others, a perception that subsequently elicits guilt. The assumed self-relevance of interpersonal justice for actors echoes a recent paper discussing the role of actors' self, which states that actors have a "strong desire to maintain a positive self-view and reputation as being fair" (Camps et al., 2019, p. 9). Thus, consistent with prior theoretical accounts (Scott et al., 2009), we expect that:

Hypothesis 1a: Interpersonal justice behavior will be negatively related to guilt.

Interpersonal Injustice Behavior and Guilt

In agreement with other justice scholars (Bies, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2015), we argue that at work, managers' interpersonal sensitivity not only varies with the degree they are polite and respectful but also with the degree they actively violate standards by being rude, or making derogatory, degrading, or improper remarks. This notion implies that managers are confronted not only with the experience of their interpersonal-justice-related nonactions (e.g., "I should have been more polite") but also their interpersonal injustice-related actions (e.g., "I should not have called Rick a jerk").

Extensive evidence shows that individuals pay more attention to and weigh the presence of negative information more heavily than the absence of positive information when evaluating others and themselves (Baumeister et al., 2001; Birnbaum, 1972; Himmelfarb, 1973). Referring to this negativity effect, Colquitt et al. (2015) argued and provided initial empirical evidence for injustice (vs. justice) behavior as a stronger predictor of targets' emotional responses (e.g., level of hostility). We expect a similar pattern among managers. Managers may fear strong adverse reactions, social sanctions, or even legal implications following their interpersonal injustice behavior. An interview study indicates that such worries are not unjustified; employees who perceive managers as unfair blame them more severely (Zwank & Diehl, 2019) and evaluate them more negatively (Skitka et al., 2003) than when they perceive them as merely low in fairness.

Further, dissonance theories agree that the more a behavior deviates from ideal or expected standards, the greater and more unpleasant the resulting feelings of discomfort (Bem, 1967; Hinojosa et al., 2017). Given that guilt mirrors the discrepancy between the real-self (e.g., a manager made a degrading comment) and an ideal-self (e.g., a good manager is respectful), interpersonal injustice behavior clearly threatens one's self-image of being a fair

manager. Hence, such behaviors should trigger guilt to an even stronger extent than low levels of interpersonal justice behavior.

> *Hypothesis 1b: Interpersonal injustice behavior will be positively related to guilt.*

> *Hypothesis 3c: Interpersonal injustice behavior will have a stronger effect on guilt than interpersonal justice behavior.*

The Role of Actors' Self and Their Feelings of Responsibility

So far, we had established that guilt occurs under the condition that an individual exhibits behavior that violates their own and others' standards (Tracy et al., 2007), which parallels what managers may perceive when they behave unfairly in daily interactions. However, recognizing that their behavior may have lacked politeness or was rude may not be sufficient to feel guilty. Coming back to the self-appraisal process outlined above, we draw on the AFJM (Scott et al., 2009) and SCEM (Tracy & Robins, 2004), suggesting that whether guilt occurs depends on (1) actors' appraisal of how important interpersonal justice is for their selves and (2) their interpretation of what has caused their enactment of interpersonal in/justice.

Identity-Goal Relevance of Interpersonal Justice

Whether actors feel guilty when they behave interpersonally unfairly depends on the extent individuals perceive the behavior as identity-goal incongruent. The AFJM (Scott et al., 2009) and SCEM (Tracy & Robins, 2004) argue that guilt occurs when one's actions diverge from one's internal standards and self-representation. Because we are interested in the extent to which actors perceive interpersonal justice as an identity-goal, we focus on self-transcendence values that refer to the stable personal goal of "acceptance of others as equals and concern for their welfare" (universalism and benevolence; Schwartz, 1994, p. 25). Values are relatively stable over the life course (Rokeach, 1973) and are an integral part of individuals' self-identity (Hitlin, 2003). Individuals who score high on self-transcendence deem it essential to consider others in their decisions and actions and care for their well-being

and needs (see Arieli et al., 2019, for the work context; Schwartz, 2016). Thus, actors who emphasize this value likely want to be seen by themselves and others as someone who values fairness (Arieli et al., 2019) and expresses this in their daily interactions (Schwartz, 2016). Thus, enacting interpersonal justice is likely perceived as one way to express the value of self-transcendence, which implies that acting interpersonally unfair is likely perceived as identity incongruent, subsequently amplifying feelings of guilt.

Conversely, managers with a lower emphasis on self-transcendence values may experience their interpersonal behavior as a less identity-relevant goal because those actors tend to focus more strongly on themselves (rather than on others; Schwartz, 2012). A lack of sensitivity in conversations may therefore feel less threatening to their self-view and not even deviate from their internal standards (Arieli et al., 2019). In their perception, "being a bit rude" may even serve their personal goal of establishing their position and demonstrating their power (Blau, 1964). Concluding, those actors may ponder less about how they have treated others. However, they may instead re-examine their accomplishments after an interaction (Stouten et al., 2005), which leads to less intense feelings of self-identity goal incongruence and lower levels of guilt. Thus, we expect the following:

Hypothesis 2a: Self-transcendence values will moderate the negative relationship of interpersonal justice with guilt, such that the relationships will be stronger when actors' priority on self-transcendence values is higher (vs. lower).

Hypothesis 2b: Self-transcendence values will moderate the positive relationship of interpersonal injustice behavior with guilt, such that the relationships will be stronger when actors' priority on self-transcendence values is higher (vs. lower).

Internal Attributions for Interpersonal In/justice Behavior

Besides judgments of self-relevance and identity-goal relevance, whether actors experience guilt should also depend on the extent to which they perceive themselves as responsible for their exhibited interpersonal unfairness (Scott et al., 2009; Tracy & Robins,

2004). Individuals' feelings of responsibility or of being accountable for an event's outcomes are tied to internal attributions (Weiner, 1995). Making internal attributions refers to the perception of seeing oneself rather than others as the primary cause of an event's outcome (Kelly, 1967). Responsibility implies that actors have a certain degree of discretion regarding their actions (Cox, 2005), which may evoke the feeling in actors that they could have prevented the outcome (Tangney et al., 2007). Further, accepting responsibility intensifies the feeling that specific outcomes reflect one's abilities and effort (Tracy et al., 2007). Thus, when managers make internal attribution, they may experience a more severe threat to their self-concept of being a fair manager because, by their (non) actions, they threaten others' sense of dignity, which is opposed to proper managerial conduct (Yukl, 1998). Studies indeed show that individuals respond more strongly with guilt to various forms of norm-deviating behavior when they feel responsible (e.g., unethical leader behavior; Berthoz et al., 2006; Hinrichs et al., 2012).

In contrast, when managers perceive that their unfairness was (partly) caused by external factors, they may be less likely to feel that their interpersonal behavior negatively reflects on their abilities or efforts (Harvey et al., 2017; Hinrichs et al., 2012), reducing their sense of personal shortcoming. For instance, actors may feel that employees failed to act respectfully or that their high workload prevented them from investing more energy in their interactions. In those cases, actors may perceive their interpersonal in/justice as a reasonable response with limited implications for their self-concept. For example, because managers face various responsibilities and tasks (Ashford & Northcraft, 2003), they are forced to prioritize (Sherf et al., 2018). Hence, they have an excuse to attribute their behavior externally that may even serve their self-view as goal-focused managers. When actors lack a sense of responsibility, acting interpersonally unfair may feel less like personal wrongdoing. Accumulated work showing that individuals escape guilt by shifting responsibility and blaming others (Hinrichs et al., 2012), supports our argument. We expect the following:

Hypothesis 3a: Actors' feelings of responsibility will moderate the association of interpersonal justice and guilt such that the negative relationship will be stronger when actors attribute their behavior internally (vs. externally).

Hypothesis 3b: Actors' feelings of responsibility will moderate the positive association of interpersonal injustice behavior and guilt such that the relationship will be stronger when actors attribute their behavior internally (vs. externally).

The Relationship Between Interpersonal In/Justice Behavior, Internal Attributions, and Self-Transcendence Values

Lastly, we argue that interpersonal in/justice, self-transcendence values, and internal attributions have a joint influence on predicting actors' guilt experiences. We established that justice-related events are likely relevant to managers because they activate self-representations concerning managerial behavior. If the quality of their actions is judged as irrelevant to their self-identity (I am rather a manager who focuses on the outcomes, and sometimes being rough is what it needs), however, managers may not experience guilt, even when actors appraise themselves as accountable for not acting interpersonally just. Conversely, actors who feel they have caused others distress but want to be seen by themselves and others as acting in ways that promote others' welfare should perceive stark self-inconsistency and may feel confronted with painful self-identity threats. Hence, we propose that the guilt experience will be strongest among actors who make internal causal attributions and hold higher self-transcendence values.

Hypothesis 4a: The tendency of interpersonal justice behavior to have a stronger effect on guilt when actors make stronger (vs. weaker) internal attributions will be more pronounced in actors who have higher (vs. lower) self-transcendence values.

Hypothesis 4b: The tendency of interpersonal injustice behavior to have a stronger on guilt when actors make stronger (vs. weaker) internal attributions will be more pronounced in actors who have higher (vs. lower) self-transcendence values.

Study 1

Participants and Procedure

In exchange for experimental hours, data were obtained from 128 Swiss university students who participated in a real-life simulation study on campus. Ten participants were excluded from analyses because they failed to provide data on the focal variables (i.e., interpersonal justice or interpersonal injustice), and the final sample consisted of 118 participants (M_{age} = 23.41 years, SD_{age} = 3.03; 72% women).

One week before data collection, participants received an online questionnaire assessing their demographic details and self-transcendence values. On the day of the data collection on campus, participants entered the assessment room equipped with a computer, gave their informed consent again, and learned about the study's cover story. Specifically, participants were asked to adopt the role of a student who must run a final experiment with an assigned assistant to start the data collection process for their thesis. While waiting for the assistant's arrival, participants' state negative affect was assessed (which served as a control variable). Next, participants received further information on the scheduled meeting, including the required time for the experiment. Simultaneously, participants received a pre-composed email sent in real-time by a research confederate and announcing the assistant's lateness. The email led participants to believe that the remaining time is insufficient to run the necessary experiment. Participants were asked to respond to the email, evaluate their interpersonal justice and interpersonal injustice behavior, afterwards, and then respond to a measure assessing their experienced guilt. After completion, participants were probed for hypothesis guessing and thanked for participation. Overall, we simulated a situation that the participants likely encounter in their everyday life to enhance identification and immersion, which should provoke typical behavioral reactions.

The data collection for the current study was part of a larger-scale project focusing on antecedents and consequences of interpersonal justice behavior (further details are provided

on the OSF site: osf.io/4fc5r). Part of the project involved manipulating participants'

depletion levels by assigning them to a group that engaged in either a high-demand or a low-

demand writing task prior to the abovementioned simulation task. Because depletion can

lower guilt (H. Xu et al., 2012), we included the self-control demand condition in all analyses

as control variable.

Measures

Interpersonal Justice Behavior

Participants' evaluation of their interpersonal justice and injustice enactment was

assessed with 7 items of the Full-Range Justice Measurement (Colquitt et al., 2015), adapted

to reflect self-perception rather than the experience of un/fair treatment. We asked

participants to report on a 4-point scale (1 = *to a small extent*; 4 = *to a very large extent*) their

interpersonal justice behavior by indicating the extent they (1) showed respect, (2) were

polite, or (3) treated the other person with dignity ($\alpha = .72$), and their interpersonal injustice

behavior by the extent they (4) expressed disregard, (5) acted rudely, (6) behaved in a

derogatory manner, (7) or made insulting remarks ($\alpha = .72$). In line with the present paper's

theory guided operationalization of justice, respectively injustice, we did not include the item

"refrained from improper comments" from the original scale in our analyses because while

the other justice items asked people to report the commission of specific justice-relevant

behavior, this item assesses omission.[6]

Self-Transcendence Values

The importance participants placed on the value self-transcendence was assessed with

the German version of the Revised Portrait Value Questionnaire (PVQ-RR; Schwartz, 2017),

a typology measurement based on 15 short gender-matched portraits. Each verbal portrait

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[6] For the sake of completeness, we run all analyses with and with the item "refrained from improper remarks" which is part of the original justice scale (Colquitt et al., 2015) but was omitted in the present research. The results remained the same.

describes a hypothetical person's goals or aspirations. Participants' values are inferred via the people's values in the portraits they describe as similar to themselves. For example, participants who indicate a similarity to a person described by "It is important to him/her to take care of people he/she is close to" presumably attribute importance to the value benevolence. Participants who indicate a similarity to a person described as "It is important to him/her to be tolerant toward all kinds of people and groups", presumably place importance on the universalism value. Both values, benevolence reflected by 6 portraits; universalism by 9 portraits, constitute the higher-order value self-transcendence and were rated on 6-point scales (1 = *not like me at all*, 6 = *very much like me*). The final score is calculated by summing up the respondent's answers regarding all value portraits, divided by the total number of portraits ($\alpha = .89$).

Guilt

Guilt was assessed with a single item that asked participants to think of their behavior towards their assistant and to indicate the extent they felt guilty on a 5-point scale (1 = *not at all*; 5 = *very much*).

Negative Affect and Depletion

We controlled for the experimental condition (high vs. low self-control demands) to isolate the effect of interpersonal justice on guilt. Additionally, we controlled for participants' negative affect because momentary mood plays a decisive role in the quality of interactions (Berry & Hansen, 1996) and can influence both individuals' perceptions (Lazarus, 1982), including perceptions of justice (Hoobler & Hu, 2013), and the occurrence of guilt (Ketelaar & Tung Au, 2003). Negative affect was assessed with nine items of the validated German version of Profile of Mood States (POMS; Albani et al., 2005). Respondents indicated the extent to which they experienced the affective states of "anger", "anxiety", and "depressed mood", each measured with three items on a 4-point scale (0 = *not at all*; 4 = *extremely*; α

=.83). The three items of the original scale that assess the state "fatigue" were excluded because of the conceptual overlap with depletion.

Results

Descriptive statistics and correlations of all focal variables are displayed in Table 1. As Table 1 shows, neither of the control variables significantly correlate with our model's dependent variable (i.e., guilt). However, following a recent recommendation (Becker et al., 2016), we ran all analyses with and without control variables for completeness. Because coefficients remained at comparable levels, supporting the robustness of the findings, analyses and results are presented without the controls.[7]

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations Among Study Variables With 95% Confidence

Intervals (Study 1)

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5
1. Justice	3.18	0.61					
2. Injustice	1.71	0.58	-.56**				
			[-.67, -.42]				
3. Guilt	1.36	0.59	-.11	.33**			
			[-.29, .07]	[.16, .48]			
4. Values	4.69	0.63	.07	-.05	.12		
			[-.11, .25]	[-.24, .13]	[-.06, .29]		
5. SCD[a]	0.51	0.50	-.08	.06	.03	-.14	
			[-.26, .10]	[-.13, .24]	[-.15, .21]	[-.31, .04]	
6. Negative affect	1.72	0.60	-.03	.16	.01	.11	.10
			[-.25, .33]	[.00, .36]	[-.16, .21]	[-.07, .29]	[-.08, .28]

Note. N = 118. Justice = Interpersonal justice enactment; Injustice = Interpersonal injustice enactment; Values = Self-transcendence values.

SCD = Self-control demands. [a]High-SCD condition = 1, Low-SCD condition = 0.

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

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[7] Results, including the control variables (i.e., depletion and negative affect) can be obtained from the first author of this study.

Hypothesis 1 predicted that (a) interpersonal justice would be negatively, and (b) interpersonal injustice would be positively related to guilt. The results of simple regression analyses showed that while justice[8,9] was not significantly related to guilt (B = -0.11, SE = 0.09, 95% CI [-0.29, 0.07], p =.23), injustice was significantly and positively related to guilt (B = 0.34, SE = 0.09, 95% CI [0.16, 0.52], p <.001). While the data did not support Hypothesis 1a, Hypothesis 1b was supported. Hypothesis 1c predicted that interpersonal injustice would have a stronger effect on guilt than interpersonal justice. A comparison of Pearson correlations with a Williams T-test confirmed that injustice behavior was a stronger predictor of guilt than justice (t(115) = -4.99, p <.01) and provides support for Hypothesis 1c.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that self-transcendence values would moderate the relationship between (a) interpersonal justice, as well as (b) interpersonal injustice and guilt. To test the significance of the interaction effects, we used the PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2013) to calculate bias-corrected 95% confidence intervals, using 5000 resamples. Results indicated that neither the direct effect of justice (B = -0.12, SE = 0.09, p =.20) nor the interaction effect of self-transcendence and justice on guilt (B = -0.04, SE = 0.15, p =.80) were significant. Hypothesis 2a was not supported. In contrast, our analyses (see Table 2) revealed that the main effect (B = 0.33, SE = 0.09, p < .01), and more importantly, the interaction effect of self-transcendence values and injustice on guilt were positive and significant (B = 0.31, SE = 0.15, p < .05).

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[8] In this model only, when it was controlled for negative affect, the results changed, such as, interpersonal justice enactment was no longer significantly related to guilt (R^2 = .02, B = -0.11, p = .23).

[9] To promote comprehensibility, we will use the term justice for justice rule adherence and injustice for justice rule violations when reporting the results.

Table 1

Regression Results Showing Interpersonal Injustice Enactment as Predictor of Guilt with

Self-Transcendence Values as Moderator (Study 1)

Variable	Guilt				
	B	*SE*	*t*	*p*	95% CI
Constant	1.37	0.05	26.43	<.001	[1.27, 1.47]
Injustice	0.33	0.09	3.70	<.01	[0.15, 0.51]
Values	0.13	0.08	1.70	.09	[-0.02, 0.30]
Values x Injustice	0.31	0.15	2.06	<.05	[0.01, 0.62]

Note. N = 118. Injustice = Interpersonal injustice enactment; Values = Self-transcendence values; CI = Confidence interval.

Further, we tested simple slopes (see Figure 2) at 1 SD above and 1 SD below the mean of self-transcendence values. Results show that injustice is related to guilt among actors with higher ($B = 0.53$, $SE = 0.13$, $p < .001$), but not among actors with lower self-transcendence values ($B = 0.13$, $SE = 0.14$, $p = .35$). Hypothesis 2b was supported.

Figure 2

The Interactive Effects of Interpersonal Injustice Enactment and Self-Transcendence Values

on Guilt (Study 1)
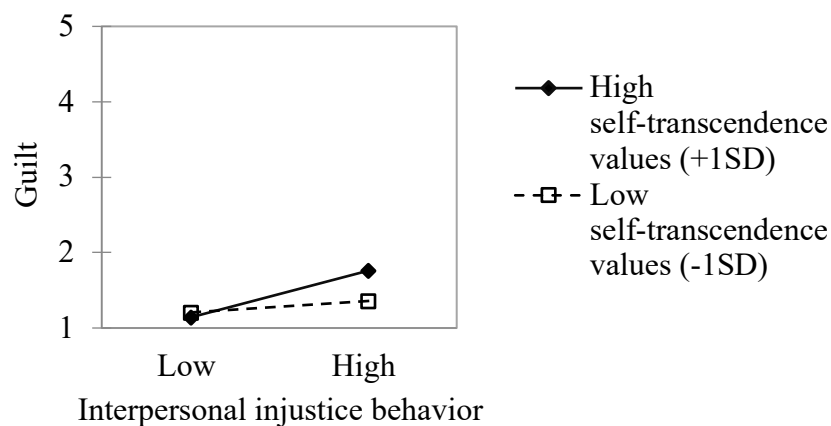
Discussion

Study 1 provided preliminary support for the outlined association between actors' interpersonal justice perceptions and feelings of guilt. Although results did not support the hypothesized relationship between interpersonal justice behavior and guilt, actively violating interpersonal norms was significantly related to increased guilt. In other words, the evidence supports our assumption that whether actors engage or fail to engage in certain justice-relevant behavior seems to play a differential role in triggering guilt. Moreover, when actors held higher (vs. lower) levels of self-transcendence values, the guilt response to interpersonal justice behavior was stronger.

Study 1 was limited in mainly two aspects due to the time restrictions of the broader project from which the data originated. First, guilt was measured with a single item. Although single-item measures proved to be valid (Wanous et al., 1997), using an established multiple-item instrument that covers the construct more broadly allows for capturing the full breadth of actors' self-conscious emotional state, thereby increasing reliability and content-related validity (Allen et al., 2022). Second, we established the main effect in line with prior theorizing (Scott et al., 2009), while addressing *identity-goal relevance* as one factor shaping actors' guilt experience. However, we were unable to test Hypotheses 3-4 as we did not assess the extent actors felt *responsible* for their behavior (i.e., the extent they attribute their justice-related behavior internally). To refine these findings as well as establish their robustness we conducted a second study.

Study 2

Participants and Procedure

110 Swiss university students (M_{age} = 22.34, SD_{age} = 4.01; 72% women) participated in groups of maximally 20 in a simulation study wherein they, role-playing a supervisor, interacted through an instant messaging system (i.e., *Zoom*) with their assigned team members. As cover story, participants were to that the study investigates remote teamwork.

One week before the team task on campus took place, participants' demographics and self-transcendence values were assessed. On-site, participants were randomly assigned to one of two laboratory rooms and were told that they, according to the room selection, had been appointed as the team leader, which was used as a cover to mask that in fact, all participants acted as leaders. Participants then were informed that they would be provided with instructions via the online questionnaire that they accessed via a link provided by the experimenter. Because of the ongoing Covid pandemic, participants were instructed to use their laptops with the *Zoom*-Application installed beforehand. To link the survey responses and the Zoom-chat interactions, while ensuring confidentiality, participants were asked to generate a fictitious name that they stated at the beginning of the questionnaire and the Zoom-chat interaction. Names of all participants were compared among experimenters in each round to spot potential duplicates and distinguish the respective interactions by adding a number to the name used twice (e.g., Sebo1 and Sebo2). Ahead of the team task, participants read about the task's rules and goals to increase personal involvement and immersion. Most importantly, participants were informed about the teams' completeness ("all 4 members are online") as a condition for starting the actual task and were probed to welcome their team via a *Zoom* chat. Participants saw that three out of four members indicated their presence via a short message: "I am here" in the team chat. The questionnaire was programmed so that participants could report their team's incompleteness, which automatically triggered the instruction to contact the respective member they could find in their *Zoom* contact list. Accordingly, participants contacted the missing member (named like all team members with non-gender identifiable names like Alex and Kim) and engaged in a pre-scripted one-on-one chat interaction that was used to assess their interpersonal justice/injustice behavior. A confederate sent the first of three messages that read, "Come on, chill out; I didn't have time to do this pre-survey. However, now I can start working on it.", followed by "As I said, no need to rush. I have not yet finished filling out the form. The week was very stressful, and I just did not find the time",

and "I'm not finished yet. And you are not going to speed things up. Just keep going for now".

Two team members asked whether they could start the team task by saying, "Can we start now?" and "Why do we not start the task?". Following the interaction, participants completed measures of causal attribution, interpersonal in/justice, and experienced guilt that were administered under the pretense that self-evaluation is a key success factor of remote teamwork. Finally, participants were probed for hypothesis guessing (none of the participants was able to correctly guess it), informed about the impossibility of participating in the actual task because of their team's incompleteness.

Measures

Interpersonal Justice Behavior

We measured self-perceived interpersonal justice ($\alpha = .70$) and injustice enactment ($\alpha = .86$), with 7 items of the Full-Range Justice Measurement (Colquitt et al., 2015), as in Study 1.

Self-Transcendence Values

We assessed self-transcendence values with the German version of the PVQ-RR (Schwartz et al., 2012), following the procedure identical to that used in Study 1 ($\alpha = .95$).

Internal Attribution

Actors' perceived responsibility for their behavior was measured with two items initially introduced by Lazarus and colleagues (2001) and slightly modified by Bunk and Magley (2013). The items, measured on a 5-point scale (1 = *not at all*; 5 = *very much*), were: "To what extent do you view yourself as responsible for your behavior", and "To what extent do you view someone else as responsible for your behavior". Responses for the second item were recoded to parallel the first item, such that a higher rating reflects greater extent of internal attribution *($\alpha = .65$)*.

Guilt

We measured actors' guilt experience with the five of the items of the State Shame and Guilt Scale (SSGS-8; Marschall et al., 1994). Participants were instructed to report the extent to which the five statements, including "I feel tension about something I have done," and "I feel bad about something I have done", described their feelings when they thought about how they behaved in the one-on-one interaction towards the target on a 5-point scale (1 = *not at all*; 5 = *very much; α* = .83).

Negative Affect

Negative affect was used as a control, measured with the nine items of the validated German version of the POMS (Albani et al., 2005), as in Study 1 (*α* = .87).

Results and Discussion

Descriptive statistics and correlations are displayed in Table 3. As negative affect did not significantly correlate with the outcome variable (i.e., guilt), we only report the analyses without negative affect as a control variable. For completeness, we re-ran all analyses with negative affect as a control variable. Significant coefficients remained the same, strengthening confidence in our findings.[10]

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[10] Results, including the control variable (i.e., negative affect) can be obtained from the first author of this study.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations Among Study Variables With 95% Confidence Intervals (Study 2)

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. Justice	2.45	0.57					
2. Injustice	2.08	0.90	-.65**				
			[-.68, -.42]				
3. Guilt	1.39	0.56	-.21*	.35**			
			[-.38, -.02]	[.17, .50]			
4. Values	5.14	0.76	-.01	-.12	.04		
			[-.18, .20]	[-.30, .07]	[-.15, .23]		
5. Internal attribution	3.39	1.19	-.03	-.02	.03	.21*	
			[-.22, .16]	[-.20, .17]	[-.16, .21]	[.02, .38]	
6. Negative affect	1.69	0.62	-.10	.04	-.05	-.02	.09
			[-.29, .08]	[-.15, .23]	[-.23, .14]	[-.21, .17]	[-.10, .28]

Note. N = 110. Justice = Interpersonal justice enactment; Injustice = Interpersonal injustice enactment; Values = Self-transcendence Values.
*p < .05. ** p < .01.

Hypothesis 1 predicted that (a) interpersonal justice would be negatively, and (b) interpersonal injustice would be positively related to guilt. Simple regression analyses showed that justice[11] was negatively (*B* = -0.16, *SE* = 0.07, 95% CI [-0.30, -0.02], *p* <.05), and injustice was positively (*B* = 0.22, *SE* = 0.06, 95% CI [0.10, 0.33], *p* <.001) related to guilt. The results supported Hypothesis 1a and Hypothesis1b, respectively. Similar to Study 1, the Williams t-test showed that the association between injustice and guilt was significantly stronger compared to the association between justice and guilt (*t*(107) = -5.13, *p* <.001) supporting Hypothesis 1c.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that self-transcendence values would moderate the relationship between both (a) interpersonal justice and guilt, and (b) interpersonal injustice and guilt.

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[11] To promote comprehensibility, we will use the term *justice* for justice rule adherence and *injustice* for justice rule violations when reporting the results.

Again, we fitted linear models and used Hayes' PROCESS macro (5000 bootstrap samples; 95% bias-corrected CIs; Hayes, 2013). Neither the main effect of justice on guilt (B = -0.14, SE = 0.07, p =.05), nor the interaction effect was significant (B = -0.12, SE = 0.13, p =.35). Hypothesis 2a was not supported. As Table 4 shows, the main effect of injustice on guilt (B = 0.23, SE= 0.05, p <.001), and the moderating effect of self-transcendence values on the relationship between injustice and guilt was positive and significant (B = 0.19, SE= 0.07, p <.01). Simple slope analyses, testing the effect of SCD at 1 SD above and below the mean of the self-transcendence value, showed that actors with higher (B = 0.38, SE = 0.08, p <.001) self-transcendence values were significantly more likely than those with lower (B = 0.09, SE = 0.07, p =.22) self-transcendence values to respond with guilt to their interpersonally unjust behavior (Figure 3).

Table 3

Regression Results Showing Interpersonal Injustice as Predictor of Guilt, with Self-Transcendence Values as Moderator (Study 2)

Variable	Guilt				
	B	*SE*	*t*	*p*	95% CI
Constant	1.40	0.04	28.73	<.001	[1.31, 1.50]
Injustice	0.23	0.05	4.24	<.001	[0.12, 0.34]
Values	0.06	0.06	0.95	.34	[-0.06, 0.19]
Values x Injustice	0.19	0.16	2.88	<.01	[0.06, 0.33]

Note. N = 110. Injustice = Interpersonal injustice enactment; Values = Self-transcendence values; CI = Confidence interval.

Figure 1

The Interactive Effects of Interpersonal Injustice Enactment and Self-Transcendence Values

on Guilt (Study 2)
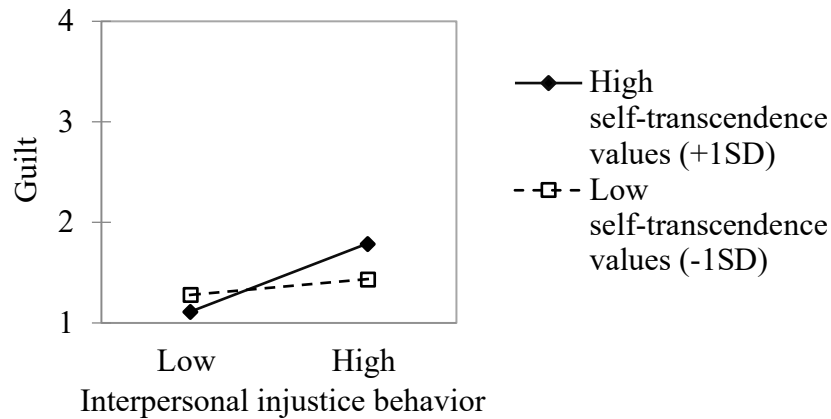
Hypothesis 3 predicted that internal attributions would moderate the relationship between both (a) interpersonal justice and guilt, and (b) interpersonal injustice and guilt. Using PROCESS (5000 bootstrap samples; 95% bias-corrected CIs; Hayes, 2013), results indicated a significant main effect of justice ($B = -0.18$, $SE = 0.07$, $p < .05$) and injustice ($B = 0.21$, $SE = 0.06$, $p < .01$) on guilt. However, in both models the expected moderation effect was not supported (justice: $B = .06$, $SE = 0.06$, $p = .33$; injustice: $B = -.09$, $SE = 0.05$, $p = .06$). Hypothesis 3a and Hypothesis 3b were not supported.

We found supportive evidence for our hypotheses that actors respond with guilt to their interpersonal injustice behavior, similar to the findings in Study 1. Again, interpersonal injustice behavior was a stronger predictor of guilt than interpersonal justice behavior, amplified among actors with higher self-transcendence values. Unlike in Study 1, justice behavior was significantly related to guilt. Further, different from our expectations, guilt did not vary with actors' perceived responsibility levels.

Study 2 has some limitations. First, because of the pandemic-related restrictions, the sample size was smaller than intended. A power analysis conducted with G*Power 3 (Faul et

al., 2007) indicated that a sample size of 290 would be required to detect a significant interaction effect of three predictors at level 3 *(a medium effect)* with a power of .90 and an alpha of .05. Hence, the low power did not allow us to test the postulated three-way interaction effect. Second, the high correlation between our predictor variables may indicate that respondents referred to the same behavioral event when rating their interpersonal justice and injustice behavior. To strengthen the evidence that injustice (vs. justice) behavior is a stronger predictor, a broader timeframe is required to increase the duration or frequency of justice-related events. Third, following prior attribution research (Miller et al., 1981), we measured internal attribution with two items assessing whether respondents viewed themselves or others as responsible, recoding the latter for scale construction. The low inter-item correlation ($r = .51$), and the notion that people can attribute an event to internal and external causes (i.e., two distinct dimensions; Robins et al., 1996), may have obscured the influence of responsibility. Hence, a measure exclusively capturing internal attribution, aiming at higher internal consistency, may be more appropriate to capture the proposed effect. Lastly, due to our sample of university students, the external validity of our findings is restricted. Therefore, a field study directly addressed the above limitations.

Study 3

Participants and Procedure

Because a power analysis suggested a sample size of 290 participants to capture the proposed three-way interaction and recent research on online panel studies suggests increasing the sample size by 15% to account for unusable cases (Aguinis et al., 2021), we sent out 334 initial questionnaires.

We collected data through the online panel platform *Prolific,* which is common practice in leadership research (Aguinis et al., 2021) and particularly appropriate when exploring devious managerial behavior because heightened anonymity and the absence of organizational implications increase the probability of capturing real-life experiences.

Participation was restricted to currently employed individuals in a managerial position with at least one year of tenure. Given the high incidence of injustice at work (Colquitt et al., 2013), these respondents can likely draw on their experiences regarding the current research topic. Additionally, respondents were required to live in the UK and be native English speakers to allow controlled time management of data collection and match the survey language to reduce misinterpretation of instructions or items. To warrant data quality, we pre-defined that responses were eliminated in case a participant (1) responded only to one of the two surveys, (2) failed the two attention checks embedded in the survey, (3) responded to less than 75% of the focal variables), or (4) took less than an average of 2 seconds completion time per item, following recent advice on how to conduct robust and reproducible online-panel studies (Aguinis et al., 2021). All rejection criteria were communicated ahead of the study, with a detailed description of the tasks and the estimated time commitment. Participants who completed the survey received an hourly reimbursement of £9.00.

We collected data on two consecutive workdays using a time-lagged design. On day one, we sent out 334 questionnaires at 08:30 am (we guaranteed participants confidentiality, informed them about the possibility of withdrawing at any given time without further justification, and provided information about the study's purpose to inform participants about the sensitive nature of unfair managerial practices, assessed participants consent, demographics, negative affect, and self-transcendence values; average completion time = 186 sec., SD = 114.8). The afternoon survey followed at 4:30 pm; we assessed interpersonal justice and injustice behavior, internal attribution, and guilt; participants completed survey 2 on average after 116 sec. (SD = 63.9). We obtained 264 matched surveys, yielding a response rate of 79% (we excluded 11 cases because participants responded to survey 2 one day late). On day 2, according to the response rate, we sent out 55 questionnaires to new participants, following the same procedure and schedule as the day before. While all participants provided answers to survey 1 (average completion time = 168 sec., SD = 97.4), two individuals did not

participate in survey 2 (average completion time = 151 sec, *SD* = 119.6; response rate = 99%).

Overall, we received usable data from 307 respondents (42% women) with an average age of

44.67 (*SD* = 9.78). Most respondents indicated their ethnicity as White (90%; Black = 4%;

Asian = 3%; mixed = 3), had a tenure of more than 4 years (63%) and worked mainly in

Education (13.1%; Health =10%; Finance = 5.4; other = 71.5).

Measures

Interpersonal Justice Behavior

Following standard practice when studying interpersonal justice behavior in the field

(Johnson et al., 2014), we asked respondents to report *how often* they showed interpersonal

justice (α = .83) and interpersonal injustice (α = .63) related behavior on a respective day. We

used the same 7 items from the Full-Range Justice Measurement (Colquitt et al., 2015) as in

Study 1 and in Study 2 but with an adapted response scale (1 = *never; 5 = five or more times).*

Self-Transcendence Values

Self-transcendence values were assessed with the German version of the PVQ-RR

(Schwartz et al., 2012), as in Studies 1 and 2 (α = .85).

Internal Attribution

Internal attribution was measured with the item "To what extent do you view yourself

as responsible for your behavior" by Bunk and Magley (2013), as in Study 2, and "To what

extent do you view yourself as responsible for the course of the interactions today?" (α = .71).

Guilt

Guilt was measured with the five of the eight items of the SSGS-8 (Marschall et al.,

1994), as in Study 2 (α = .87).

Negative Affect

Negative affect was measured with the nine items of the validated German version of

the POMS (Albani et al., 2005), for use as control as in Studies 1 and 2 (α = .94).

Results and Discussion

Table 5 displays descriptive statistics and correlations. Again, we conducted analyses with and without control variables and obtained comparable results that did not alter our conclusions.[12] Hypothesis 1 predicted that (a) interpersonal justice is negatively, and (b) interpersonal injustice is positively related to guilt. The results of simple regression analyses showed no significant relation between justice[13] and guilt (B = -0.3, SE =0.03, 95% CI [-0.08, 0.03], p =.33) but a positive and significant relation between injustice and guilt (B = 0.42, SE = 0.07, 95% CI [0.29, 0.56], p <.01). Hypothesis 1a was not supported, Hypothesis 1b was supported. In line with our prior studies, the Williams t-test showed that the association between injustice and guilt was significantly stronger as compared to the association between justice and guilt (t(304) = -4.67, p <.001). Results supported Hypothesis 1c.

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[12] Results, including the control variable (i.e., negative affect) can be obtained from the first author of this study.

[13] To promote comprehensibility, we will use the term *justice* for justice rule adherence and *injustice* for justice rule violations when reporting the results.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations Among Study Variables With 95% Confidence Intervals (Study 3)

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5
1. Justice	5.27	1.00					
2. Injustice	1.15	0.38	-.04 [-.16, .07]				
3. Guilt	1.22	0.50	-.06 [-.17, .06]	.33** [.22, .42]			
4. Values	4.86	0.58	.10 [-.01, .21]	-.02 [-.14, .09]	.04 [-.07, .15]		
5. Internal attribution	3.86	0.85	-.00 [-.11, .11]	-.19** [-.30, -.08]	.01 [-.10, .12]	.02 [-.09, .13]	
6. Negative affect	1.45	0.68	-.02 [-.13, .09]	.04 [-.07, .15]	-.06 [-.16, .06]	-.11 [-.22, -.00]	-.01 [-.12, .11]

Note. N = 307. Justice = Interpersonal justice enactment; Injustice = Interpersonal injustice enactment; Values = Self-transcendence Values.
p < .05. ** *p* < .01.

Hypotheses 2 predicted that self-transcendence values would moderate the relations between (a) interpersonal justice and guilt, and (b) interpersonal injustice and guilt. Using Hayes' PROCESS macro (5000 bootstrap samples; 95% bias-corrected CIs; Hayes, 2013), results of the model with justice indicated that neither the direct effect (*B* = -0.03, *SE* =0.03, *p* =.30) nor the interaction effect (*B* = -0.00, *SE* =0.05, *p* =.92) was significant.

Table 5

Regression Results Showing Interpersonal Injustice as Predictor of Guilt, with Self-Transcendence Values as Moderator (Study 3)

Variable	Guilt				
	B	*SE*	*t*	*p*	95% CI
Constant	1.23	0.03	46.60	<.001	[1.18, 1.28]
Injustice	0.48	0.07	6.73	<.001	[0.34, 0.61]
Values	0.07	0.05	1.58	.11	[-0.02, 0.17]
Values x Injustice	0.61	0.18	3.45	<.01	[0.26, 0.96]

Note. N = 307. Injustice = Interpersonal injustice enactment; Values = Self-transcendence values; CI = Confidence interval.

In contrast, as can be seen in Table 6, the main effect ($B = 0.48$, *SE* $= 0.07$, $p < .001$) and the interaction effect between injustice and self-transcendence values on guilt (Figure 4) was significant ($B = 0.61$, *SE* $= 0.18$, $p < .01$). Testing the effect of SCD at 1 *SD* above and below the mean of the self-transcendence value revealed that injustice was related to guilt among actors with higher ($B = 0.83$, *SE* $= 0.13$, $p < .001$) but not lower self-transcendence values ($B = 0.13$, *SE* $= 0.11$, $p = .27$). While Hypothesis 2a was not supported, Hypothesis 2b was supported.

Figure 2

The Interactive Effects of Interpersonal Injustice Enactment and Self-Transcendence Values

on Guilt (Study 3)
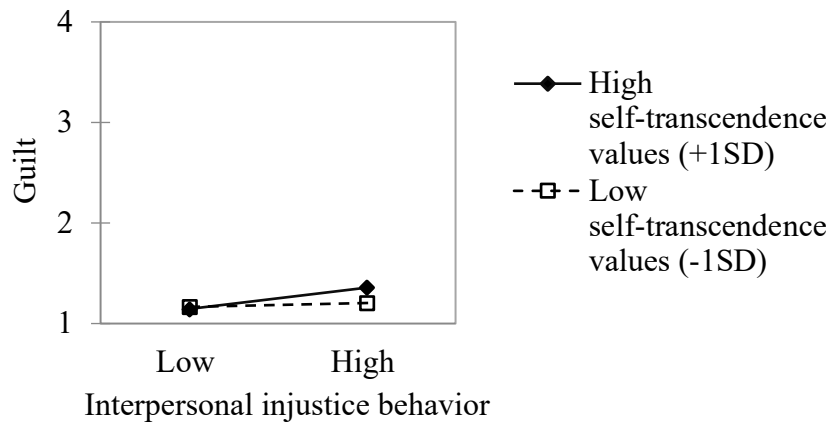
Hypothesis 3 predicted that internal attribution would moderate the relations between (a) interpersonal justice and guilt, and (b) interpersonal injustice and guilt. Our analyses (5000 bootstrap samples; 95% bias-corrected CIs; Hayes, 2013) indicated that neither in the model with justice nor in the model with injustice the moderating effect of internal attribution (justice: $B = 0.05$, $SE = 0.03$, $p = .11$; injustice: $B = 0.17$, $SE = 0.09$, $p = .08$) was significant. Hypothesis 2a and 2b were not supported.

Hypothesis 4 predicted that guilt would be experienced most strongly among actors who view themselves as responsible for their (a) interpersonal justice, respectively (b) interpersonal injustice and hold higher self-transcendence values. Results of hierarchical regression analyses showed that both proposed three-way interactions were not significant (justice: $B = 0.02$, $SE = 0.06$, $p = .70$; injustice: $B = 0.14$, $SE = 0.22$, $p = .52$). Hypotheses 4a and 4b were not supported.

Study 3 provided evidence for the relation between interpersonal injustice (but not interpersonal justice) behavior and guilt. Further, our findings suggest that self-transcendence values moderate the relationship between interpersonal injustice behavior and guilt, such that

managers with high but not low levels of self-transcendence values reported feelings of guilt. As before, we did not find supportive evidence for the moderating effect of internal attributions.

General Discussion

Although it has an intuitive appeal that actors feel guilty when they act unfairly (Molinsky & Margolis, 2005; Scott et al., 2009), the literature lacks empirical evidence. Drawing from the AFJM (Scott et al., 2009) and SCEM (Tracy & Robins, 2004), we illuminated whether and under what conditions actors feel guilty about their own interpersonal in/justice behavior. We found that interpersonal injustice (i.e., the extent of rude and inappropriate behavior) was a stronger predictor of guilt than interpersonal justice (i.e., polite and respectful behavior), whereas the latter was not significantly related to guilt in Study 1 and Study 3. Individuals' self-transcendence values consistently moderated the relationship between interpersonal injustice and guilt. This suggests that actors' affective response to their interpersonal behavior is more complex than currently recognized: perceiving a sense of wrongdoing seems to rely on actors' inclination to care about others and their needs, which may not be the first quality that comes to mind when thinking about critical managerial qualities. Moreover, our findings provide a slightly provoking novel answer to the core question of justice research, namely that of why injustice at work persists: for actors, the benefits of being fair may be too low (being fair did not reduce feelings of guilt), and the costs for being unfair may not be sufficiently high (being unfair only elicited guilt among actors with higher self-transcendence values). Below, we discuss theoretical and practical implications.

Theoretical Implications

This paper makes several significant theoretical contributions to the domains of justice and leadership. First and foremost, we contribute to the justice literature by investigating the proposed justice-guilt relationship (Scott et al., 2009). While many studies exist on how

targets feel when they experience unfairness (Colquitt et al., 2013), how actors feel when they fail to be fair is limited to theoretical assumptions (Molinsky & Margolis, 2005; Scott et al., 2009), even though emotions play a crucial role in shaping leaders' decisions and behavior (Ashkanasy et al., 2011).

Moreover, justice scholars reasoned that actors feel guilty about their injustice because justice is a shared norm, and violating normative standards elicits a sense of wrongdoing (Molinsky & Margolis, 2005; Scott et al., 2009). Despite its merits, this theorizing fails to fully account for the self-relatedness of guilt (i.e., personal standards; Tracy et al., 2007). Although people may generally care about justice (Lerner, 1980) and agree on the justice rules (Colquitt, 2001), valuing fairness does not preclude substantive interindividual variety in the extent actors internalize those rules to judge their own behavior. Our findings showed that for actors with a lower emphasis on self-transcendence values, interpersonal injustice was not significantly related to their feelings of guilt, which is generally viewed as a perquisite of reparative actions (Ilies et al., 2013). Thus, our research suggests that actors' emotional responses may be determined by the importance placed on interpersonal justice as part of their identity, adding to the research emphasizing the role of the self in justice enactment (Camps et al., 2019). As such, we continue the theoretical thoughts of others in the field (Barclay et al., 2017) who highlighted that fairness is "in the eye of the beholder" (p. 12). Specifically, we conclude that how individuals feel about their justice enactment is "in the heart of the beholder" – that is, actors' implications of their justice behavior are shaped by their personal values.

Interestingly, internal attributions did not moderate associations of interpersonal justice and injustice behavior and guilt. One could argue that actors may have experienced their behavior as a reaction rather than an action. In an organizational setting, one could imagine unfair treatment occurs when there is a history of adverse events, which may weaken a sense of internal causality. However, if that is the case, we should have observed a

moderating effect of internal attributions on guilt (i.e., reduced guilt). Hence, another plausible explanation is that *how* actors treat others is inherently controllable. In other words, although people may find various external factors that could explain their interpersonal treatment (e.g., high workload or inappropriate behavior of the target), ultimately, the choice of (re)action, whether one is kind or not, remains with the actor. Thus, while actors may be able to justify their unjust behavior cognitively, it might be that the feelings cannot be easily argued away. This interpretation of the findings is consistent with the AMOJ (i.e., interpersonal justice holds the most discretion; Scott et al., 2009) and nuances the SCEM (i.e., the more autonomy people have over a behavior, the less easily it can be attributed externally; Tracy & Robins, 2004). Future research could examine how this pattern is related to subsequent behavior (e.g., is the head or the heart the relevant driver) and whether it differs for other types of justice behavior (i.e., informational, procedural, and distributive justice).

In addition, by theorizing about justice and injustice behavior, we contribute to the strand of justice research that argues injustice to be more than the absence of justice (Colquitt et al., 2015; Cropanzano et al., 2015; Gilliland, 1994). Although it is reasonable to assume that the one-dimensional scale captures injustice events in low scores, prior work highlighted the usefulness of the full range measure (assessing injustice separately from justice behavior) to detect meaningful relationships (Colquitt et al., 2015). We reveal that, like targets (Colquitt 2015), actors respond more strongly to more severe transgressions. In contrast, positive emotions are more strongly associated with positive events (Colquitt et al., 2015). Future research could therefore investigate whether pride is more strongly associated with the degree to which actors adhered to (rather than violated) justice rules. Concluding, our results highlight the benefit of assessing both justice and injustice behaviors to detect otherwise obscured relationships in actor-centric research and to show novel routes that allow for a more comprehensive understanding.

Furthermore, we indirectly contribute to research on the deontic motive by illuminating how "wanting to be fair because it feels right" (Folger, 1994, 2001) relates to peoples' affective reactions (vs. behavior; Rupp & Bell, 2010). The deontic motive is still the least researched (Diehl et al., 2021), potentially because prior studies evidenced its influence on managerial behavior as negligible (Graso et al., 2020). However, while actors tend to easily discard their moral motive in favor of competing goals in everyday life (Diehl et al., 2021), our findings indicate that the motive can be reflected in managers' expectations of themselves, thereby influencing justice enactment indirectly.

Practical Implications

Our research may hold some insights into why injustice persists at work. Our findings suggest that interpersonal injustice only elicits a sense of wrongdoing when such behavior is incongruent with actors' self-view. Accordingly, one suggestion is to inform managers about potential deviations between what they and employees may perceive as inappropriate intersocial behavior. An additional measure could be to formalize behavioral standards (i.e., social conduct) to promote a shared understanding and awareness of the topic. Such conduct could further be anchored in the reward system to increase interpersonal justice's self-relevance. Another way to reach especially less internally other-oriented managers could also be to increase the awareness of the harm injustice causes to their relationships at work, which subsequently may come at a cost for their personal goals given that targets of injustice or incivility perform worse (Porath et al., 2015). Lastly, a strong feedback culture may help further to close the gap between actors and employee perception (e.g., by increasing self-awareness; Fletcher & Baldry, 2000; Sherf et al., 2021).

Our finding that interpersonal injustice is more likely linked to guilt amongst actors with a higher other-focus also has practical implications. First, companies may benefit from promoting individuals with higher self-transcendence values into leadership positions because they seem to have a natural inclination to recognize if they violated interpersonal norms and

potentially even a higher motivation to undue their wrongdoing (Ilies et al., 2013). Second, it may be helpful to increase companies' awareness of those actors' vulnerability to ponder about workplace interactions that did not go well and, accordingly, to suffer more intensively under potential roadblocks to justice (e.g., high workload; Sherf et al., 2018). This knowledge is important because to have the feeling of not living up to one's expectations, and frequent guilt can trigger tormenting self-doubts (Zwank & Diehl, 2019), impair the cognitive capacity (Bodenhausen et al., 1994), and can, with time, lead to moral disengagement (Ogunfowora et al., 2022). Hence, companies could provide supportive coping measures (e.g., strengthening emotional resistance or self-affirmation interventions; Barling & Cloutier, 2017) to reap the beneficial effect of individuals with strong other-focus in power positions.

Strength, Limitations, and Future Research

We are among the first to shed light on actors' affective consequences, which hitherto has received scant attention (Graso et al., 2020). We provided supportive empirical evidence for the assumed relationship between interpersonal justice behavior and guilt. Despite their strengths, our studies also come with some limitations that need to be acknowledged.

First, the use of self-report data raises concerns about common source bias, which may affect the validity of our findings. Our choice of measures was grounded in the conclusion that actors are the most appropriate source to report their self-perceived justice behavior and subjective feelings of guilt. Alternatively, we could have manipulated interpersonal justice behavior, yet we did not believe it to be ethically appropriate to encourage individuals to display interpersonal injustice. As an alternative, future research could opt for other-report or vignettes to minimize common source bias. However, it is worth noticing that while common source bias might have affected the significant relation between injustice and guilt, it cannot explain the non-significant relation with justice. That is because common source bias can only result in an overestimation of main effects (so the true effect can only be smaller) and an underestimation of interaction effects (Lance et al., 2006). Thus, overall one could argue that

common source bias might explain the non-significant interactions, but given the magnitude of the observed effects, this seems unlikely (Conway & Lance, 2010).

Additionally, our data's cross-sectional nature does not allow us to investigate how guilt, following a justice-related event, unfolds over time (Baumeister et al., 1994). As time passes, actors may be confronted – even if only in their minds - with their disrespectful actions, provoking self-doubts. Consistent with this notion, guilt was found to be relatively higher one day later (vs. immediately after a transgression; Ferguson et al., 1997). Equally, managers may find excuses to justify their injustice, lowering feelings of guilt, which may even be more pronounced among actors with higher self-transcendence value because value-incongruent behavior creates great aversive tension that individuals commonly wish to escape (Bouckenooghe et al., 2005). Thus, the assumption following our findings (i.e., actors with higher self-transcendence values more likely engage in reparative actions) would be reversed, a possibility worthy of exploring, highlighting the benefit of monitoring justice behavior over longer-time periods.

Related to the above, our study focused on linear relationships to firstly establish the interpersonal justice and guilt relationship. Even though our data showed no curvilinear relationship, non-linear effects may surface when justice is monitored over longer periods of time. On the one hand, actors may experience a sudden peak when certain events accumulate and exceed a certain threshold. On the other hand, guilt is considered taxing as the emotion involves controlled cognitive processing (Baumeister et al., 1994), which may, at some point, lead to a drop in guilt because actors are simply too depleted to care (Xu et al., 2012). Consistent with our argument, research on abusive supervision showed that for negative consequences to surface can take time or a certain intensity (Barnes et al., 2015; Foulk et al., 2018). Concluding, future research should address the temporality of emotions to see whether the association between guilt and interpersonal justice changes with time or intensity to better understand potential dynamics and behavioral outcomes.

Furthermore, our research did not provide support for the moderating role of attributions, and we suggested that it may be due to the high level of discretion inherent to interpersonal justice. Hence, future research ought to investigate the role of internal attributions for other kinds of justice. For instance, when it comes to distributive justice (e.g., I do not have the budget to give someone a raise), it may be easier to point to external causes. While a non-significant finding would indicate that feelings of responsibility are less relevant or more complex than currently recognized, finding a moderating effect would strengthen the assumption of the proposed role of discretion, considering that distributive justice leaves actors with the least discretion compared to the other kinds of justice (Scott et al., 2009).

Further, a next crucial step to better understand how injustice may unfold over time is to examine the manifestation of guilt. According to the SCEM (Tracy & Robins, 2004), and supportive evidence (Caprara et al., 2001; Howell et al., 2012), guilt tends to provoke reparative actions. Thus, actors who feel guilty about their interpersonal behavior may subsequently engage (1) in "more" interpersonal justice behavior, (2) in other kinds of justice (e.g., attentively listening to the target and providing room for voice; procedural justice) or (3) other unrelated actions to compensate for their behavior (e.g., engage in organizational citizenship behavior, OCB). However, an alternative scenario may imply a downward instead of an upward spiral. Commonly guilt is treated as a beneficial emotion because it is related to various positive outcomes (e.g., moral behavior and social adjustment; Greenbaum et al., 2020; Howell et al., 2012; Tangney, 1995). However, guilt drains personal resources as it relies on demanding cognitive processing (Tracy et al., 2007). Thus, it is possible that while engaging in interpersonal justice was associated with next-day OCB, enacting injustice may lower positive workplace behavior because guilt reduces actors' personal resources, and positive actions, like OCB, require energy (Bergeron, 2007; Xu et al., 2012). Considering further that individuals who fail to live up to their personal values are more prone to compensate for their behavior later (Verplanken & Holland, 2002), incorporating personal

values in future research design may prove helpful to understand under what conditions guilt has positive or negative implications. In conclusion, future research ought to explore whether and when guilt may provoke a downward or upward spiral.

Conclusion

By exploring the consequences of interpersonal (in)justice enactment adopting an actor-perspective, we provided novel insights on *whether* and *when* managers experience a sense of guilt in response to failing one of their core responsibilities as people in power positions, namely, to be sensitive in their interpersonal encounters. We found that the more actors diverged from what is commonly expected at work (acting with disrespect and impropriety), the more likely guilt was elicited - particularly among actors who emphasize self-transcendence values. Therefore, this paper extends the boundaries of actor-centric justice beyond the "pre-justice perspective ."That is, other than most current justice enactment research that enriches our understanding of why and when injustice occurs, we shed light on what happens afterward, an essential step to better understanding the dynamics of justice at work given that emotions, or how people feel about specific events are a main driver of future (justice) behavior.

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8   Declaration of Previous Publication

The Manuscript 1 included in this dissertation has been accepted for publication in the Journal of Applied Social Psychology. The copyright agreement with the Journal of Applied Social Psychology allows for this paper to be included in the final dissertation. The final version of this article is available online at Wiley via 10.1111/jasp.12940. The full citation reads:

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